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Foreword

Welcome to volume eleven and the second edition of 2015. We are happy to announce that our readership is increasing day by day. For a journal examining the topics of EFL/ESL, Literature and Translation studies, the growth and readership has been pleasing. Our bi-monthly Journal has attracted many readers not only from the Middle East but also from different parts of the world. In this edition, we have presented thirty five articles, discussing different issues of EFL/ESL, literature and translation studies. The first article of the issue is The Effect of Task Complexity on Syntactic Complexity Measures in EFL Learners Narrative Writing and is studied by Gholamreza Hessamy, Dariush Goodarzi and Mitra Sohrabi. In the second article of the issue, Zahra Ghobadi Asl, Mehran Davaribina and Reza Abdi have studied The Effect of Cooperative Learning on Improving Reading Comprehension of EFL Learners. In the third article of the issue, Contrastive Analysis of Passive Voice in English and Persian is presented by Mohammad Reza Ghorbani and Hadis Sherafati. In the next article, Love Conceptual Metaphors in Persian and English is studied by Abdolreza Pazhakh and Shahrzad Pirzad Mashak. In the fifth article of the issue, Elham Abolfathi, Reza Khany and Habib Gowhary have presented Native Versus Non-native English-speaking Teachers in English as Foreign Language Classrooms. The next article which is An In-depth Evaluation of the Textbook Prospect One is done by Masoud Bagheri, Kolsoom Zendehboudi, Azam Rad Mehr, Elham Teimouri and Sakine Tashakori. In the seventh article of the issue; Yassin Babaee and Hamed Mahsefat have studied The Effect of Group Work Activities on Increasing Elementary Level Students' Vocabulary Knowledge. In the eighth article of the issue, Evaluation of an ESP Textbook for the Students of Accounting is done by Jahanbakhsh Langroudi and Enayat Behrozi. In the next article, Shadi Deilami Moezzi has presented Translation teaching methods and translation teaching in Iran. In the tenth article, The Impact of Task-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Iranian EFL Reading Ability is studied by Leila Saberi and Mohammad Rasoul Homayuon. In the eleventh article of the issue, Seyyed Abbas Kazemi has presented A Comparative Study of the Use of Nominalization in Articles Written by Native and Iranian Authors in English Teaching Discipline. The twelfth article of the issue is The Effects of Free Writing on Writing Fluency of Intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) Learners and is done by Masoud Khalili Sabet and Sheyda Khorasani.

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

Title

The Effect of Task Complexity on Syntactic Complexity Measures in EFL Learners Narrative Writing

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Biodata

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Abstract

Cognitive complexity of a task is a significant factor affecting task production (Robinson, 2005). Following Robinson's (2001, 2005) Cognition Hypothesis and Skehan's (1998) Limited Attentional Capacity model, this study investigated the effect of task complexity on the 14 syntactic complexity measures of narratives produced by 47 Iranian upper-

intermediate EFL learners. In our analyses, we used a variety of linguistic variables and a computational system (L2SCA) designed to automate syntactic complexity measurement (Lu, 2010). Analysis of data, using paired samples t- test, showed that the variable of whether students were supposed to narrate a story with a given content or were free to plan the plot of the story exerted a major impact on 13 measures of syntactic complexity. Writers in free-planning condition were faced with the need to conceptualize the story-line with positive consequences for the syntactic complexity of the written product in comparison to the given- content condition. The findings can provide ESL teachers and researchers with useful insights into how these measures can be used as indices of teaching material development, written task and test construction, and ESL writers' language development.

Keywords: Task complexity; Syntactic complexity; Narrative

1.Introduction

Recently more and more weight has been given to the role of tasks in second language teaching and second language acquisition (SLA) (T.Ishikawa, 2006). The use of tasks in second language acquisition has been closely linked to the developments in the study of SLA (Ellis, 2003; Robinson, 2003, 2005; Schmidt, 1993; Skehan & Foster, 2001; as cited in Ong & Zhang, 2010). However, the relation between task based research and the writing theories or pedagogy is not clear given the fact that this line held an important place in both language teaching and in foreign language assessment (Kormos, 2011).

Although most task-based research has focused on oral language production, the role of task complexity in EFL writing performance is a comparatively rarely explored area (Ong & Zhang, 2010). Consequently, less research has been conducted on how different task types and their complexity affect the writing performance of EFL learners (e.g. Ellis & Yuan, 2004; T.Ishikawa, 2006; Kuiken & Vedder, 2008; Ong & Zhang, 2010; Kormos, 2011). Conducting research on the impact of different task characteristics on linguistic features of written texts can help language teachers and testers select tasks that are appropriate for eliciting the targeted features of writing performance. Syntactic complexity refers to the range of structures and the degree of sophistication of such structures in language production (Ortega, 2003). Syntactic complexity has been considered as an important construct in ESL research, as the growth of an L2 learner's syntactic repertoire is an integral part of his or her language development (Ortega, 2003). A large variety of

measures have been proposed for manipulating syntactic complexity in L2 writing. All these measures attempt to quantify length of production unit, amount of embedding (subordination or coordination), range of structural type, and sophistication of particular syntactic structures (Ortega, 2003).

Researchers who apply syntactic complexity measures have been facing a challenge of lacking computational tools to automate syntactic complexity analysis and the labor of manual analysis (Lu, 2010). As a consequence, most previous studies focused on a limited number of syntactic complexity measures. It has been common for studies to examine measures of syntactic complexity along with other construct measures, such as fluency and accuracy (Lu, 2011). Our research aimed at investigating the syntactic complexity measures of EFL narratives produced by upper-intermediate Iranian language learners at a language school. In our analyses we used a comprehensive set of 14 syntactic complexity measures and a computational system designed to automate syntactic complexity measurement. Although our study is based on relatively small sample of learner performances and on data collected at one level of proficiency, the range of variables used for the analyses is considerably wide. Our analyses also deal with the effect of increasing task complexity on production units and basic structures measures of the narratives.

This study also explores the influence of different types of narrative tasks with dissimilar cognitive demands on the linguistic features of written output. In the present study, two types of tasks were administered to learners: a cartoon description task, in which learners had to narrate a given content; and a picture story task, in which students had to devise the plot of their narratives. This inevitably poses a question in EFL writing assessment and pedagogy concerning the fact that when students are allowed to create their own content, they tailored the text to suit their available linguistic knowledge, i.e., the writing performance would be affected. However, this kind of task might be more motivating for the students and can trigger the use of more syntactically complex structures. Determining the content of the written task might make avoidance of certain structures difficult, although it might result in learners' overemphasis on the production of larger forms and neglecting the essential written elements.

2.Background

Much has been posited about task complexity in SLA research however, the question of how different task characteristics influence the quality of students' writing has been neglected given

that most task-based research has focused on oral language production (Kormos, 2011). Most of the existing models of the processes involved in writing such as Flower and Hayes (1980), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), and Kellogg (1996) focus on mechanisms of planning, transcribing, and revision. These models made no predictions regarding the manipulation of those processes, and have been developed for L1 and not for L2 or FL writers (Ong & Zhang, 2010; Kormos, 2011).

The writing models mentioned above discuss the writing processes such as planning, the linguistic formulation of planned content, and revision occurring in short term memory or working memory. It is also proposed that there is a control or monitoring processes component, for example, monitor in Flower and Hayes (1980) and the central executive in Kellogg (1996).

In L2 oral production research, task features are mostly recognized with reference to task complexity (Kormos, 2011). According to Robinson (2001, 2005), "task complexity is the result of attentional, memory, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner" (P.29). Robinson (2001, 2005) mentions a number of task characteristics, such as the number of elements to be considered in a decision-making task, planning time availability, and prior knowledge, which affect the complexity of the task. Defining the construct of task complexity in writing tasks entails considering the demands that tasks make at different stages of writing process. Kellogg's (1996) model distinguished formulation, execution, and monitoring as three important and recursive processes of writing.

The cognitive task complexity intrinsic in the task itself can be hypothesized to be inherent in the formulation stage (Kormos, 2011). It can be determined by the requirement tasks make on the planning of the content and the linguistic encoding of the content. Task complexity is likely to derive from the cognitive demands a task makes in the planning stage. This notion is based on the assumption that complex concepts entail the use of complex syntactic structures, and therefore, cognitively complex tasks are complex in terms of planning and lexical formulation (Robinson, 2001, 2005). It would be possible that different aspects of tasks make separate complexity demands on planning and formulation stage.

Two writing tasks were used in the current study: a cartoon description task, in which the content and the story-line is given, and a picture narration task, in which students had to narrate their own story. In a cartoon description task, there was no need for learners to conceptualize the content of the story, thereby reducing the complexity demands in the planning phase.

Nonetheless, learners need to express the content pre-determined by the task. This might result in increasing the processing load in the linguistic encoding phase by making students use whatever linguistic resources they have available in the L2. In a story narration task, learners had to design their own story, which resulted in increased conceptualization effort in planning stage. However, they can alter the content to adapt to their linguistic resources and consequently faced with a reduced load in the transcribing process.

In task- based language learning, as well as second language writing, students' need to allocate their attention in order to meet the linguistic demands of the task play a key role (Kuiken & Vedder, 2008). There are two influential models of cognitive task complexity in which the questions of how attentional resources can be used, modified, and directed to various aspects of linguistic performance have been answered: Skehan and Foster's (2001) Limited Attentional Capacity Model, and Robinson's (2001, 2005) Cognition Hypothesis.

According to Skehan and Foster's (2001), Limited Attentional Capacity model, humans have a limited capacity in attention and memory. Therefore, the more cognitively demanding tasks require more attentional resources from learners. Skehan (1998) and Skehan and Foster (2001) also claimed that more cognitively complex tasks will force second language learners to divert most of their attentional resources to meaning, and less to form (referred to as Trade–Off Hypothesis).

A different view is held by Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (2001, 2005). He (2001, 2005) distinguished between two sets of dimensions of task complexity: resource-directing dimensions including here-and-now/there-and-then, and with/without reasoning demands, and resource-dispersing dimensions including with/without planning, single/dual task, and with/without prior knowledge. The hypothesis claimed that increasing task complexity along with resource-directing dimensions can lead to more accurate and grammatically complex L2 production (Robinson, 2001, 2005).

Skehan's (1998) and Robinson's (2001) models provided contradictory predictions about language performance. According to Skehan's (1998) model, increase in cognitive task complexity would make learners access their rule-based system. Thus, it was predicted to enhance linguistic complexity to the loss of accuracy. In contrast, in Robinson's (2001) model, more demanding task would elicit a greater amount of negotiation of meaning and result in greater complexity and accuracy (Ellis, 2005).

In reviewing task complexity studies on writing, we found more studies examining the effects of manipulating the resource-directing factors than those concerned with the resource-dispersing factors (Ong & Zhang, 2010). One line of studies on the resource-directing area concentrated on the impact of task complexity on linguistic features (i.e., fluency, accuracy, lexical, and syntactic complexity). Kuiken and Vedder (2007) conducted a study to examine the effect of task complexity on the measures of linguistic performance in L2 writing. The findings showed that increasing task complexity enhanced the accuracy of the participants' writing. Elsewhere, Kuiken and Vedder (2008) found that students were more accurate in more demanding tasks, but in terms of the syntactic complexity and lexical variety, there was no significant difference. In a recent study by Ong and Zhang (2010), the impact of task complexity on the fluency and lexical complexity in EFL students' argumentative writing was investigated. The results indicated that more complex tasks resulted in greater fluency and lexical complexity. These findings are all in line with the direction of increase predicted by Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (2001).

T. Ishikawa (2006) studied a different resource-directing factor: the ± Here and Now dimension in narrative writing. The findings showed that increasing task complexity with respect to the ± Here and Now dimension increased the accuracy, fluency, and syntactic complexity of written language production. Kormos (2011) investigated the linguistic and discourse features of narratives produced by EFL learners. The findings did not provide support for Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis because with except for one measure of lexical complexity, students' performance in more and less complex tasks was similar. Rahimpour and Hosseini (2010) found that more demanding tasks resulted in more fluent written output, but it had no substantial effects on accuracy and complexity.

In the field of assessment of second language writing, researchers have investigated how different task types affect test scores (as cited in Kormos, 2011). Schoonen's (2005) study showed that the writing scores were considerably affected by aspects of the writing assessment other than the learners writing ability. Following this study, Schoonen (2012) addressed the validity and generalizability of writing scores in regard to the rater, task, and language. The results showed that when the assessment task concerned L1 writing, the generalizability was rather limited. Conversely, in the EFL context, the measurement of individual difference in writing seemed to be more concentrated and thus scores were more generalizable. Schoonen (2012) found that writing assessment based on single tasks and one or several raters had poor generalizability both in L1 and

EFL. Hamp-lyons and Mathias (1994) found that expert judges virtually were mistaken in their prediction of which prompts would result in high or low scores for ESL writers. In tasks which were judged as more difficult by expert raters, students achieved higher scores compared to the tasks which were regarded easier. They argued that cognitively more demanding tasks might stimulate learners to generate better written production than less demanding assignments.

This study examined the question of whether the syntactic complexity in Iranian EFL learners' narrative written output is influenced by task complexity. To this end, 14 syntactic complexity indices of the text and 8 structures in the text were investigated more specifically.

3.Method

3.1.Participants

Initially the participants were 52 Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners. Two participants withdrew half-way and three others were excluded from the analysis for their misunderstanding of the task instructions, leaving a total of 47 in the main study (27 females and 20 males). The participants aged between 20 and 34, and they had been placed in the same English classes by an institutional placement test and an oral interview at a branch of Shokouh language institute. The participants' experience with English was mainly limited to their instructional setting. They reported that they were familiar with writing narratives and did not find it much difficult. They were chosen based on availability sampling. In other words, participants were those who were available and volunteered for the data collection.

3.2.Instruments

Two writing tasks in which cognitive complexity was manipulated were assigned to the learners. The cartoon description task involved description of a cartoon strip taken from Yule (1997). The strip consisted of eight pictures, which had to be described in the story. The pictures were presented in the correct order and formed a coherent story line. The input to the task was provided visually, with prompts in the first language of the participants (Persian) to ensure comprehensibility. The cartoon told a story about a woman who went to a supermarket. She entered the supermarket through a door and put her bag in the shopping cart. A kid took her bag away and the woman thought that she lost her bag. This type of task did not require the conceptualization of the plot, and was consequently considered to place a relatively low cognitive load on the participants. The second picture narration task required learners to write a story based on six unrelated pictures,

which all had to be included in the narrative. The task was adopted from Albert's (2007) dissertation, in which the task was administered orally to a virtually similar target population as ours. The picture clues consisted of a book, a storm on the sea, a boat, an island, a house in a town, and an open door. In order to complete this task, the participants not only had to rely on their language skills, but they also had to use their imagination and find a way to relate the pictures to one another and invent a story around them. This task can be clearly characterized as cognitively more complex than the cartoon description task.

4.Results

In order to run the measures of production, all the narratives produced were typewritten in notepad documents and analyzed using a computational system (L2SCA)designed by Lu (2010) to automate the measurement of syntactic complexity of ESL writing samples.

The normal distribution of the two group's scores on all variables was tested in terms of skewness and kurtosis. A series of paired samples t-tests were subsequently performed. In the three variables where normal distribution was not evident, a Wilcoxon Signed-rank test was run. The alpha for achieving statistical significance was set at .05. Additionally, effect sizes were calculated using the formula provided in Norris and Ortega (2000) to examine the effect size of different kinds of tasks on students' performance.

Pearson correlation was also administered to examine the strength of relationship between different pairs of syntactic complexity indices. Finally, a multivariate analysis was run to test the overall effect of increasing task complexity on both syntactic complexity and structures of the texts.

In order to answer the first research question, 14 measures of syntactic complexity were examined to see how the participants in the two task conditions performed. In order to compare differences in syntactic complexity between non-complex and complex conditions, a paired-samples t-test was conducted. There were no outliers in the data, except DC/T, as assessed by skewness and kurtosis values. As Table 1 shows, the results indicated that there were significant differences ($P < 0.05$) in the mean values of 12 measures (all but T/S) between non-complex and complex task conditions. Effect sizes are also reported. In the case of syntactic complexity, learners' performance in the complex task outperformed the non-complex task one and the differences were statistically significant ($P < 0.05$).

Table 1 *Results of paired-Samples t-test for Syntactic Complexity measures*

		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	*d*
Pair 1	MLS1 - MLS2	-10.589	46	.000	3
Pair 2	MLT1 MLT2	--11.112	46	.000	3
Pair 3	MLC1 MLC2	--6.231	46	.000	1.3
Pair 4	C.S1 - C.S2	-8.101	46	.000	2.07
Pair 5	VP.T1 VP.T2	--9.767	46	.000	2.51
Pair 6	C.T1 - C.T2	-9.075	46	.000	2.33
Pair 7	DC.C1 DC.C2	--11.155	46	.000	1.34
Pair 8	T.S1 - T.S2	-.569	46	.572	0.12
Pair 9	CT.T1 CT.T2	--11.074	46	.000	2.52
Pair 10	CP.T1 - CP.T2	-7.295	46	.000	1.34
Pair 11	CP.C1 CP.C2	--4.906	46	.000	0.63
Pair 12	CN.T1 CN.T2	--9.194	46	.000	2.16
Pair 13	CN.C1 CN.C2	--5.374	46	.000	1.22

As the scores for DC/T were not normally distributed, a Wlicoxon Signed-rank test was also run. It proved that there is a statistically significant difference between the complex and non-complex task conditions on DC/T measure ($Z=6$, $P=0.000$). It can be further concluded that the complex task elicited statistically significant higher written performance than the non-complex task on subordination measure DC/T ($P= 0.000$).

Our second research question was about the effect of increasing task complexity on the structures used in the narrative texts. With the exception of VP and C, the measure scores for each task were normally distributed as assessed by the range of skewness and kurtosis. The paired-samples *t*-test showed significant differences ($P < 0.05$) in the mean values of six measures between non-complex

and complex narrative written tasks. Table 2 shows the results for structure variables and their effect sizes.

The paired-samples *t*-test showed that the complex task improved learners' scores in the production unit measures. Due to the means of the two tasks and the direction of the *t*- values, we can conclude that there was a statistically significant improvement in learners' scores from non-complex to complex task condition ($P < 0.05$).

Table 2 *Results of paired-samples t-test for Structure measures*

		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	*D*
Pair 1	S1 - S2	3.023	46	.004	0.7
Pair 2	T1 - T2	2.816	46	.007	0.68
Pair 3	DC1 - DC2	-7.053	46	.000	2.23
Pair 4	CT1 - CT2	-8.155	46	.000	2.1
Pair 5	CP1 - CP2	-5.528	46	.000	1.31
Pair 6	CN1 - CN2	-5.524	46	.000	1.23

A Wilcoxon Signed-rank test was also performed as the scores for VP and C were not normally distributed. The results indicated that there was statistically significant differences between non-complex task and complex task conditions on VP ($Z=3.37$, $P = 0.001$) and C ($Z=2.78$, $P= 0.005$). The effect sizes ($r = 0.34$ and 0.3, respectively) were medium.

For our third research question, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. As Table 3 shows, the results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in learners' performance on non-complex and complex tasks based on the set of measures of syntactic complexity and production unit, $F (22, 17) =13.18$, $P< 0.0005$; Hotelling's trace $= 4.08$, $\eta^2 = .80$.

Task complexity has a significant effect on both syntactic complexity and production units of learners' written output. The participants performed better in the complex task situation than in the non-complex task condition.

Table 3 *Results of MANOVA for combination measures of Syntactic Complexity and Structure*

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Pillai's Trace	1.000	33113 (a)	22.000	71.000	.000	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.000	33113 (a)	22.000	71.000	.000	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	10260.458	33113 (a)	22.000	71.000	.000	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	10260.458	33113 (a)	22.000	71.000	.000	1.000

Pillai's Trace	.803	13.183(a)	22.000	71.000	.000	.803
Wilks' Lambda	.197	13.183(a)	22.000	71.000	.000	.803
Hotelling's Trace	4.085	13.183(a)	22.000	71.000	.000	.803
Roy's Largest Root	4.085	13.183(a)	22.000	71.000	.000	.803

a Exact statistic

b Design: Intercept GROUP

The fourth research question of this study was concerned with the strength of the relationship between different pairs of syntactic complexity measures. Pearson product correlation was used to determine the strength of relationship between different pairs of syntactic complexity indices. Table 4 summarizes the correlations between the 14 measures of syntactic complexity. These reveal several noteworthy patterns of the measures' relationships. First, the measures generally correlate strongly with other measures of the same type or involving the same structure.

Second, among the three measures of length of production, MLS and MLT were more strongly correlated with each other than with MLC. MLS and MLT also demonstrate stronger correlations with VP/T than MLC ($r = .406$).

Third, the sentence complexity measure C/S and the four subordination measures, C/T, CT/T, DC/T, and DC/C had high correlations with each other. All but C/S showed small correlations with T/S. Between the two coordinate phrase measures, CP/T correlated highly with complex nominal measure. All the measures, except C/S, showed weak negative correlations with T/S.

Table 4 *Correlations between Complexity Measures*

	MLS	MLT	MLC	C/S	VP/T	C/T	DC/C	DC/T	T/S	CT/T	CP/T	CP/C	CN/T	CN/C
MLS	1	.942**	.505**	.900**	.896**	.901**	.881**	.911**	.196	.887**	.664**	.384**	.848**	.482**
MLT	.942**	1	.600**	.794**	.918**	.912**	.905**	.920**	-.073	.879**	.757**	.468**	.903**	.559**
MLC	.505**	.600**	1	.132	.406**	.278**	.388**	.301**	-.234*	.321**	.619**	.603**	.618**	.727**
C/S	.900**	.794**	.132	1	.835**	.912**	.835**	.897**	.385**	.867**	.466**	.162	.685**	.221*
VP/T	.896**	.918**	.406**	.835**	1	.953**	.921**	.953**	-.072	.908**	.685**	.364**	.819**	.394**
C/T	.901**	.912**	.278**	.912**	.953**	1	.926**	.981**	-.012	.925**	.635**	.297**	.813**	.342**
DC/C	.881**	.905**	.388**	.835**	.921**	.926**	1	.957**	-.032	.948**	.667**	.389**	.844**	.476**
DC/T	.911**	.920**	.301**	.897**	.953**	.981**	.957**	1	-.001	.941**	.646**	.311**	.830**	.384**
T/S	.196	-.073	-.234*	.385**	-.072	-.012	-.032	-.001	1	.048	-.218*	-.206*	-.149	-.234*
CT/T	.887**	.879**	.321**	.867**	.908**	.925**	.948**	.941**	.048	1	.595**	.299**	.818**	.423**
CP/T	.664**	.757**	.619**	.466**	.685**	.635**	.667**	.646**	-.218*	.595**	1	.903**	.689**	.467**
CP/C	.384**	.468**	.603**	.162	.364**	.297**	.389**	.311**	-.206*	.299**	.903**	1	.438**	.401**
CN/T	.848**	.903**	.618**	.685**	.819**	.813**	.844**	.830**	-.149	.818**	.689**	.438**	1	.809**
CN/C	.482**	.559**	.727**	.221*	.394**	.342**	.476**	.384**	-.234*	.423**	.467**	.401**	.809**	1

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.**Discussion**

Our study investigated the effects of manipulating task complexity in terms of the resource-dispersing and resource-directing dimensions in relation to syntactic complexity and text structure in EFL narrative writing. In the present study, two models with claims about the relationship between task complexity and linguistic performance were compared: Skehan and Foster's Limited Attentional Capacity Model (Skehan & Foster, 2001) and Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2001, 2005). The former predicted a better performance on the less complex tasks, while the latter did so for the complex ones.

Based on Robinson's (2001, 2005) Cognition Hypothesis, we predicted that as we increase task complexity, with respect to the plot given and planning the plot, syntactic complexity would increase correspondingly. Text structure was also predicted to increase by enhancing task complexity.

The first research question addressed the effect of task complexity on syntactic complexity in written narratives. With respect to this, a main effect of task complexity on syntactic complexity was detected: learners produced more syntactically complex texts in more complex tasks. As regards the effect of task demands on narrative writing, we can conclude that the need to conceptualize the story-line seemed to result in linguistic changes. Apparently, the complex task required learners to produce their own language. The possible explanation might be that the participants had to plan the content of the story, which might have automatically promoted lexical and structural retrieval and triggered the use of more complex syntactic structures and constructions, consequently resulting in higher syntactic complexity.

As for the competing theories of the role of attention in task performance, our findings with regard to EFL narrative writing suggest that the resource-dispersing characteristics of picture narration task is pushing learners to use more lengthy production, particular structures, subordination and coordination, and thereby increasing syntactic complexity. If the task in which learners need to plan the content of their narratives is considered to be cognitively more complex, the findings provide support for Robinson's (2001, 2005) Cognition Hypothesis.

The second research question concerned the effect of increasing task complexity on production units and structures in terms of sentence, clause, dependent clause, T-unit, coordinate phrase, complex nominal, and verb phrase. As expected, encouraging learners to write in a complex task condition resulted in greater use of these structures. However, the picture narration task appeared

to inhibit using more sentences and T-units. The results concerning C, DC, CT, CP, CN, and VP reveal that the task in which writers had to conceptualize the content of the story seems to have elicited more production units and promoted the use of more coordination phrases, verb phrases, and complex nominals. In other words, participants gained more benefits from the complex task as for the text structures.

With respect to our third research question, task complexity across the given content and conceptualization of content had a marked effect on written structures and on syntactic complexity of the text. We suggest that this can be explained by hypothesizing that devising the plan of a story assists learners to set internal goals, organize the text to be produced more freely and effectively, and thus facilitate the process of translating what has been planned into the written form. Reaching for a higher goal gives meaning to sentence structure, and concentrating on producing their own story-line could lead to greater improvement in control of the elements of the written form as well as production of the larger forms. The results also indicated that reducing the cognitive load in a writing task by giving the writers the content or the plot of the narrative did not reduce the cognitive demands of the task and did not lead to better writing among EFL learners in this study. The results are in line with Robinson's (2001, 2005) Cognition Hypothesis but in the opposite direction predicted by Skehan and Foster's (2001) Limited Attentional Capacity Model.

With regard to the strength of the relationship between different pairs of syntactic complexity measures the correlations between measures help us understand why certain measures exhibit similar patterns of development. These correlations can help us determine which measures should be considered together in assessing learners' performance and proficiency. Mendelsohn (1983) suggests that a low correlation between two measures may indicate that they both should be considered because they deal with different aspects of language use. For example, MLC is most strongly correlated with CN/C. Consequently, it is advisable to consider MLC along with one of the subordination measures, given the low correlation between them and their ability to evaluate the student's performance.

The pattern of relationship among 14 measures of syntactic complexity provides several pieces of evidence in support of the sentence and T-unit as more informative units of the analysis than the clause. In our study, participants were in the same proficiency level; therefore, any difference is not due to proficiency level, but to other factors, mainly differential task complexity, as even

the same student may write with a different quality, not to mention different learners in the same proficiency level.

The subordination measures used in this study, namely, C/T, CT/T, DC/C, and DC/T revealed to be more informative than the coordination measures T/S, CP/C, and CP/T due to their relationship pattern with the other measures. Our findings are in line with Bardovi-Harlig (1992) and Gaies (1980) who also found that subordination analysis is superior to coordination analysis.

6.Conclusion

The overriding purpose of this study was to explore the effects of two types of narrative writing tasks on syntactic complexity of textual output. Given the paucity of task complexity research on written language production (Ong & Zhang, 2010), our study intended to fill the gap by examining the effects of manipulating the +/- pre-determined content dimension of task complexity on L2 written narrative discourse, according to Robinson's (2001, 2005) Cognition Hypothesis. In manipulating +/- pre-determined content, our study tried to use ways in which the cognitive complexity of tasks can be understood and analyzed in EFL writing with reference to different stages of composing a text. We proposed this idea that cognitively complex concepts not only increase task complexity on both planning and formulation stages, but also they pose independent complexity requirement in separate stages of writing process. Independent demands would take place based on the need for the expression of pre-determined content. The study also explored how a wide range of syntactic complexity and structure variables and automated analyses can be used in examining the writing performance.

The results showed various significant effects of increasing task complexity on syntactic complexity and structures of the narrative outputs. The overall results seemed more compatible with the Cognition Hypothesis in which Robinson (2001, 2005) declared that increase in the cognitive and conceptual demands of tasks can have positive impacts on the quality of learner linguistic production. Our results did not lend support to the predictions of Skehan and Foster's Limited Attentional Capacity regarding the effects of increasing task complexity with respect to +/- pre-determined content factor, on reducing syntactic complexity.

6.1. Application and implications

In this research, we explored how measures of syntactic complexity and production units of narrative tasks are influenced by aspects of task complexity. The variable of whether students had

to narrate a story with a given content or whether they were free to plan the plot of the story had a major effect on almost all the measures of syntactic complexity and production units. This indicates that tasks in which learners generate their own language and content do not inhibit students from using constructions that they are not fully mastered.

From a theoretical perspective, the indices measuring syntactic complexity proved to be useful in task variation. With respect to writing assessment, the findings suggest that the variables of automated assessment have the potential to distinguish language competence of learners. The automated analysis employed in this study, might not only be used by teachers, but can also be used for self- assessment. Using automated analyses, learners might establish new understandings of their writing ability and attain diagnostic information with respect to their strengths and weaknesses. These measures could also be applied in the study of L2 speech.

We discussed the patterns of relationship among the 14 measures of syntactic complexity. These patterns may suggest useful guidance for selecting multiple measures that are not highly correlated with each other and can provide practical evaluative and developmental indices. Assessing different aspects of writing performance, these measures can be used in testing written products.

The results showed that tasks in which learners have freedom in creating content seemed more motivating and thereby, led to improving their writing skills. Given this notion, writing assessment and pedagogy might have preference for these types of tasks over those in which learners have to write on the basis of a pre-determined content.

6.2. Suggestions for Further Research

Further research might be necessary to gain more insight into how different task complexity demands influence the EFL writing in other types of tasks and in different genres. It would also be important to investigate the relationship between EFL proficiency on writing task complexity demands. A larger number of participants and longer samples of writing might provide more detailed analysis of syntactic complexity indices in the text. Further qualitative analysis and holistic rating could allow for a better understanding of task and other factors related to variation in EFL writing.

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Title

The Effect of Cooperative Learning on Improving Reading Comprehension of EFL Learners

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Abstract

This study investigated the effect of cooperative learning on improving reading comprehension ability of the Iranian intermediate male and female EFL learners. It also set out to explore any possible effect of interaction between grouping (cooperative learning vs. individualistic learning) and gender on reading comprehension. A total of 80 intermediate level students (divided into four equal groups) participated in this study. Two groups received cooperative learning whereas the other two groups practiced individualistic learning. Two-way ANOVA Analysis revealed that cooperative learning improved reading comprehension ability of the learners. The effect of gender, as moderator

variable was also examined, and the interaction between grouping and gender on reading comprehension was studied too, but no statistically significant effect was found.

Keywords: Cooperative Learning (CL), Reading Comprehension, EFL Learners

1. Introduction

Reading is the basic tool of learning and the foundation of all knowledge in everyday life. It is a privately performed receptive skill and learners always use this skill to increase their general knowledge of language as well as their world knowledge. During reading readers decode the message of the writer and try to recreate it new. In reading skill learners use their mental activities and it shows that reading is an active process like the other skills (Rashtchi & Keyvanfar, 1999).

Important things in reading are comprehension and interpretation of meaning. Reading comprehension means understanding a text that a reader reads. It is the process of constructing meaning from a text (Wei, 2009). Reading comprehension is a process of decoding through the development of an extensive repertoire of sight words, learning the meaning of the words of the text, and learning how to abstract meaning from text (Abd al & Al Odwan, 2012). Many researchers and educators investigated techniques that improve and facilitate reading comprehension (Alhaidari, 2006; Chen, 2005; Faramarzi, 2003; Ghaith, 2003; Liang, 2002). There may be different ways or strategies for improving reading comprehension ability of foreign language learners and cooperative learning (CL) may be one of them. In CL people achieve higher level than those who work under competitive or individual learning structures. Cooperative learning gives learners more chances to produce language in a functional manner (Zhang, 2010). This study attempts to investigate the effectiveness of Think-Pair-share method of cooperative learning on improving reading comprehension between male and female EFL learners in Iran and answer the following questions

RQ1. Does type of grouping (cooperative learning vs. individualistic) have any effect on increasing reading comprehension ability of the learners?

RQ2. Does gender have any effect on increasing reading comprehension ability of the learners?

RQ3. Does the interaction between type of grouping (cooperative learning vs. individualistic) and gender have any effect on increasing reading comprehension ability of the learners?

According to Chastain (1988), reading is the activation of relevant knowledge and related language skill for accomplishing exchange of information from one person to another. Kazemi

(2012) says reading occurs in a context rather than in isolation. Understanding of the meaning of the text by use of sentences is impossible. Meaning of the text can be derived from the previous knowledge stored in the readers' mind and the process through which the reader tackles it. Reading is considered as a complex act of communication in which a number of textual, contextual and reader-based variables interact to produce comprehension which is based on word recognition, vocabulary, sentence patterns and text structure awareness (Shaaban, 2006). Chastain (1988) states that the important goal of reading is understanding the meaning of the text, and this understanding means comprehension. Reading comprehension is a very complex task that requires different cognitive processes and reading abilities over life span. It is a complex cognitive ability, integrating information with the knowledge of the listener/ reader that results the elaboration of a mental representation (Meneghetti, Carretti & De Beni, 2006). There may be different ways or strategies for improving reading comprehension ability of foreign language learners and cooperative learning (CL) may be one of them.

According to Mandal (2009), Robinson, (1990), Slavin and Cooper(1999), Smith (2011) cooperative learning involves small teams of students from different levels of achievement that use different activities in order to improve and promote their achievements. Each member is responsible for learning of the other members. In a cooperative learning people works in teams to accomplish a common goal, under positive interdependence and individual accountability condition. In addition Almanza (1997) defined CL as a system of concrete learning and teaching techniques, in which team members are active in the learning process so that they work together to improve both their own and the others' learning. Cooperative learning helps students to behave friendly with their peers. It helps students to increase their ego-strength, self-confidence, independence, and autonomy. By cooperative learning students learn how to communicate effectively, provide leadership, help the group, make good decisions, and understand others' perspectives (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). In cooperative learning students are more motivated and work hard. They create a positive atmosphere and get a lot of experiences. By cooperative learning their opportunities for interaction and communication is increased and also their conversation is instructional and systematic (Liang, Mohan & Early, 1998).

There are comprehensive bodies of research about cooperative learning techniques and reading comprehension. Almanza (1997) concluded that the students in the cooperative reading groups scored higher on their reading comprehension test than when they used the Directed

Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA). Caposy and Heider (2003) stated that cooperative learning method had positive effect on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. Abd-Al and Al-Odwan (2012) investigated the effect of the directed reading thinking activity through using cooperative learning on students' reading comprehension. The findings showed that directed reading thinking activity by use of cooperative learning is a successful instructional strategy that could improve students' reading comprehension. Er, Altunay and Yurdabakan (2012) found that active learning was successful in enhancing reading comprehension achievement of students. Also it revealed that active learning had significant effect on self-concept of students. Talebi and Sobhani (2012) investigated the effect of cooperative learning on English language learners' speaking proficiency in Mashhad. Their findings showed that cooperative learning can contribute to improvement of students' speaking proficiency.

Zarei and Keshavarz (2012) investigated the effect of the Students' Team-Achievement Division (STAD) and Cooperative Integrated Reading Composition (CIRC) cooperative learning models on reading achievement and vocabulary learning of Iranian learners of English. The results revealed that the cooperative learning model CIRC had statistically significant effects on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning of students. Fotovatnia (2013) studied the effects of cooperative and competitive word games on learners' motivation, attitudes toward their teacher, classroom atmosphere and vocabulary achievement. The findings showed that both types of word games affect learners' vocabulary learning, increase their motivation, and change their attitudes toward their teacher. Takallou and Veisi (2013) found that CL had an overall significant effect on students' reading comprehension.

2. Methods

2.1. Participants

Eighty Iranian intermediate students in *Irāniān* Institute in Ardabil, Iran served as the participants of the study. The students' ages ranged from 13 to 18 and their first language was Azeri-Turkish. The participants (n=80) were divided into four equal groups, two experimental and two control. One of experimental groups was male and the other one was female. The two control groups had the same composition. The experimental groups were assigned to receive Think-Pair Share technique of cooperative learning method as their treatment and control groups were assigned to use traditional method or individualistic learning during the study.

2.2. Materials

2.2.1. Reading Comprehension Tests

Reading comprehension test in pre-test and post-test stages consisted of three reading passages. The first passage was followed by ten multiple-choice items and the second and third passages each was followed by five true-false items. Each correct answer received 1 point earning 20 points as a whole. In order to ensure appropriate texts were selected, two steps were taken. First two lessons of each course book that were taught to students were randomly selected and their readability was calculated separately using Flesch-Kincaid Ease formula which ranged from 65.5 to 74.3. Second the researcher set out to find texts in the readability ranges mentioned. The average readability of the selected texts was 68. Reliability of pre-test was 0.78 and the reliability of post test was 0.80 through the Cronbach' alpha.

3. Data Collection Procedures

The data for this study were collected in *Irāniān* 1 and 2 English Institution in Ardabil during the fall semester of 2013.This study lasted 14 sessions. Eighty students (40 males and 40 females) from intermediate level were considered as the participants of this study. They were 13 to 18 years old. They were divided into four groups of 20, two treatment groups (20 males and 20 females), and two control groups (20 males and 20 females). Second, the participants were given the reading comprehension test as a pre-test stage. Then cooperative learning method was introduced to the experimental groups and they were taught through cooperative learning for 12 sessions. As mentioned above the cooperative method employed in this research was called Think Pair Share. During the first step individuals think silently about a question posed by the teacher. During the second step individuals pair up and exchange thoughts. In the third step, the pairs share their responses with other pairs, other teams, or the entire group. The control groups were taught traditionally (individualistic learning) for 12 sessions too. All the participants in four groups studied the same materials (*interchange 1*, *active skills for reading 1*, *practice and progress*, *Irāniān* flash cards, and short stories). In the last session of the study reading comprehension test was administered to the learners as post-test.

The obtained scores from both instruments in pre-test and post-test stages were compared to reveal changes in students' reading comprehension between treatment groups and control groups. The scores were collected and computed to check whether the reading comprehension of the

experimental groups was improved or not and which group (males or females) benefited most from the cooperative learning treatment.

4. Results

To examine the null hypotheses, a two-way ANOVA was run. Descriptive Statistics for the scores on the pre-test study appears in tables 4.1.

Table 4.1 *Descriptive Statistics for Scores on Reading Comprehension (Pretest)*

Groups	Gender	Mean	SD	N
Cooperative	Female	15.2000	2.85804	20
	Male	15.0000	2.75299	20
	Total	15.1000	2.77165	40
Traditional	Female	14.9500	2.81864	20
	Male	15.2000	2.44088	20
	Total	15.0750	2.60559	40
Total	Female	15.0750	2.80464	40
	Male	15.1000	2.57004	40
	Total	15.0875	2.67285	80

Descriptive Statistic for the scores on the post-test study appears in tables 4.3. As you can see in Descriptive Statistics of the dependent variable, reading comprehension, in table 4.1 the total mean value of reading comprehension for cooperative learning group was 15.10 and for traditional learning group was 15.07. According to table 4.3 the total mean value of reading comprehension for cooperative learning group was 16.92 and for traditional learning group was 15.45. For checking the differences between groups' reading comprehension scores t-test was done, the result is presented in tables 4.2

Table 4.2 *Independent Samples Test for Scores on Reading Comprehension* (Pretest)

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
reading	Equal variances assumed	.042	78	.967	.02500
	Equal variances not assumed	.042	77.704	.967	.02500

Table 4.2 showed that sig value of it was more than 0.05. So there was not any significant difference between students' reading comprehension scores.

Table 4.3 *Descriptive Statistics for Scores on Reading Comprehension (Posttest)*

Group	Gender	Mean	SD	N
Cooperative	Female	17.2500	1.99671	20
	Male	16.6000	2.03651	20
	Total	16.9250	2.01771	40
Traditional	Female	15.5000	2.11511	20
	Male	15.4000	2.08756	20
	Total	15.4500	2.07488	40
Total	Female	16.3750	2.21519	40
	Male	16.0000	2.12434	40
	Total	16.1875	2.16470	80

In addition, the researcher used Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to determine the normality of the scores on reading comprehension test as an assumption for the use of two-way ANOVA (Table 4.4)   Table 4.4 *Normality Check for Score on Reading Comprehension*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Reading	.083	80	.200

The result indicated that the scores on this test were normally distributed (Sig. = 0.2>0.05). As a result to examine the null hypotheses, a two-way ANOVA was run. As table 4.5 shows the sig. value for independent variable, grouping, was 0. 002 that is, p<.05. This means that there was a significant main effect for independent variable, cooperative learning. The effect size for grouping was 0. 119, which can be considered large compared to Cohen's criterion. Regarding the second null hypothesis, the result of two-way ANOVA (table 4.5) revealed no statistically significant effect for gender on reading comprehension (p=0. 418). This means that males and females did not significantly differ in terms of their reading comprehension ability.

Table 4.5 *Two-Way ANOVA for Scores on Reading Comprehension Test*

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Square
Groups	43.513	1	43.513	10.259	.002	.119

Gender	2.813	1	2.813	.663	.418	.009
Groups*Gender	1.513	1	1.513	.357	.552	.005
Error	322.350	76	4.241			
Total	21333.000	80				

As mentioned earlier, the third research question investigated the effect of interaction between grouping and gender on reading comprehension. As presented in table 4, the alpha value corresponding to the interaction effect (Grouping * Gender) indicates that the interaction between these two variables is not significant (Sig. = 0. 552). Figure 4.1 indicates a line graph on reading comprehension scores for cooperative learning group and traditional learning group across males and females.
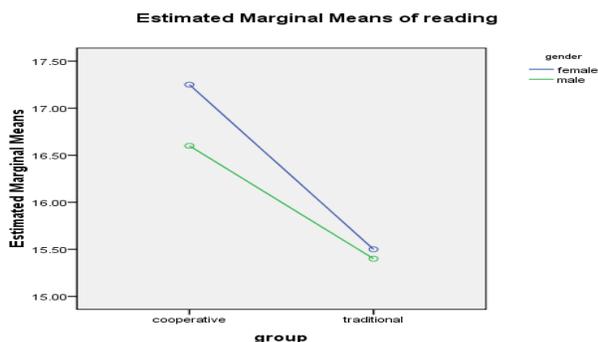
Figure 4.1. Line graph for mean performance on reading comprehension across the groups

The line graph presented above (figure 4.2) also indicates that the mean score of reading comprehension for female cooperative learning group was 17.2 and for female traditional learning group was around 15.5. The mean score of reading comprehension for male cooperative learning group was about 16.6 and for male traditional learning group was about 15.4. As it is obvious from the line graph, there appeared to be a difference in males and females' scores for reading comprehension in both cooperative and traditional learning groups, the difference is only a few points, about 1 point. As it is obvious from the line graph, there is a difference in male and female's scores for reading comprehension in cooperative learning group. This means that students who had cooperative learning had high reading comprehension scores compared to the students in traditional group.

5. Discussion

The aim of the present study was to determine the effect of cooperative learning on improving reading comprehension ability of the Iranian EFL male and female learners. To answer the research questions, participants' performance was examined on reading comprehension test.

Regarding the results obtained from the two-way ANOVA for reading comprehension, there was a significant main effect for independent variable, cooperative learning. However, results didn't show statistically significant effect for gender on reading comprehension ability. Based on these analyses, we can claim that the first null hypothesis was rejected whereas the second null hypothesis was not rejected. The third question explored in the current study investigated the interaction of grouping (cooperative learning vs. traditional learning) with gender in influencing reading comprehension. The interaction effect was not significant; hence the third null hypothesis was not rejected. The findings of this study conformed to Caposy and Heider (2003), who examined the effects of cooperative learning method of teaching on mastery of vocabulary skills and reading comprehension. The analysis of data revealed that students showed significant improvement in reading comprehension and vocabulary learning through cooperative technique. The results of the analyses supported the findings of Zarei and Keshavarz (2012), who investigated the effect of the Students Team-Achievement Division (STAD) and Cooperative Integrated Reading Composition (CIRC) as two models of cooperative learning on reading achievement and vocabulary learning of Iranian learners of English. The results revealed that the cooperative learning model CIRC had statistically significant effects on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning of students. Similar to this research Takallou and Veisi (2013) had positive attitude toward cooperative learning and its effect on increasing students' reading comprehension ability. Along the same researches about cooperative learning, Zhang (2010) showed that by use of cooperative language learning in foreign language learning classrooms students could provide themselves with academic and social skills, because cooperative learning tries to increase productivity and achievement, and it gives more opportunities for communication.

6. Conclusion

This study has examined the effects of cooperative learning on improving reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate students of English language learners who learn it as a foreign language. The findings of the study support the use of cooperative learning as part of the language learning method. First it revealed that cooperative learning can enhance reading comprehension

ability of Iranian EFL learners. Second the study did not show statistically significant effect for gender on reading comprehension. Third interaction between grouping (cooperative learning vs. traditional learning) and gender did not reveal significant effect on reading comprehension ability of the learners.

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Title

Contrastive Analysis of Passive Voice in English and Persian

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Abstract

Passive voice translation is one of the major challenges for translators. This study looked into the ways in which passive structures are dealt with while translating from English to Persian and vice versa by examining the strategies used for the replacement of passive voice in the two languages. To do so, some parts of two English and Persian novels (Oliver Twist and KimyaKhatun) and their respective translations were randomly selected and carefully scrutinized. All cases of passive forms in the source texts and their equivalents in the corresponding target texts were extracted. Because of lack of any appropriate software to be applied to data collection, sampling was carried out manually. After collecting enough data, the frequency of passive voice in original works and their translations were compared and reported. The results showed that the strategies used for rendering passive forms were to a great extent alike and passives were mostly substituted by active transitive and active intransitive structures. The findings suggest that there is no tendency towards the obligatory

replacement of passive forms by passive voice in the target texts. Therefore, translators should not worry about the possible changes in the frequency of passive structures in reciprocal translations.

1. Introduction

What is a translation? What is considered a good and acceptable translation? How should translators translate? Should translators be faithful to the source text or make changes if necessary? At first glance, these are some simple questions the answer to which seems very easy, but when considering them exactly it becomes clear that finding a common answer to each of them is very difficult. Throughout the history of translation theory there has always been controversy about what is an acceptable translation and no specified standards or criteria have been established as to what is a good and acceptable translation. "There is no real overall consensus on what constitutes an acceptable translation" (Kelly, 2005, p.131).

According to Baker (2011), passive voice in written English can pose many problems in translation depending on the structure of the target language and translators sometimes render voice literally. That is, they substitute passive voice with passive structure and active voice with active structure without paying attention to the linguistic features of the two languages involved, which can lead to a translation which is unnatural. Thus, it is crucial for translators to have enough information of characteristics of linguistic systems of the source and target languages.

According to Larson (1998, p.3), Translation consists of transferring the meaning of the source language into the receptor language. This is done by going from the form of the first language to the form of a second language by way of semantic structure. It is meaning which is being transferred and must be held constant. Only form changes. The form from which translation is made will be called the source language and the form into which it is to be changed will be called the receptor language. Translation, then, consists of studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the source language text, analyzing it in order to determine its meaning, and then reconstructing this same meaning using the lexicon and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural context.

By looking at the above-mentioned definition of translation, one can understand that it is not a mere substitution of source language elements by those of the target language. But, it is a process

in which translators ought to convey the content message of the source text based on the context, style, and situation in a way that sounds natural in the target language. So, naturalness is an important factor in voice translation. This study aims to verify practically whether this factor is taken into account by practicing professional translators or there are some other factors which surpass naturalness and affect voice treatment during translation process.

1.1. Passive Voice in English

According to Quirk et al. (1985), "voice is one of the main categories of the verb. There are two kinds of voice, active and passive" (p.159). There are different classifications of passive in English. Huddleston and Pullum (2002) divide passive voice into two groups --long and short. Long passives include by-phrase: "The window was broken by John" and short passives are agentless "The window was broken". Based on the auxiliary verbs, they divide it into be-passive, get-passive, and bare-passive (no auxiliary verb).

Quirk et al. (1985) refer to three main kinds of passives -- central or true passives, semi or mixed passives, and pseudo-passives. Central passives are verbal while pseudo-passives are called adjectival (Huddleston &Pullum 2002).As Quirk et al. (1985) put it, "The central or verbal passives are those carrying a clear connection to their active counterparts: The violin was made by my father" (P. 167).They state that pseudo-passives "have neither an active transform nor a possibility of agent addition (...) it is chiefly only their superficial form of verb + ed participle that recommends them for consideration as passives" (p. 169).

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002), the past participle in an adjectival passive is not a verb any longer, but an adjective functioning as a complement: "They were very worried". Semi passives can both be considered as verbal and adjectival. According to Quirk et al. (1985),"The past participles have both verbal and adjectival properties in semi-passive constructions" (p. 168).Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1436) give the following as an example of semi passives: "They were married" and explain that "in the verbal interpretation it[semi-passive] is dynamic, describing an event, while in the adjectival interpretation it[semi-passive] is static, describing the state resulting from some prior event" (p. 1436).

According to Crystal (1992),a ditransitive verb is "A verb which can take both a direct and an indirect object (e.g. give). A contrast is drawn with mono-transitive verbs, which take only one object (p.108). An example can be found in Swan (2005, p. 609), "I gave the money to my mother. = I gave my mother the money."

Many verbs can have two objects- usually a person and a thing. This often happens with verbs that are used to talk about transferring or communicating things from one person to another, or doing things for somebody.(…) The thing that is given, sent, brought etc is called the 'direct object'; the person who gets it is the 'indirect object'.(Swan, 2005, p.602)

In a ditransitive clause both direct and indirect objects can be used as the subject of the passive clause. According to Huddleston and Pulllum (2002), a first passive occurs when an indirect object is used as the subject of the passive clause and a second passive occurs when direct object is used as the subject of the passive clause.

Active: My friend gave me a wonderful present.

First Passive: I was given a wonderful present by my friend.

Second Passive: A wonderful present was given to me by my friend.

1.2. Passive Voice in Persian

According to Shariat (1988, p.165), "A passive verb is attributed to the direct object like: Hassan was seen. [Hassan dide shod] in which 'was seen' [dide shod] is passive and is attributed to the direct object, Hassan which is the direct object". Another definition of the passive can be found in Anvari and Givi (1991):

A transitive verb can be attributed to the object. For example, in the sentence: Hamid was seen by Saeed in the street. [Saeed, Hamid ra dar khiaban did.] Subject can be omitted and verb can be attributed to the object as follows:

Hamid was seen in the street. [Hamid dar khiaban dide shod.]

In this sentence 'was seen' [dide shod] is attributed to the object of the sentence; in other words, the theme of the sentence is the object rather than the subject. The verb 'was seen' [dide shod] which is attributed to the object, is called a passive verb. The passive verb is always derived from a transitive verb because only a transitive verb can have an object. The passive verb cannot be derived from an intransitive verb. For example it cannot be said: 'was gone' [rafte shod]. The passive verb consists of the past participle (past base form of the verb + e [the final vowel sound]/e/) and the auxiliary verb 'become' [shodan]. (p. 68)

1.3. Similarities and Differences of Passive in English and Persian

The most outstanding difference concerning passive voice in English and Persian has to do with the frequency of this structure in the two languages. According to Jabbari (2003), studies have proved that passive structure is much more frequent in English than Persian. Li & Thompson

(1976) declare that subject-prominent languages such as English use passive construction more commonly than those languages which are topic-prominent such as Persian. Passive voice is well-established in English while whenever possible to use active structure, passive should not be used in Persian (Lambton, 1983).

Soheili (1976) confines the utilization of passive voice to cases where there is no expressed agent in the passive clause. Windfuhr (1979) claims that "the most obvious difference between the passive in European languages like English and Persian is the fact that the Persian passive has no overt agent while the English has"(p. 105).According to Tabatabaei and Rostampour (2011),the agent or the doer of the action is of secondary importance passive in Persian passive sentences. Other ways to express passive meaning in Persian which are more preferable than passive structure include using non-personal aspect, using the third person plural form of the verb and deleting the subject of the sentence, and preserving the structure of the sentence and simply changing its verb, while English prefers passive voice (Bateni, 1969).

English is an SVO language in which subject occupies preverbal or initial position and object occupies a post verbal or final position in the sentence, but Persian is an SOV language in which both subject and object occupy the preverbal position and it is quite common to bring the object to the initial position of the sentence either by deleting the subject or by putting the object before the subject; however, in English one of the most frequently used ways to achieve the purpose is to employ passive voice instead of active one.

Contrary to English, there aren't any similar subcategories of short and long passives in Persian. That is, agentless passives are used in both languages but agentive passives are not natural in Persian. English passives such as central, semi, pseudo, and bare passives are not common in Persian. It is quite common to delete the passive auxiliary of a passive structure which thus becomes a bare passive in English but it is not possible to remove the passive auxiliary in Persian. In a nutshell, there is only one type of Persian passive.

Despite the differences mentioned, there exist some structural similarities between passive voice in English and Persian. For example, passive is formed through a passive auxiliary and a past participle of the main verb in the two languages. Another similarity is that, in both languages, the passive auxiliary can be replaced by a linking verb such as "get" in English and "become" [gasht] in Persian.

English Passive: They <u>were</u> married.

They <u>got</u> married.

As can be seen in the above example passive is formed by a past participle "married" and a passive auxiliary "were" which is replaced by a linking verb "got".

Persian Passive: Reza was seen in the street. [Reza dar khiaban dide shod.]

Reza was seen in the street. [Reza dar khiaban dide gasht.]

In this example passive auxiliary "become" [shodan] is replaced by a linking verb "become" [gasht]. However, It should be mentioned that "become" [gasht] was quite commonly used in old Persian texts but now it is used only in literary texts. Another similarity is that passive voice can occur in all tenses in both English and Persian.

A functional similarity between English and Persian passives is that both languages employ passive structures to talk about an action without mentioning its agent in order to emphasize the action not the doer of the action. However, in English it is quite common to express the agent explicitly in the passive clause but it seems unnatural in Persian.

1.4. Previous Studies

According to Nida and Taber (1982), for effective communication, the features of the target language should be respected and the formal structure of the source language should not be forced upon them. A good translator is always ready to make changes necessary to reproduce the distinctive message in the target language.

Vahabi (2007) studied the frequency of passive voice in scientific texts translated from English into Persian. His main purpose was to study the strategies adopted in translation of passive voice from English to Persian and also to investigate the nature of these strategies. He carried his study on a corpus of English scientific texts translated into Persian because of the higher frequency of passive structures in them. The results of his study showed that translators employed different strategies for substituting English passives. Among the adopted strategies, the most frequent one was the replacement of English passives by active structures. As a result of this tendency, a significant difference between the frequency of passive voice in the original English works and their corresponding translations was observed.

In a corpus-based study, Kerdar (2007) investigated translation of passive voice from English into modern Persian. He studied the strategies used by the translators for rendering English passives, occurring in literary texts, into Persian. He concluded that Persian translators employed different strategies for rendering English passive but he believed that it did not happen as a result

of conscious or informed decisions made during the process of translation. In other words, he believed there was no factor that could urge translators to choose one of these strategies. It happened as a result of translators' mastery of the Persian language.

Tabatabaei and Rostampour (2011) studied the translation of passive voice from English to Persian. In their article, they attempted to analyze different strategies as equivalent for English passives occurring in an English novel and its five different translations by different translators. The findings demonstrated that the Persian translators used eleven different ways for rendering English passive structures of which the most frequent one was active-intransitive verb. The results of their study were in accordance with the claim that the Persian tends to use active structures more. They believed that there were different possibilities in Persian language for translating passive voice and that the translators chose one of those possibilities based on their tastes and the mastery of both source and target languages.

Hesabi (2012) studied Persian structures used for the translation of English passive structures. After collecting data from five Persian translations of Animal Farm, he presented possibilities of Persian language in dealing with English passives. He divided Persian equivalent structures into different categories and subcategories. The researcher investigated the frequency of each strategy and reported the results in percentage. He concluded that Persian language has different structures for rendering English passives and each translator makes use of them according to his preferences and mastery of the two languages. He also stated that the difference in the frequency of the strategies used by the translators may, to some extent, be representative of their style.

2. Theoretical Framework

Holmes (1988) presented an overall framework in which he included different categories and subcategories of translation studies. He argues that translation studies have two main purposes including a) describing the phenomena that exist in the world b) making some generalizations and establishing general principles for describing and foretelling those phenomena. He divides translation studies into two subcategories--pure and applied -- each of which fulfills one of the afore-mentioned purposes. Pure branch is divided into descriptive translation studies (DTS), which aim at describing the phenomenon of translation, and theoretical translation studies, which aim at making generalizations and/or establishing general principles for explaining and forecasting the phenomenon of translation. Descriptive translation studies further break down into product-

oriented translation studies, process-oriented translation studies, and function-oriented translation studies.

According to Holmes (1988), product-oriented DTS examines and describes existing translations. Process-oriented DTS is concerned with the process of translation aiming at probing into the mind of the translator in order to see exactly what mental processes happen in it, while rendering a text into a new similar text in another language. Function-oriented DTS is concerned with the function of translation aiming at examining the function of translation in the socio-cultural situations of target language rather than the translation itself.

Based on the insights from the above discussion, it can be said that this study fits into the product-oriented descriptive translation studies, in which the researcher investigates the existing translations of source texts translated into another language. More specifically, this study deals with passive voice translation both from English to Persian and from Persian to English by addressing the following questions:

How are passive structures rendered in translation from English into Persian and vice versa? What strategies are used in both directions?

3. Methodology

This study aimed at investigating reciprocal translation of passive voice in English and Persian by addressing the above-mentioned questions. To achieve the goal, the researcher chose a novel in each language (English and Persian) and its translation in the other language as the corpus. However, because of the amount of works under investigation, only several chapters of each novel and their corresponding translations were selected and studied.

3.1. Corpus

The English novel is Dickens' Oliver Twist first published in 1838 and translated into Persian by Yosef Gharib in 2007. Oliver Twist is Dickens' second famous and important novel which has been translated to almost all languages of the world. The book consists of fifty three chapters; however, because of the enormity of the novel and to lessen the amount of data collection which ought to be done manually and because the researcher cannot afford to examine all chapters of the book, only six chapters have been selected to be scrutinized which include the first, middle, and the last two chapters of English novel and its Persian translation. Oliver Twist is a novel of social protest but narrator's tone is not objective. It's sympathetic and sometimes ironic and sarcastic.

The Persian novel is Saideh Ghods's KimyaKhatun written in 2004 and translated into English by Sara Phillips in 2012. The book consists of thirteen chapters, however, because of the aforementioned reasons only ten chapters including the first two, the middle six, and the last two chapters of the Persian novel and its English translation were chosen. Because of the rarity of passive structures in Persian, ten chapters of the Persian novel and its English translation were used as a ground for data collection.

3.2. Procedures and data collection

In this study an analysis of the translated texts were carried out by comparing translations with their originals. The aspect chosen to be examined contrastively in the selected parts of the source texts and corresponding sections of the target texts was passive voice. The research included the following four main parts:

1. the frequency of passive voice in original works and their translations
2. the frequency of each type of English passives in original English novel
3. the ways in which passive structures are replaced in the target texts
4. translation strategies adopted by the English and Persian translators and their frequencies

In the first part, six chapters of the English novel and 10 chapters of the Persian novel were randomly selected and scrutinized. All cases of passive structures and their equivalent structures in the same parts of the translated texts were extracted. The frequency of passive voice per 1000 words in original English and Persian novels and their parallel translations were compared and contrasted in percentage.

In the second part, different types of English passives occurring in original English novel were identified and their total number and frequency rate were figured out and reported in percentage. In third part, passive structures of the source texts and their equivalent structures in the target texts were studied contrastively in terms of the ways in which passive structures are replaced in translation into both directions. Here, frequency of passive structures replaced by passive forms, those substituted by non-passive structures, and those omitted (not translated) were reported in percentage. Those source text non-passive structures being replaced by passive structures in the target texts were also be extracted and their frequency was counted.

In the fourth part, the samples were studied in terms of translation strategies used by the English and Persian translators, and then the frequency of each strategy was reported in percentage. In this

part, those passive structures used repeatedly with the same meaning were not counted from their first occurrence onwards because it was a typological study.

In order to facilitate the comparison, the frequency count numbers and percentages were illustrated in tables. Since passive voice is not frequent in Persian, more chapters (ten) were studied to collect enough data.

4. Results

4.1. Frequency of Passive in Original English and Persian Novels

As indicated in Table 1, the frequency of passive structures per 1000 words is 13.29 in English and 0.63 in Persian. Although the differences between the numbers of passive structures used in the two original English and Persian novels can be to some extent attributed to the nature and characteristics of the works, and the authors' writing style and tendencies, it is clear that English is much richer in passive voice than Persian.

Table 1. Frequency of Passive Structures in Original English and Persian Novels

Original novels	Number of passive structures	Frequency of the passive structures per 1000 words	Frequency of the passive structures per 1000 words in Percentage
Oliver Twist	223	13.29	1.3%
KimyaKhatun	38	0.63	0.06%

4.2. Frequency of Passive in Original Works and Their Translations

As indicated in Table 2 and 3, the number of passives in original English work is higher than its Persian translation. The same procedures were followed for the Persian novel (KimyaKhatun) and its English translation. A higher frequency of passive utilization in English translation than original Persian novel was observed. The results acknowledge the higher tendency of English towards the use of passive in comparison with Persian.

Table 2. Frequency of Passive Structures in Original English Novel and its Persian Translation

Translation	Oliver Twist	Frequency of passive structures per 1000 words	Frequency of passive structures per 1000 words in percentage

Total number of passives structures in original English novel	223	13.29	1.3%
Total number of passive structures in Persian translation	34	2.17	0.2%

Table 3. Frequency of Passive Structures in Original Persian Novel and Its English Translation

Translation	KimyaKhatun	Frequency of passive structures per 1000 words	Frequency of passive structures per 1000 words in percentage
Total number of passives structures in original Persian novel	38	0.61	0.06%
Total number of passive structures in English translation	670	0.98	0.09%

4.3. Frequency of Different Types of English Passives in the Original English Novel

Frequency of different types of English passives (central, semi, and pseudo)in the original English novel (Oliver Twist) was studied. Total number of each of these passive types was counted and their frequency rates were tabulated as follows:

Table 4. Frequency of Central Passives in Original English Novel

Original English novel	Total number of passive forms	Total number of central passives	Frequency of central passives in percentage
Oliver Twist	223	82	36.7%

Table 5. Frequency of Semi Passives in Original English Novel

Original English novel	Total number of passive forms	Total number of semi passives	Frequency of semi passives in percent
Oliver Twist	223	123	55.1%

Table 6. Frequency of Pseudo Passives in Original English Novel

Original English novel	Total number of passive forms	Total number of pseudo passives	Frequency of pseudo passives in percentage
Oliver Twist	223	18	8.07%

4.4. Translating Passive Voice from English to Persian

4.4.1. Passive Structures Translated by Passive

As indicated in Table 7, there were nine examples of passive structures in original English novel replaced by passive structures in Persian translation comprising 4.03% of all examples.

Table 7. Passive Structures Replaced by Passive in Target Text

Translation	Total number of passive structures in original English work	Total number of passive structures translated by passive structures		Frequency in percentage
Oliver Twist	223	With expressed agent	Without expressed agent	4.03%
		0	9	

4.4.2. Passive Structures Translated by Non-passive Structures

As indicated in Table 8, non-passive forms were utilized in 200 instances out of 223 cases to replace English passives. The remaining 23 examples were either omitted or replaced by a passive structure.

Table 8. Passive Structures Replaced by Non-passive Structures in Target Text

Translation	Total number of passive structures in	Total number of passive structures	Frequency in percentage

	original English work	translated by non-passive structures	
Oliver Twist	223	200	89.6%

4.4.3. Passive Structures Omitted (Not Translated)

As indicated in Table 9, 14 instances out of 223 cases of passive forms occurring in the source text were omitted. Omission may sometimes happen to reduce repetition in translation. It may also happen when it is not possible to find an appropriate equivalent for the passive form in target language.

Table 9. Passive Structures Omitted in Target Text

Translation	Total number of passive structures in original English work	Total number of passive structures omitted(not translated)	Frequency in percentage
Oliver Twist	223	14	6.27%

4.4.4. Non-passive Structures Translated by Passive (Added Passives)

As indicated in Table 10, there are 25 cases of added passives in Persian translation of Oliver Twist. The majority of target text passives are not the result of the substitution of the source text passive structures but rather of the replacement of its non-passive structures.

Table 10. Non-passive Structures Translated by Passive

Translation	Total number of passive structures in Persian translation	Total number of non-passive structures translated with passive structures	Frequency in percentage
Oliver Twist	34	25	73.5%

5.   Translating Passive Voice from Persian to English

5.1. Passive Structures Translated by Passive

In this part, those passive structures appearing in the source text that are preserved in the target text are examined. In other words, those Persian passives substituted by English passives are presented here. Table 11 indicates that in 11 instances out of 38 cases of passive forms, the translator has used a passive structure for rendering Persian passives.

Table 11. Passive Structures Translated by Passive

Translation	Total number of passive structures in original Persian work	Total number of passive structures translated with passive	Frequency in percentage
KimyaKhatun	38	11	28.9%

5.2. Passive Structures Translated with Non-passive Structures

As shown in Table 12, the translator used non-passive structures in 22 cases for substituting Persian passives that is 57.8% of all passives.

Table 12. Passive Structures Translated by Non-passives

Translation	Total number of passive structures in original Persian work	Total number of passive structures translated by non- passivestructures	Frequency in percentage
KimyaKhatun	38	22	57.8%

5.2.1. Passive Structures Omitted (Not Translated)

Table 13 shows that in 5 cases out of 38 the translator preferred to delete the passive forms which occurred in the source text.

Table 13. Passive Structures Omitted

Translation	Total number of passive structures in original Persian work	Total number of passive structures omitted (not translated)	Frequency in percentage
KimyaKhatun	38	5	13.1%

5.2.2. Non-passive Structures Translated by Passive (Added Passives)

Table 14 shows that out of 670 passives available in translation 659 cases are added passives.

Table 14. Non-passive Structures Translated by Passives

Translation	Total number of passive structures in	Total number of non-passive structures translated by passivestructures	Frequency in percentage

	English translation		
KimyaKhatun	670	659	98.3%

5.3. Strategies Used for the Translation of Passive Voice from English to Persian

As shown in Table 15, the least commonly used strategy is passive structure constituting simply 4.3% of all examples and the most commonly used strategy is active intransitive verb comprising 50% of the examples. The second frequent strategy is active transitive verb which together with the active intransitive verb make up more than 77% of all adopted strategies. The last two strategies used are omission and noun phrase structure -- the latter constituting 9.6% and the former 8.6% of all strategies used.

Table 15. Types of Strategies Used in Translation from English to Persian

Types of translation strategies used in the target text	Total Number	Frequency Percentage
Passive structure	8	4.3%
Active transitive	51	27.4%
Active intransitive	93	50%
Omission (Not translated)	16	8.6%
Noun phrase	18	9.6%

5.3.1. Central Passive

Central passives were the second most commonly used type of English passives in the English novel (Oliver Twist). Out of 186 cases of English passives, 64 cases were found to be central.

Table 16. Types of Strategies Used for Translation of Central Passives

Type of Passive	Types of translation strategy	Total number	Frequency percentage
Central	Passive	2	3.1%
	Active transitive	26	40.6%
	Active intransitive	23	35.9%
	Omission (Not translated)	6	9.3%
	Noun phrase	7	10.9%

5.3.2. Semi Passives

As shown in Table 17, the most frequently used strategy is active intransitive verb which constitutes more than 58%of the examples and the least frequently used strategy is passive structure which makes up simply 5.5%of all examples.

Table 17. Types of Strategies Used for Translation of Semi Passives

Type of passive	Type of translation strategy	Total number	Frequency in percentage
Semi	Passive	6	5.5%
	Active transitive	22	20.1%
	Active intransitive	64	58.7%
	Omission (Not translated)	8	7.3%
	Noun phrase	9	8.2%

5.3.3. Pseudo Passives

The number of pseudo passives was much less than the other two types of English passives (semi and central passives). In other words, out of 186 cases of English passives found in selected chapters of the original English novel (Oliver Twist), only 13 cases of pseudo passives were identified. The data gathered through the investigation of the corpus are summarized in Table 18.

Table 18. Types of Strategies Used for the Translation of Pseudo Passives

Type of passive	Type of translation strategy	Total number	Frequency in percentage
Pseudo	Passive	0	0%
	Active transitive	3	23%
	Active intransitive	6	46.1%
	Omission (Not translated)	2	15.3%
	Noun phrase	2	15.3%

5.4. Strategies Used for the Translation of Passive Voice from Persian into English

The analysis of the samples extracted from 10 chapters of KimyaKhatun and their comparison with their English equivalents showed that contrary to the translation from English to Persian where passive structure was the least common translation strategy, in translation into opposite direction, passive structure is the second most common translation strategy. The result is summarized in Table 19.

Table 19. Type of Strategies Used in Translation from Persian to English

Type of translation strategies used in the target text	Total number	Frequency in percentage
Passive	11	28.9%
Active transitive	13	34.2%
Active intransitive	7	18.4%
Omission(Not translated)	5	13.1%
Phrase structure	2	5.2%

6. Discussion and Conclusions

The present study attempted to look into the translation of passive structures from English to Persian and vice versa. The researchers compared the frequency of passive structures and the adopted strategies in translation into both directions, and to some extent introduced capabilities and possibilities of both languages in dealing with passive voice.

The analysis of the samples extracted from the original works and their comparison with their equivalents in the target text showed that the English and Persian translators had made changes in translating passive structures from one language into the other. There may be different reasons for the changes made. The adjustments made in translation of passive structures suggest that the translators encounter more challenges in dealing with passive voice in translation because there are several alternatives before them to choose. Based on the data gathered in translation from Persian into English, out of 38 cases of passive voice forms in 27 cases the translator had made adjustments, and in translation from English into Persian out of 232 cases of passive voice forms in 224 samples adjustments had been made.

The findings showed that the number of added passives (non-passive structures replaced by passive structures) and the number of passives preserved (passive structures replaced by passive equivalents) in translation from Persian into English are more than those in translation from English into Persian. Further, the number of passives preserved is far less than the number of passives replaced by non-passive structures in translation into both directions. An important point to be mentioned is that these numbers and proportions may well be affected by the nature of the works, the stylistic role of passive voice in the works, and the stylistic preferences of the writers and the translators.

In translation from English into Persian all cases of passive voice forms with expressed (explicit) agents had been replaced by a non-passive form in the target text implying that Persian seemingly tends to be more conservative in dealing with agentive passives (passives with explicit agent) in comparison with agentless passives (passives without explicit agent), and it also tends to replace English passives by active structures.

The Persian translator has used a passive equivalent for English active structures comprising 73.5% of all passive cases occurring in Persian translation. Surprisingly, out of 34 cases of Persian passives, 25 cases were added passives. Thus, in spite of the advice given to translators as to the use of active structures, there is a tendency towards the employment of passive structures in Persian. The findings show that Persian passive is sometimes used to replace those English non-passive structures that are either uncommon or unfamiliar in Persian such as gerund phrase, infinitive phrase, and prepositional phrase. Some examples are given below:

1. A bill was next morning pasted on the outside of the gate, **offering** a reward of five pounds to anybody who would take Oliver Twist off the hands of the parish.

۱. روز بعد اعلانیه در بیرون خانه گذاشته شد مبنی بر اینکه به هر کسی که بتواند الیور توئیست را از آنجا ببرد همراه خود **پنج پوند جایزه داده خواهد شد.**

2. **There was** an old fat gentleman on the bench, too, who had gone out, some half an hour before, and now come back.

۲. در جایگاه اعضای دادگاه پیرمرد تنومندی هم **دیده می شد** که قبلاً نیم ساعتی رفته و حالا بگشته بود.

3. The old man had gained the street corner, before he began **to recover the effect of** Toby Crackit's intelligence.

پیرمرد در وقتی که گوشه خیابان را طی میکرد هنوز از اثر خبرهای توبی کرکیت روی او **کاسته شده بود.**

The data analysis result shows that most of the passive voice forms occurring in the English source text very often tend to be replaced by a non-passive structure in Persian translation. On the whole, in translation from English into Persian, there is a higher tendency towards the utilization of non-passive forms in the target text instead of passive forms. There may be different reasons behind this tendency. One of them is that there are several other non-passive ways through which passive meaning can be signaled such as the implementation of the third person form of the verb without mentioning the subject of the sentence. Another factor that might contribute to the replacement of English passives by Persian non-passive structures is that the agent of an action which is absent in the English passive sentence (but can be inferred from the context) may become explicit in Persian

thus requiring an active voice. Still, another factor is the replacement of the equivalent Persian passive verb with another Persian intransitive verb which enables an active voice to be used.

Passive voice is sometimes used to functionally (from a functional perspective) bring the object to the initial or preverbal position and the subject (agent) to the final or post verbal position while Persian can use active voice instead with a change in object position. In other words, it is very common in Persian to bring the object to the beginning of the sentence without a shift in voice but in English in order to do so passive voice is required. All of the above mentioned factors may, to some extent, justify the higher frequency of passive voice in English than Persian. The following are some possible examples:

1. Oliver was ordered into instant confinement

١.تصمیم گرفتند الیور را بی درنگ زندانی کنند.

2. I have been so dreadfully put out!

٢.من را چنان ناراحت کرده اند!

3. His head was bandaged with a linen cloth.

٣ سر ش را با یک تکه ی پارچه ی کتانی بسته بودند.

In translation from Persian into English the number of passives preserved is less than the number of passives replaced by a non-passive construction. There seems to be no tendency to avoid passive forms in translation from Persian since a lot of examples of added passives (those non-passive structures translated by passive ones) were found in the English translation. However, the number of passives replaced by non-passive structures is substantial compared to those preserved in English translation.

Passive voice in English and Persian has some features in common. For example, in both languages passive is made through a past participle and a passive auxiliary. The most important function of passive in both languages is to bring the object into focus. However, there are also substantial differences as to the structure and the use of the passive voice in English and Persian. One of the differences concerns the function and the usage of passive voice. For example, it seems that in Persian, passive is mostly used when there is no explicit agent but in English it can be used in situations where the agent is explicitly expressed.

Generally, the results of this study are in agreement with the claim that the frequency of passive in English is higher than Persian. But contrary to what was expected in translation from Persian into English, a substantial proportion of Persian passives had been rendered by a non-passive

structure in English. Contrary to Quirk et al's (1985) claim that central passives are the most common type of passives used in English, semi passives were found to be the most frequent type of passive employed in the investigated materials. Pseudo passives were found to be used much less than the other two types. The study shows that the strategies adopted by the Persian translator for the replacement of these three types of English passives in translation from English to Persian are approximately the same except for the use of noun phrase in translation into Persian, but the frequency of their usage differs from one direction to another. Out of 63 cases of central passives found in the samples, in 2 cases the translator had chosen passive as the translation solution, in 6 cases omission, in 7 cases noun phrase, and the rest had been rendered by active structure including 26 transitive and 22 intransitive verbs.

Of 110 cases of semi passives, 6 instances had been rendered by a passive structure, 22 by a transitive verb, and 65 by an intransitive verb and 9 by a noun phrase. There were also 8 instances which had been omitted in translation. Out of 13 cases of pseudo passives in 5 cases, the translator had used an intransitive verb, in 4 cases a transitive verb, and in 2 cases a noun phrase. In 2 cases, the translator had considered omission as the best translation strategy. Finally, there weren't any cases where a pseudo passive was rendered by a passive structure in Persian.

The results of this study can pedagogically be helpful for the students of translation. They can get more insights into possible techniques and strategies used for substitution of passive forms, thus making more informed decisions during translation process and improving the quality of their translation.

It is not always necessary for translators to substitute all source text structures including passive constructions by the same target text elements. They should not worry if there happens to be substantial shifts in the frequency of passive structures in translation into both directions. The findings of this study pedagogically provide translators with capabilities of the two languages that enable them reduce any possible errors while translating.

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Title

Love Conceptual Metaphors in Persian and English

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Abstract

Man has always resorted to sensible things in his life to make his conceptual metaphors easily understandable. As a fundamental and the most basic emotion, love is gone through analysis in the current research to tap any potential analogy in conceptualization and the potential dominant pattern in the languages concerned, English and Persian. Metaphors are both of mind and language as was proposed by contemporary metaphor scholar (Lakoff, 1993). To achieve the goals of the research, around 184 expressions were compiled from different sources such as dictionaries and related works in the field in the two languages, which all representing love. Indeed, two models were adopted in this research, Lakoff & Johnson's Conceptual Metaphor Theory and Kovecses's linguistic expressions of metaphor model (2003). The results revealed that, the dominant pattern in this study was totally the same (PS=60%), that is, those with the same conceptual metaphor and the same literal meaning. It was concluded that English and Persian share most love conceptual metaphors and consequently confirms the universality of emotion conceptualization offered by professor Kovecses. So, the productivity of the two languages, English and

Persian, is the same based on their similar mentality relating to the concept of love although they may have different love stories.

1. Introduction

Our life is overwhelmed with emotions of adverse kinds varying from happiness to sadness, from love to hatred, from joy to fear, and so on. Indeed, emotions represent all aspects of our thoughts and lives. As Lakoff and Johnson (1890) puts it, metaphor is one of the most applicable and pervasive language tool in representing human reaction to the world and also in better mirroring the exact emotion on specific subject. Comparing these two examples, someone says a. "I love you" and b. "I die for you" we understand that both show someone's love towards others but the latter has more influence since it uses metaphor and conveys the highest degree of love. The real lover sacrifices his life for his beloved to prove his feeling towards her.

We resort to metaphor whenever we find something such as emotion difficult to be perceived. So, we compare the more abstract thing, the target domain, with the more tangible one as the source domain.

Everyday language is filled with metaphors we use. We use them when we find it difficult to describe a thing or an experience. So, we borrow a word or a phrase which appears similar to the thing or experience we want to describe. Aristotle, as the first thinker to elaborate a theory of metaphor, considered metaphorical language both a powerful means of persuasion and decorative linguistic tool adding no additional information to the discourse (Gibbs, 1994, p.74). However, current approaches in cognitive linguistics emphasize the importance of metaphor in language, and they consider it an essential and indispensable phenomenon in both language and thought (Lakoff& Johnson, 1980; Gibbs, 1994).

Within the framework of the Cognitive Theory of Metaphor (Lakoff& Johnson, 1980; Lakoff, 1993) emotion metaphors figure prominently as one of the best researched domains (Kovecses 1990, 2000). In ordinary language, metaphors are used to make abstract notions more concrete. This cognitive process, "conceptualizing", is employed to give any abstract notion such as emotional states a more physical and tangible essence or feeling. Since emotions are unobservable internal states, they are par excellence target domain to be expressed by means of metaphor.

2. Universality and variation in emotion conceptual metaphors

Regarding the universality of conceptual metaphors, Lakoff & Johnson (1980) maintain that metaphor is of the mind, the brain, and the body. In effect, this universality to Lakoff's proponents seems to stem from the idea that several unrelated languages may share several conceptual metaphors for particular emotion concepts. One of these emotion concepts is happiness. There are a large number of conceptual metaphors for happiness in English (Kovecses, 1991), but three of them stand out in importance: HAPPINESS IS UP "I'm feeling up", HAPPINESS IS LIGHT "She brightened up", and HAPPINESS IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER "He's bursting with joy". The Chinese cognitive linguist Ning Yu (1995) found the same conceptual metaphors in Chinese as well. All these prove that concepts are born after experiences.

Still more to support the universality of metaphors, Kovecses (2005) holds that metaphors tend to be universal and near-universal at generic-level and specific-level metaphors tend to be different cross-linguistically. For instance, HAPPINESS IS UP is a generic–level metaphor and a specific-level version of the metaphor HAPPINESS IS UP in English is HAPPINESS IS BEING OFF THE GROUND. As Ning Yu (1995) observed, this specific metaphor does not exist in Chinese. He also points out that Chinese shares with English all the basic metaphorical source domains for happiness, UP, LIGHT, FLUID IN A CONTAINER, but an alternative metaphor that Chinese has does not exist in English, is HAPPINESS IS FLOWER IN THE HEART.

Matsuki (1995) observed that all the metaphors for anger in English as analyzed by Lakoff and Kovecses (1987) can also be found in Japanese. At the same time, she points out that there are a large number of anger-related expressions that group around the Japanese concept of "hara" (Lit. "belly"). This is a culturally significant concept that is unique to Japanese culture, and so the conceptual metaphor "Anger is (in the) hara" is limited to Japanese.

Kovecses (2003) conducted a comparative study on metaphors in English and Hungarian. He investigated the metaphor TIME IS MONEY. In his study of linguistic expressions of metaphor in the two languages, four parameters were taken into consideration, namely linguistic form, literal meaning, metaphorical meaning and conceptual metaphor. Three patterns were identified, but the most highly frequent pattern was the same in all parameters in the two languages.

When investigating cross-cultural studies of metaphor, the researcher noticed that Persian is ignored from such a research in the realm of emotion. In fact, there is a vital need to study Persian metaphors from a cognitive linguistic viewpoint to uncover the conceptual structure of Persian

speakers particularly in the case of emotions since metaphor is the best cognitive tool in expressing their intensity.

3. Method

3.1. Data source and collection

The corpus was comprised of 184 metaphorical expressions describing love were collected from different sources in both English and Persian. Love as one of the Basic emotions, introduced in Kovecses (2000) was adopted as the research material. The model as well as the instrument of the analysis and comparison of the two sets of data collected in the two languages was, however, adopted from Lakoff and Johnson (1980). The research corpus was collected from several sources, from both written and spoken discourses in both English and Persian, including the works done by Lakoff and Kovecses on the field (Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff &Kovecses, 1983; Kovecses, 1990, 2005), British National Corpus (BNC), Persian Expressions were, in turn, extracted from Amsal-Al-Hekam (Dehkhoda,1960), Farhang-e Kenayat-e Sokhan (Hassan Anvary, 2004).

3.2. Procedure

This research went through two phases- juxtaposition and comparative analysis of the conceptual patterns in the languages concerned. First, the metaphorical expressions were grouped under their general and specific source and target domains; then they were compared based on the two discriminative parameters, conceptual metaphor and literal meaning. In addition, each Persian expression with its English phonetic representation and its English literal translation were listed in each conceptual metaphor. If expressions in each group can be found in the other language with the same literal meaning and conceptual metaphor, they were considered as totally the same, while two expressions under the same conceptual metaphor with different literal meanings were considered as partially the same and if an expression was an instantiation of a different conceptual metaphor which was absent in the other was considered as totally different. To compare the means across these three patterns in each category, a Chi-Square test was applied to data.

4. Data analysis

As for comparative analysis, the data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively in terms of the models presented by Lakoff and Johnson' s (1980) Conceptual Metaphor Theory and Kovecses' (2003) the model of linguistic expressions of Metaphor such as "LOVE IS FLUID IN

A CONTAINER", "LOVE IS ENEMY", "LOVE IS INSANITY", "LOVE IS FORCE" and etc. Because of the space limitation some of them are discussed here. The conceptual metaphors for love that make themselves manifest in Persian and English everyday languageuse are emerging as following.

4.1. Opponent/ War metaphor

Kovecses (2000, p.68) in his studies on emotion found the opponent metaphor as a source domain for emotions. In the metaphor "EMOTION IS AN OPPONENT",emotions are conceptualized as opponents in a struggle. Basic emotions, love is one of them, is also conceptualized as an opponent in a struggle. In this metaphor love is understood as an opponent as it is with other emotions. Love in this sense, like an opponent, can catch, make surrender, hurt or kill (Kovecses,1986). In this conventional metaphor love is represented as a foe/opponent in a fight, such that winning the fight represents maintaining control over one's feelings of love and losing or surrendering represents loss of control**.**The two metaphors war and opponent are studied category simultaneously, as it seems these metaphors are interconnected in several ways. For example, warfare certainly including fighting, which can in turn lead to physical ailment, injury, and death.   The OPPONENT/WAR metaphors in this group characterize both the love emotion and the love relationship. The struggle is both internal and external, between the self and the other love party as a war between two opponent parties. So, the metaphor "LOVE IS AN OPPONENT" and "LOVE IS WAR" is derived from the metaphor EMOTION IS AN OPPONENT. There are a number of linguistic examples in English to show this: "She tried to fight her feelings", "she conquered him", "He is slowly gaining ground with her", "He made an ally of her mother", "she was seized by love", "She was struggling with her feelings of love", "She was overcome by love", "Love took complete control overhim". These metaphors are also very common in Persian. The following Persian expressions illustrate are manifestations of these two metaphors: " ستم عشق"/setæmeešq/ (lit. oppression of love), "فریب عشق را خوردن" /færibeešqrâxordæn/ (lit. to be deceived by love), "به دام عشق گرفتارشدن" /bedâmeešqgereftâršodæn/ (lit. to be in love trap), " غلبه بر عشق" /qælbebærešq/ (lit. overcome love), " اسیر عشق" /æsireešq/ (lit. be captive of love), and "عشق شکست ناپذیر است" /ešqšekæstnâpæziræst/ (lit. love is undefeatable).The opponent/war metaphors are very common cross culturally (Popaditch,2004; Barcelona,1995; Kovecses,1988). Collected Persian data revealed another metaphor for love in which love depicted as a robber, so the conceptual metaphor "LOVE IS ROBBER" which derives from the conceptual metonymy

"HEART ROBBERING STANDS FOR LOVE" is presented from metaphorical expressions as " دلم را ربودی / *delæmrârobudi*/ (lit. you robbed my heart), "دزید را دلش" /*delæšrârobud* / (lit. she robbed hisheart).

4.2. Fire metaphors

According to Kovecses' theory, romantic love is "a feeling which is characterized by affection, enthusiasm, interest, longing and intimacy" (Kovecses, 1988:139). He illustrates that the intensity of love, and several other emotions, is for the most part conceptualized in terms of the concept heat. Heat manifests itself primarily in the conceptual metaphor "LOVE IS FIRE". The metaphor "LOVE IS FIRE" is a conventional metaphor in which love is represented as a fire, such that the cause, existence, and intensity of the fire represents the cause, existence, and intensity of the love, and burn damage done by the fire represents physiological damage due to love, that is, the "fire and heat metaphors" are used to described love. Kovecses (1986, 1990, 2002) delineates how people conceptualize love metaphorically in various languages and implies the conceptualization of emotions is shared to a universal extent. Love as fire is also understood something which can cause pain. The intensity of the pain depends on the intensity of love that causes it.

According to Kovecses' assumptions of physiological effects that accompany love, they include increased body heat, increased heart rate, blushing, and interference with accurate perception. (Kovecses,1986:84).Of these, increase in body heat, blushing, and also indirectly increase in heart rate, serve as the experiential bases for the FIRE metaphor as a result of these physiological effects. These physiological effects lead to conceptual metonymies related to love. Body heat can be interpreted as a definite consequence of the burning of love fire inside. In a fiery or wild love affair our body temperature is assumed to become hot (Ko،vecses,1986:101). Warmth is a period when the intensity of love fire decreases, which accords with our folk knowledge of physics, the temperature goes down too. When the fire is kindled love begins. The burning can suddenly burst into flames, but it can only last for a relatively short time and then return to mild temperature or even go out completely, so the metonymy "BODY HEAT STANDS FOR LOVE" and "BODY WARMTH STANDS FOR LOVE" are derived from the heat/warmth effects of love.

Another physiological effect of love accompanying body heat, it is increase in heartbeat. Heartbeat jumps fast when people meet or think of the persons they love. Probably it is caused by the risen temperature of the body being burned by the fire of love and it gives the conceptual metonymy "INCREASED HEARTBEAT STANDS FOR LOVE".

Blushing is assumed as the result of increased body heat and/or heartbeat. The reason is obvious: while a person is warmed by fire, his/her body temperature increases, and then the face would easily turn red and the metonymy "BLUSHING STANDS FOR LOVE" can be drawn from this physiological effect. We know that a thing burned by fire is unable to function normally. Either the constitution of the burned subject is broken down or the shape of it makes a change. Carrying it to love, the inability of a person in love to function normally is quite similar. The inaccuracy involves a lack of control on the body performance due to the fiery burning of the love fire. All these mentioned physiological effects can be found both in English and Persian expressions of love. The related linguistic expressions in English are the followings, "My heart's on fire, She is his latest flame", "That kindled love in his heart", "I don't want to get burned again", "He was consumed by love", "your love burned me", "the heat of your love burned me", "I felt hot all over when I saw her", "I love you, she whispered in the heat of passion", "They created a warm family home for themselves and their children", "She feels warm all over when her husband comes home from work ", "His heart was throbbing with love ", "Her heart began to pound when she saw him ", "He *was* blinded by love ","I just melted when she looked at me", and Persian expressions such as, "عشقآتشی در وجودش برافروخته بود" /ešqâtæšidær vodʒudæšbæræfruxte bud/ (lit.love kindled fire in her soul), "عشقکورش کرده" /ešqkuræškarde/ (lit. Love made him blind), "عشقآتشین" /ešqâtæšin/ (lit. fire like love), "حرارتعشق"/hærârtešq/ (lit. warmth of love), " عشوشهب کدلزوسشنآ تاشدمشچه مشواخ سفر درور" /češodânâtæšsuzændeke bud šoleværdærnæfæsexâmušæm/. The fire metaphor related to love is common cross-culturally (Barcelona,1992; Kovecse, 1990).

4.3. Captive animal metaphor

Still another way of expressing love identified by Kovecses (1988) is by making use of metaphor "LOVE IS A CAPTIVE ANMAL" that considers love to be a dangerous animal which can hurt people. In this metaphor love is represented as a captive animal, external to the person in love but held onto by him or her, such that letting the animal loose represents loss of control over the feeling of love, and holding onto the animal represents retention of control. In everyday experience, dangerous animals are labeled as 'unfriendly' as they can hurt people. Thus, they have to be contained so that people can walk safely. Love, in this metaphor, is understood as a dangerous animal and should be contained if people have to function normally in their everyday life. English expressions such as, "She let go ofher feelings", "he couldn't hold back his love", and Persian Expressions such as, "عشقش را رها کرد"/ešgæšrâræhâkærd/ (lit. let go her love), " هوی تواست

در گیلبر ش كساشخ/nemitunestdʒeloehsâsâtešrâbegiræd/ (lit. couldn't hold back her feeling) are part of this metaphor.

4.4. Journey metaphor

"LOVE IS A JOURNEY" is a conventional conceptual metaphor in which love is represented as a journey, thus highlighting the aspects of purpose, progress, and problems in the love relationship. As Kovecses (2000:7) points out, when we use the sentence "We aren't going anywhere", the expression go somewhere indicates traveling to a destination, in this particular sentence, a journey which has no clear destination. The word we obviously refers to the travelers involved. This sentence then gives us three constituent elements of journeys: the travelers, the travel or the journey as such, and the destination. However, when we hear this sentence in the appropriate context, we will interpret it to be about love, and we will know that the speaker of the sentence has in mind not real travelers but lovers, not a physical journey but the events in a love relationship, and not a physical destination at the end of the journey but the goal(s) of the love relationship. The sentence "The relationship is foundering" suggests that somehow relationships are conceptually equated with the vehicles used in journeys. The sentence "It's been a bumpy road" is not about the physical obstacles on the way but about the difficulties that the lovers experience in their relationship. Furthermore, talking about love, the speaker of "We've made a lot of headway" will mean that a great deal of progress has been made in the relationship, and not that the travelers traveled far. And the sentence "We're at a crossroads" will mean that choices have to be made in the relationship, and not that a traveler has to decide which way to go at a fork in the road. The above mentioned expressions are used with English speakers in describing love. Other English expressions, like "We'll just have to go our separate ways", "I don't think this relationship is going anywhere", "Our marriage is on the rocks", "They're in a dead-end relationship" demonstrate the "LOVE IS A JOURNEY" metaphor. This metaphor is also common in Persian. Following Persian expressions extracted from different sources show the journey metaphor related to love, " مشكلات و موانع عشق /moškelâtvæmævâne? ešq râširinmikonæd / (lit. difficulties make love sweeter), " در راشیرین میکند" / dær râheešqrænjebesjârkešideæm / (lit. in the way of love), " راه عشق رنجبسیاركشیده ام مردمیتواند" /mærdmitævânædešq râšoru? konædvælinemitævânædân râ pâjândæhæd/ (lit. a man can start the love but he cannot finish it), " عشق راه سربعیمو rân رشرو کنند لی نمی تولد آن رها ای ان دهد /mævâne?ibærsære râheešq/ (lit. Obstacles in the way of love), " میرود خط آخر بّه/be

âxærexætresideim/ (lit. it is the end line of love), "خطر از بر عشق مسیر" /mæsireešqporæzxætæræst/ (lit. the way of love is full of danger).

4.5. Plant metaphor

As it was mentioned earlier in fear category, one of the conceptual metaphor for the emotions in English was the conceptual metaphor "EMOTIONS ARE PLANTS". Kvasses (2002:98-101) gives us a detailed account of the metaphor, "COMPLEX ABSTRACT SYSTEMS ARE PLANTS" in his work "Metaphor: A Practical Introduction". He claims that in English, the plant domain is mapped onto a variety of target concepts such as: social organizations, scientific disciplines, people, economic and political systems, human relationships, sets of ideas.The plant source domain related to emotions in English was studied by Esenova (2007). The present study data shows the source domain of plant for the love in Persian and English. The stages of plant growth, including seed, germination, budding, flowering, fruition and withering mapped onto the stages of emotion development. English expressions such as, "A romance was budding", "A young, spontaneous love sprouted", "……. and acquaintance ripened into love", "bitter fruit of love", "the love *blossoming* between them". Similarly, Persian applies the plant metaphor in conceptualizing the concept of love as "تمکح اب هدیچیپ من قشع هلان نرب /bærnæhalešqmæn pičidbahekmæt/ (lit. on my plant of love twisted with wisdom….), "هدز هلوج نوشوج وتقشع /ešqtuvodʒude šândʒævânezæde/ (lit. love has sprouted in them), "ناشقعثمر /sæmæreešqe šân/ (lit. their fruit of love), "قشع ندش افوگش /šokufâšodæneešq/ (lit. love is budding). It can be concluded that all stages of plant growth, including germinating, budding, flowering and etc. can be mapped onto the target domain of love in both English (Esenova,2007) and Persian and all English expressions in the plant metaphor can be rendered into Persian serving the same metaphorical meaning. The plant source domain for love is also studied by Ahrens (2002) in Chinese, She analyses the LOVE IS A PLANT metaphor in Mandarin Chinese and claims the following: "Love is understood as plant because plants involve physical growth and love involves emotional growth".

4.6. Child metaphor

The conceptual metaphor love as a child identified by kovecses (1986) gave rise to the metaphorical mapping "THE CONCEPT OF LOVE IS A SMALL CHILD". It depicts the concept of love and the lover as a child and English speakers talk about the lover in terms of a baby. The child metaphor is more conventional and common in English than Persian. The metaphorical

expressions in English reveal this type of source domain: "Well, baby. What are we gonna do? ". The child source domain is more common and conventional in English than Persian. The only conventional and highly used metaphorical expression in Persian, it is " عشقشون تازه پا گرفته" /ešqešun tâze pâ gereft/ (lit. Their love is newly walking).

4.7. Insanity metaphor

Kovecses (2000: 74) points out that intense emotion is a state of the ultimate lack of control. In the case of insanity metaphor the rational self is completely incapacitated cognitively as well as in terms of behavior; he loses all control The insanity metaphor describing love is a conventional metaphor in which love is represented as mental illness, such that the person causing the insanity represents the person with whom one is in love, and the insane person represents the person in love, and the insane behavior represents the behavior of the person in love. In this metaphor, emotion is an unspecified intense psychological force that can produce insanity. In the source domain of the metaphor, a normal person becomes insane as a result of this intense psychological force and it would be more precise to restate the "EMOTION IS INSANITY" metaphor as "THE EFFECT OF AN INTENSE EMOTIONAL STATE IS INSANITY" (ibid). English metaphorical expressions that demonstrate the insanity metaphor about the concept are as follows: "she drives me out of my mind", "I'm crazy about him", "This perfume drives men out of their minds", "He raves about her", "I'm just wild about Harry", "She's gone mad over him", " I am in a state of lack of control", "She is madly in love". Similarly, Persian applies this metaphor in conceptualizing love. Persian expressions such as, "عاشقی و عاقلی دو راه جدا هستند"/ešqvæâqeli do râhejodâhæstænd/ (lit. wisdom and love are two distinct ways), " عشق عقل و هوش شش رابرده " /ešqæqlvæhušašrâborde/ (lit. Love has taken him/her wisdom),"دیوانه کسی بودن" /divânehkesibudæn/ (lit. be mad for someone). One of consequence of insanity behavior which is shared between fire and insanity metaphor is interference with accurate perception as the result of loss of control and the metaphor "INTERFERENCE WITH ACCURARE PERCEPTION STANDS FOR LOVE" is derived from them. English expressions as, "He saw nothing but her, and "he is blind with love" and also Persian expression as "عشق آدم را کور میکند"/ešqâdæmi râkurmikonæd/ (lit. love make human blind), " عاشق عیب عشوق را نمیبند " / â šeqejbe mašuq rânemibinæd/ (lit. lover does not see her beloved' s fault) are the manifestations of this metaphor.

4.8. Force metaphor

As Kovecses (2000:223) points out what underlies most of the emotion metaphor is a master metaphor, namely, "EMOTION IS FORCE". Talmy (1988) observed that many aspects of human language can be described by what he called force-dynamics. The abstract force-dynamic schema will apply to the majority of emotion metaphors. According to folk theory of emotion, there is a cause that induces a person to have an emotion, and the emotion causes the person to produce some response. The source domain of the emotion metaphors in the category of can be physical force, natural force, and the like, hence the metaphors LOVE IS A PHYSICAL FORCE", and "LOVE IS A NATURAL FORCE" respectively. When natural force is applied to emotion the underlying logic is that there is an extremely forceful entity (like wind, wave, storm, flood, etc.) that affect a physical object and this object can't help but undergo its usually disastrous effects. Following English expressions are the instantiations of this natural force metaphor: It was a whirlwind romance, she was carried away by love, She was swept me off my feet, They were overwhelmed by love, Waves of passion came over him, and Persian expressions as " عشق چرخ عالم را می چرخاند/ešqčærxeâlæm râ mič ærxânæd/ (lit. love spins the wheel of the world), " غرق عشق شدن/qærqe ešqbudæn/ (lit. overwhelmed with love/sink in love), reveal natural force metaphor. There is also another force-exerting entity here, a physical force that has the force tendency to produce some effect in the object. Correspondingly, there is a rational self that has the force tendency to stay as before (that is, unemotional), and there is a cause (of emotion) that has the force tendency to cause the self to become emotional. In this metaphor love is represented as a force such as gravity, electricity, or magnetism, thus highlighting a conception of love as something over which a person has no choice and for which he is not responsible. Physical force metaphor identified by Layoff & Johnson (1980:106). "LOVE IS A PHYSICAL FORCE" and its subcategories "LOVE IS ELECTROMAGNETIC FORCE" and "LOVE IS GRAVITATIONAL FORCE". This situation is depicted by such English examples as "The news hit me hard", "I was attracted to her", " I was magnetically drawn to her", "I am attracted to her", "She found him irresistible", "That repels me", "I could feel the electricity between us". "There were sparks". "I was magnetically drawn to her". "They are uncontrollably attracted to each other". "Theygravitated to each other immediately". "His whole life revolves around her". "The atmosphere around them is always charged". "There is incredible energy in their relationship". "They lost their momentum" where a cause of emotion acts on the rational self causing it to become emotional. Persian speakers applies physical force metaphor but the highly productive one is

"LOVE IS MAGNATIC FORCE" such as, " مجذوب هم‌شدند "/mædʒzubehæmšodænd/ (lit. they attracted each other), "خیلی جذابه "/xeilidʒæzâbe/ (lit. s/he is very attractive).

4.9. Illness metaphor

Emotions can be judged to be positive or negative (Kovecses, 2000:45), that is, the most general dimension along which the emotions are classified. Emotions that are viewed as negative in some sense are partially understood as illness, hence the metaphor "NEGATIVE EMOTIONS ARE ILLNESS". Emotional relationship can also be judged according to whether they are functioning or not functioning. Thus, one can talk of a sick or healthy relationship. This suggests that the sense of negative may arise from non functionality. In the case of love, the cause of illness may be due to being away from the lover or having no access or physical contact between lovers, hence the metaphor "LOVE IS AN ILLNESS". This metaphor represents love as a person whose degree of health represents the state of the love relationship. Many English metaphorical expressions demonstrate illness source domain as follows: "this is a sick relationship", "they have a strong healthy marriage", "the marriage is dead, it can't be revived", "it is a tired affair", "their marriage is on its last legs". Similarly, Persian applies illness metaphor when talking about love as follows: "بیمار عشق "/bimâre ešq/ (lit. being sick love), "درد عشق درمان‌نداره"/dæred ešqdærmânnædâre/ (lit. love pain has no cure), "ازدست‌رفته" "درد هجرکشیده امکه‌نپرس"/æzdæstræfte/ (lit. being dead),/dærdehedʒrikešideæmkenæpors/ (lit. I suffered from separation.), "درتب عشق می‌سوزد" /dærtæbe ešqmisuzæd/ (lit. he burned with fever of love). It is clear that this metaphor is common and conventional in both English and Persian.

4.10. Commodity/Object metaphor

The object metaphor is general metaphor which applies to most of emotion metaphors. It has subcategories related to love, namely, "LOVE IS A COMMODITY", "LOVE IS A HIDDEN OBJECT" (Kovecses,1986: 97, 1988: 60–61, Lakoff& Johnson 1980: 25) . The commodity metaphor is conventional metaphor in which love is represented as a valuable substance to be traded, thus entailing mutuality of the trade and comparability of the amounts traded. English expressions such as, "I gave her all my love", "I didn't get much in return", "What am I getting out of this relationship anyway? ", "I am putting more into this than you are", "She's invested a lot in that relationship". The hidden object metaphor is a conventional metaphor in which love is represented as a hidden object to be sought after. Following English metaphorical expressions are the instantiation of this metaphor: "He sought for love in the wrong places", "His search for love

wasn't successful", "You're lucky to have found her".All the above mentioned English expressions can be literally rendered into Persian with the same metaphorical meaning.

Example 1: Totally the same

Conceptual metaphor: LOVE IS A COMMODITY

English expression: He gave her all his love

Persian expression:تمام عشقش را به او بخشید/داد

Transcription: / *tæmâmeešqæšrâ be u bæxšid/dâd/*

Literal translation: He gave her all his love

4.11. Magic metaphor

"LOVE IS MAGIC" metaphor is represents love as a magical force exerting itself on the person in love, thus highlighting a conception of love as beyond the control of the person in love. The magic metaphor is a specific source domain regarding love. English metaphorical expressions as "She cast her spell over me", "The magic is gone, "I was entranced by him", "I am charmed by her", "She is bewitching", "She had me hypnotized", "I was spellbound", "demonstrate magic metaphor. All these English metaphorical expressions can be literally rendered into Persian serving the same meaning and metaphorical sense. For example Persian expressions as "جادوی عشق" /dʒâduje ešq/ (lit. magic of love), "طلسمش کرده بود"/telesmeš kærde bud/ (lit. she charmed him), "طلسم عشق را بشکن" /telesme ešq râbeškæn/ (lit. break the spell of love)reveal the metaphor love is magic when talking about love.

Example 2: Totally the same

Conceptual metaphor: LOVE IS MAGIC

English expression: I am charmed by her.

Persian expression: مسحرم کرده

Transcription: /*mæshuræmkærde* /

Literal translation: I am charmed by her

Comparative analysis of Persian and English metaphorical expressions in describing love revealed that both sets of data are motivated by the same scheme of thought or conceptual metaphor.

5. Conclusion

According to the above-stated comparative analyses of data, it can be concluded that in conceptualizing love in English and Persian no differences were observed since all data show just the two patterns totally the same (60 %) and partially the same (40%), in some cases the degree of frequency of uses was different, for instance, LOVE IS CHILD metaphor was more used in English than in Persian.The two languages share most of the general conceptual metaphors in describing these five emotions. That is, most Persian metaphorical expressions of emotions can be literally rendered into English and vice versa and serve the same metaphorical meaning and effects. The results of this study and the notion of universality in conceptualizations were highly supported with the previous works on emotions (Matsuaki, 1995; Kovecses, 1990; Barcelona & Soriana, 2004). As far as emotion conceptualization is concerned, Persian and English have many features in common, and it could be claimed that both languages share the same conceptual system in the case of love. That is, the most frequent pattern in emotion conceptualization in English and Persian is totally the same.

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Title

Native Versus Non-native English-speaking Teachers in English as Foreign Language Classrooms

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Abstract

This paper aimed to examine the differences between native and non-native teachers in the language classrooms in terms of feedback (translation, metalanguage, self-repetition, and retelling), vocabulary (high frequency vocabulary, synonyms and antonyms), and assessment (short and simple praise). Two groups of teachers participated in this study, 36 native versus 36 none-native speakers. Data were collected via classroom observation. The recorded data were transcribed and analyzed. The findings reveal some differences between the groups that should be taken into account. In particular, native English speaking teachers relay more on metalanguage and retelling, whereas non-native teachers rely on translation and self-repetition.

Keywords: Observation checklist, Teacher talk, Translation, Metalanguage

1. Introduction

This article contributes to the recent body of work on native English speaking teachers (NEST) vs. non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST) in English language classrooms. The aim of this article is to explore the differences, if any, between native and non-native teachers in foreign language classrooms. Some scholars suggest that there is some evidence suggesting that the two groups of teachers have different teaching styles and strategies. For example, Arva and Medgyes (2000) find that native speakers seem to be more tolerant with students, and their errors, while non-native teachers may be more committed to teaching. Also, as pointed out by Clark and Paran (2007), non-native speaking teachers have some advantages such as the fact that they understand the students', first language and have a cultural background in common with their students (see also Medgyes, 1994; Nemtchinova, 2005; cited in Clark and Paran, 2007).

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. NEST vs. NNEST

This part of the article points out some characteristics of native and non-native speaking teachers. Non-native speaking teachers tend to pay little attention to pronunciation and vocabulary and almost none to linguistic appropriateness. Another point is that non-native speaking teachers tend to be obsessed with grammar. They believe that learning the grammar means learning the language. Besides grammar, pronunciation is another aspect examined in this article. There are resources for teaching pronunciation that can help teachers pronounce the words correctly, such as radio, videos, cassette recorders, etc. The lack of these items, especially at school, results in teachers avoiding using alternative sources and trying to hide their differences, especially their accent, from their students. The lexicon is another tool used by teachers in the classroom. The English language is estimated to have over 400,000 words. Which neither native nor non-native speakers can master completely. However, native speakers have a *Sprachgefuhl* that can help them decide if a word used by a student is right or not. The only way out for aggressive teachers is to play it safe: they use the words that are known to them. Many times these words have hidden connotation or are out of date or slang. According to Medgyes (1994), there is only one successful initial strategy for non-native teachers to make it clear to students that they are more advanced learners of English. Medgyes opinion that non-native speakers will always be unable to acquire a native-like command of English can be better understood within Selinker's interlanguage continuum. Medgyes points out that native speaking teacher are superior, but in some cases, non-native speaking teachers do

better in certain areas of language use. Non-native speaking teachers may have problems using English. He found some patterns in the areas of difficulties. The most frequent sources of difficulty are: vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation, and grammar. Teachers need to be masters in the use of idioms, synonyms, etc., speech rate, and to speak fluently. This puts non-native speaking teachers in a disadvantage.

Non-native speaking teachers with a foreign accent interfere with other people's understanding. Finally, it has to be taken into account that non-native speaking teachers usually take on a standard dialect. On the other hand, native teachers speak in non-standard varieties. The differences between native and non-native speaking teachers summarized as follows. Native speaking teachers are more aware of correct usage, but non-native speaking teachers are more aware of structural patterns and language-learning processes. Native speaking teachers consider learning a process of making students aware. They are more natural with the language, while non-native speaking teachers are more concerned with grammatical accuracy and the formal features of English. Native teachers emphasize pronunciation and syntactic aspects, while non-native teachers place more emphasis on morphological mistakes.

2.2. Observation Check list

The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition has been applied in teachers' Curricula by specialists and administrators to better understand effective pedagogy. Professional development activities drew from a variety of perspectives including research in the classroom, practitioner expertise, etc. An observation checklist can be defined as a learning tool for teachers. (Wajnryb, 1992). This checklist can be used to facilitate practical observation in a variety of ways. Teachers might use this tool independently to explore their own teaching practices through taking audio-or video recordings of themselves while teaching. The observation checklist reflects the topics addressed during the research as well as the experiences of the teachers. According to Gibbons (2002, 2003), the process of learning a language takes place through a collaborative process in which the learners begins to use the language of the interaction for their own purposes. Since the observation checklist has become a point of interest in the area of teacher discourse, many scholars have proposed different categorizations. Providing feedback to learners on their performance is another important aspect of teaching. Feedback is defined as the evaluation that teachers make regarding students' responses (Cook, 2000). Feedback can be either positive or negative. It not only provides students an opportunity to find out how they have been performed

but also provides a motivation for supporting classroom climate. In language classrooms, feedback on students'-spoken language refers to the teacher's response to either the content or form of the student's utterance. Feedback also has other meanings, such as praise, comments or actions. (Richards and Lockhart, 1998). In this study, the present checklist consists of four categories: recast, reformulation, vocabulary, and assessment. In this study recast is divided into subcategories: translation. Recast includes as well the translation by the teacher of students' utterances in L1 into English or from the L1 into English. Clue: Clue is also based in Garcia's (2005) pedagogic feedback that gives a clue to reach the right answer. This category usually indicates that something is wrong ("No") without providing the correct answer. Clue is divided into the following subcategory: metalanguag refers to the grammatical references given by the teacher when the student's mistake is in the form of the utterance. It is usually realized through a question. Reformulation is based on Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) provision of additional information in order to exemplify, expand and justify. This strategy is divides into two subcategories: retell and self-repetition. By retelling the teacher tries to make more comprehensible the utterance. Sometimes the reformulation is made in the same turn, while at times; the teacher changes the utterance either by adding some information or by making a slight change in the previous sentence. The subcategory self-repetition is based on Garcia's (2005) secondary function. It consists of the voluntary self-repetition in order to reinforce a message.

Assessment is defined as a tool for collecting information about what learners can and cannot do (Cook, 2001). Assessment helps teacher determine how well or how badly their students have performed. A percentage grade on an exam is one example. Other examples include the response "No" to questions posed in EFL classrooms; or a comment such as "excellent" at the end of a written assignment (Ur, 2000). The purpose of student assessment is to stimulate and assist EFL learning. In the semantic domain, vocabulary is another item used by teachers.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

36 Iranian EFL English teachers at different high schools and institutions in Iran and 36 NEST participated in this study (18 females and 18 males). None of the Iranian teachers have studied in an English speaking country.

3.2. Instrument

The aim of this study was to examine the features of teacher talk in language classrooms. The checklist incorporates items that evaluate teachers' use of different lexical categories and a variety of effective feedback methods, vocabulary, and assessment. The focus of observation is a checklist used by teachers during class (Table 1). The immediate effects of these teaching devices were observed in terms of their results.

Table 1. Observation checklist

	Definition
1. Recast	Translation: teachers' use of translations from L2 to L1 or vice versa
2. Clue	Metalanguage: include comments, information, or questions related to the formation of students' utterance
3. Reformulation	Retell: the reformulation of a previous question or sentence, in the form of different questions or sentences self-repetition: the teacher repeats the student's wrong utterance
4. Vocabulary	High frequency: use of words that are more common synonyms and antonyms: use of the same and opposite word meanings
5. Assessment	Short and simple praise: teachers present their estimation of the student's response

3.3. Procedures

First of all, the checklist was prepared to collect teachers' personal information, including their experience as EFL teachers and the different levels at which they have taught. Then their classroom interactions were audio-recorded using an MP3 recorder. After recording the classes, teacher talk was identified, transcribed, and coded. Then the frequencies and percentages of form types were calculated for each teacher.

3.4. Data Analysis

All of the items on the checklist were audio recorded and transcribed by the author. The coded transcripts were then analyzed in terms of translation, metalanguage, retelling, self-repetition, high frequency vocabulary, synonyms and antonyms, and short and simple praise.

Translation. Recast includes teachers' translations of students' utterances in their L1 into English or from English into Their L1.

Metalanguage. Metalanguage refers to the grammatical and semantic references given by the teacher when the student's mistake concerns the form of the utterance. It is usually realized through a question.

Retell. Retell is the reformulation of a previous question or sentence, in the form of a different question or sentence.

Self-repetition. The subcategory self-repetition is based on Garcia's (2005) secondary function. It consists of voluntary self-repetition in order to reinforce a message.

High frequency vocabulary. High frequency vocabulary refers to a teacher's efforts to use more common and frequently used vocabulary items while teaching in the classroom.

4. Result

Having collected the required data based on the above methodology, the researcher conducted the analysis of data for the present study.

Table 2. Recast (use of translation)

Translation	Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Native	36	0.17	0.378	0.063
	Non-native	36	0.58	0.500	0.083

T-test	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Difference Lower	Upper
-3.989	70	0.000	-0.417	0.104	-0.625	-0.208

Table 2 shows the number of teachers' utterances in term of translation. The result indicates native teachers' significantly less frequent use of translation than non-native teachers (t = -3.989, df = 70, p < 0.001). A more detailed analysis will be provided later in this paper.

Table 3. Clue (use of metalanguage)

Metalanguage	Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Native	36	0.47	0.506	0.084
	Non-native	36	0.14	0.351	0.058

T-test	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Difference Lower	Upper

3.247	70	0.002	0.333	0.103	0.129	0.538

The result indicates non-native teachers' significantly less frequent use of metalanguage than native teachers ($t = 3.247$, $df = 70$, $p = 0.002$) (Table 3).

Table 4. Reformulation (use of retelling)

Retell	Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
	Native	36	0.69	0.467		
	Non-native	36	0.44	0.504		
T-test	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Difference**	
					Lower	**Upper**
2.183	70	0.032	0.250	0.115	0.022	0.478

Table 4 shows the number of teachers' utterances in terms of retell. Result indicates that native teachers significantly more frequent use of retell than non-native teachers ($t = 2.183$, $df = 70$, $p = 0.032$).

Table 5. Reformulation (use of self-repetition)

Self-repetition	Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
	Native	36	0.14	0.351	0.058	
	Non-native	36	0.25	0.439	0.073	
T-test	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Difference**	
					Lower	**Upper**
-1.186	70	0.240	-0.111	0.094	-0.298	0.076

The rate of self-repetition by the teachers shows the same tendency. Table 5 illustrates the number of self-repetition by native and non-native teachers. The T-test suggests non-native teachers more frequent use of repetition than native teachers ($t = 1$, $df = 70$, $p = 0.032$).

Table 6. Use of high frequency vocabulary

high frequency vocabulary	Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
	Native	36	1.00	0.000	0.000	
	Non-native	36	0.72	0.454	0.076	
T-test	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**			**Difference**	

			Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
-3.669	70	0.000	-0.278	0.076	-0.429	-0.127

Table 6 illustrates the number of high frequency vocabulary by native and non-native teachers. The t-test suggests native teachers more frequent use of high frequency vocabulary than non-native teachers (t = -3.669, df = 70, p < 0.001).

Table 7. Vocabulary (use of synonym and antonym)

synonym and antonym	Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Native	33	0.76	0.435	0.076
	Non-native	36	0.47	0.506	0.084

T-test	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Difference Lower	Upper
2.500	67	0.015	0.285	0.114	0.057	0.513

On the other hand, native teachers repeated synonyms and antonyms more often than non-native teachers did (t = 2.500, df = 67, p = 0.015).This result may indicate that native teachers tried to facilitate interaction more effectively than non-native teachers (Table 7).

Table 8. Use of short and simple praise

short and simple praise	Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Native	36	2.25	0.984	
	Non-native	36	2.22	0.820	0.000

T-test	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Difference Lower	Upper
17.954	70	0.79	2.944	0.164	2.617	3.272

Table 8 illustrates the number of short and simple by native and non-native teachers. T-test suggests native and non-native teachers used more frequently of this item.

5. Discussion

This study provided a comparison of native Iranian speaking English teachers and their native English speaking counterparts in terms of teacher talk (feedback, assessment, and vocabulary), based on the observation checklist.

Translation is more frequently used by NNEST than NEST. In other words, the difference in the use of translation between the two groups is statistically significant. However, it was expected that non-native speaking English teachers would rely more on translation as they are able to understand the students', L1, and also because native speakers have a limited knowledge of the students', L1. Moreover, according to Panova and Lyster (2002), the use of translation may be necessary if the students have a limited Knowledge of the L2. On the other hand, Panova and Lyster (2002) also suggest that translations can be misleading for students because they may fail to see the corrective purpose of translation. The subcategory metalanguage is more frequently used by NEST than NNEST. As far as, retelling is concerned, native speakers use this technique more frequently than non-native speakers in the classroom. In contrast, NNEST use self-repetition more often than NEST. Retelling is also the most frequently used technique by native speakers and this result could be due to the fact they tend to elaborate more on their answers (Ellis, 1999). Using vocabulary was another linguistic input strategy observed in this study. By conducting classroom observation, the current study found that there were differences between native and NNEST in terms of vocabulary. First, high frequency vocabulary items, and synonyms and antonyms were used more by the NNEST, as compared with NEST. Native speakers used more of these items than non-native speakers. There are some problems, with the English lexicon, as with any other language, many words have different meanings according to the context, idioms exist; words have many synonyms, etc. In short, vocabulary tends to resist mastery.

Positive assessment is considered a common technique among teachers. Short and simple praise was mostly used by teachers, both native and non-native English speakers. This finding might suggest that if teachers employ more positive assessment in the classroom, students will receive more effective feedback and will be motivated to be more active. To sum up, is it possible to conclude that native English speakers are better English teachers than non-native speakers? The answer to this question has to be negative. Neither category can be by definition better than the other. It depends on the teaching scenario and the particular teacher. Teachers can be presented differently in different situation.

6. Conclusions

This study investigated two groups of teachers (native and non-native English speakers) in EFL classrooms based on the observation checklist. The main was to analyze the different items of the

observation checklist used by native versus NNEST. The techniques used by the groups were expected to be different. The first conclusion of this study is that the two groups indeed used different techniques in the classroom. The second conclusion is that NNEST rely more on self-repetition while native speakers tend to elaborate on their language. However, native speakers use retell more frequently than non-native speakers. This result may be connected with differences in teaching styles (Arva and Madgyes, 2000; Medgyes, 1994) or it might be due to a tendency for native speakers to over- elaborate on their language (Ellis, 1999). The third conclusion is that NNEST rely more on translation than NEST and in contrast, the latter use more metalanguage than the former. The present study has offered a comparison of techniques by native and NNEST and has shown that the two groups rely on different strategies. Although these differences do not imply that one group of teachers is better than the other, this study proves that NNEST should be considered as a group distinct from NEST.

This study was not trying to justify whether NSTs or NNSTs are better teachers but to explore a phenomenon, to raise issues or stir insight for providing some implications. In addition to teacher talk, other components in teaching such as methods, practices, knowledge and attitude are all very important. As Maum (2002) concluded qualified and trained NNSTs can contribute in meaningful ways to the English education field with their own experiences as English learners and their training and teaching experiences. As stated before, strategies (feedback, vocabulary, assessment) are needed for making input more comprehensible. This applies to NSTs who provide authentic input. It is especially important for NNSTs to enhance their linguistic input.

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Title

An In-depth Evaluation of the Textbook Prospect One

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Abstract

No one can deny the pivotal role of textbook in teaching, especially in EFL context. So, it seems necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of textbook used regularly for teaching especially those textbooks used in schools to be sure that they are in their right place for both learners and teachers to benefit from. As a result, this study sought to investigate the effectiveness of the book Prospect One. Therefore, this study seems to seek to carry out an evaluation on a series of ELT materials namely, Prospect 1, an English textbook material in Iranian junior high school. To achieve this aim, Littlejohn's detailed framework (1998)

is put into action to analyze the afore-mentioned textbook material so that to test whether or not they are designed appropriately regardless of the methods by which the teachers strive to use in their teaching. To do so, five male EFL teachers teaching at different primary schools in Iran answered the checklist and their perspectives were analyzed. Taken all the points together, the newly published book has been somewhat successful in achieving the specified aims especially in obtaining the communicative competence whereas it has a long distance ahead to arrive at the perfect point. And it needs more scrutinization for clarifying its merits and demerits so as to be refined for forthcoming years.

Keywords: Textbook evaluation, In-depth analysis, Prospect One

1. Introduction

No one can deny the pivotal role of the textbooks in learning a language. In fact, they are considered as the second essential factor in learning. Number one is instructors. The point that here is significant is the parallel role of teachers and materials, and one without the other is incomplete. Hence the appropriate selection of the textbooks whether by teachers or curriculum designers is fundamental step that should be taken into consideration. If this step executes in a proper way, it paves the way for the others to cultivate. Cultivation without having skilled in-the-center-of-the-battle soldiers is unattainable. In this regard, teachers as the ready-to-fight soldiers along with the textbooks can arrive at elegant and nice performances. Therefore, this study seems to seek to carry out an evaluation on a series of ELT materials namely, Prospect 1, an English textbook material in Iranian junior high school. To achieve this aim, Littlejohn's detailed framework (1998) is put into action to analyze the afore-mentioned textbook material so that to test whether or not they are designed appropriately regardless of the methods by which the teachers strive to use in their teaching.

2. Objectives of the study

In this study, the investigators put their heads together so that to elaborate to what extent the declarations of the writers of the book are in line with the objectives of the book which mostly based on their assertions, CLT. Therefore, the results of this study might be fruitful not only for the teachers but also for the publishers of the book to focus more on some parts.

Since the publication of the book hasn't done any study-related evaluation of the aforesaid book, we do our outmost to accentuate on in order to arrive at some pedagogical purposes.

As such, the study seeks to find answers for the forthcoming questions in regard to Prospect 1:

RQ1: What are the pedagogic values of Prospect 1?

RQ2: How are the newly developed and widely used the Prospect 1 in line with the objectives set for them?

RQ3: What are the strengths and drawbacks of the Prospect 1?

3. Significance of the study

First, this study sought to develop an ELT textbook evaluative checklist based on current trends in ELT, curriculum design, and materials development. The use of the proposed checklist may have greater significance since it can reveal the strengths and weaknesses in the textbook, and determine whether or not the textbook is justified, or needs supplementation and/or modification. The study attempted to identify the linguistic errors or the factual mistakes, if any. It is also hoped that the study results would help in making some appropriate recommendations for the curriculum planners, educators and experts at educational institutes for further improving the quality of the English language textbook in general. This study may also provide guidance for any retrospective textbook evaluation or future revision of any English language textbook.

4. Discussion

Question one: What are the pedagogic values of the newly published book by the name of prospect 1?

The pedagogic values of the textbook understudy are as follow:

The results of the study show that the Prospect 1 tasks more often encourage the students to use the language. Moreover, these tasks require them to express themselves than to be a listener. It also caters for more involvement of the learners in the classroom events.

The investigation also reveals that the tasks in the Prospect 1 focus on form-meaning relationships, since one major objective of the book has been developing a communicative competence and the raters believed that Prospect one hasn't been favorably successful in preparing the students to become communicatively competent and it needs more attention to be paid to this part in this book.

Based on the results of the study it is revealed that the book encourages the learners more often to produce meaningful language of their own. This kind of tasks enable students to express their ideas or feelings via the foreign language and in this regard these activities are both motivating in that they offer opportunities to express themselves and demanding, as the learner should draw on all his/her linguistic and world knowledge to produce a piece of meaningful discourse.

It is also revealed that the book tries to relate the new teaching points to the previous ones in the unit and also to the points which they have learned in prior units. But the relevance is not significant and needs more attention. This characteristic gives the textbook more consistency and continuity. Furthermore, it helps the students associate the new information to the old information in their minds.

The study also shows that the activities which use auditory and visual channels for giving input to learners are not that frequent in the Prospect 1. This may be a disadvantage of the textbook since making use of all sensory channels in learning involves the students more actively in participating and also enhances the variety and consequently the motivation of the students.

Regarding 'participation' the Prospect one is believed successful in providing for all three modes of class participation, namely, 'learner to class and teacher', 'learner individually simultaneously', and 'learners in pairs/groups simultaneously'.

The selected textbook achieved relatively the same proportion as 'Types of teaching/learning activities, (62.5% and 63.39% out of the optimum score respectively). This suggests that the raters assess the Prospect one as relatively more successful in appointing active roles to the learners in learning and participating in classroom events and a managing and supervising role to the teacher and consider him/her as a facilitator rather than solo teacher.

The text hasn't been much successful in enabling the students to infer language rules for themselves or in engaging students in classroom decision-making which are both reflective in the most recent approaches to language teaching and learning.

The resulted proportions also suggest that the textbook does not provide opportunities for the learners or even the teachers to decide on the content of the tasks. In contrast, for the majority of activities, the textbook specifies its own texts as the source of content.

The raters believe that the tasks which have personal opinions and ideas of the learners as their focus a little bit are set aside in this book. Those which have factual texts as their pivot have less

proportion. There is a shortage of the tasks whose content can be categorized under 'fiction' (e.g. personal accounts, tales. etc.) in the textbook.

The results of task analysis show that this book focuses on oral communication among learners and the learners are required to express themselves and initiate the tasks. This can be a sign of success for Prospect 1.The book includes little tasks which don't require the learners to initiate or respond .It reveals the Prospect 1 encourages the students to be active in the classroom rather than to be just listeners. Another point about the book is that "respond" receives greater percentage (60%) than initiation (30%) which can be a weakness of the book since for a communicative book a higher percentage should be appropriated to "initiation".

The results of the 'Design' also reveal that the topics of the texts (i.e., the themes of the units) and the related activities are interesting, effectively motivating and intellectually engaging.

The present study shows that the evaluators all believe that the Table of content, at the beginning of the book, is not beneficial means of access into the content of the book. It also shows that the plan of the book, the division of the book into sections, and its graphic illustrations are not sufficient enough. Furthermore it shows that the selected textbook is not supported with enough and related appendices.

RQ2: How are the newly developed and widely used the Prospect 1 in line with the objectives set for them?

The main chosen objective for the textbook based on what the authors bring in the preface is to improve the learners' speaking ability and help them be communicatively competent. As mentioned and as depicted in the charts and graphs, the books may not be that much successful in preparing the students for being communicatively competent.

RQ3: What are the strengths and drawbacks of the Prospect 1?

The results show that the Prospect 1 has the following weaknesses:

- The fact that the majority of tasks require learners to «respond» and a much smaller proportion require students to «initiate» using the language. This is not satisfactory if we desire to have an active learner-centered class.

- Activities which focus on both the form and meaning are not that frequent in the selected textbook.

- Activities which use auditory and visual channels for giving input to learners are not proportional.

- Those tasks that give learners frames to produce language according to those frames are not so popular in this text book.

The selected textbook is mostly written for city-center students and there is a big gap between students of cities and those in remotest villages.

- Learners or the teacher do not participate in providing the content and selecting the topic of content as source of input to classmates.

The strengths of Prospect 1 are as follow:

- Tasks more often encourage students to use the language and more importantly they require them to express themselves than to be a listener.

- Since one major objective of the book has been developing a communicative competence, this goal somewhat is achieved in comparison to the previous English book, via enhancing 'comprehension' of the language.

- The authors of the selected textbook have given importance to pair/group work in their book.

- The authors asserted in a conference in Shiraz that the way they took the book into account is WPW approach. W refers to whole word and P is phonics. They believe that if a learner to be exposed to the language or even a word for a couple of time, he/she takes a photo of the word and sticks it in his/her memory. And the only purpose of the reading parts of the book is boundary letters, that is, students to be able to read the beginning and endings of the words.

- Another stated statement is SOAR. The teachers can use supplementary materials if needed. If a teacher feels his students don't know a part or that part is beyond their understanding, he can omit that part. The instructor is free to adapt and change the content. And the teacher also can reorganize the materials for his students.

5. Conclusion

Taken all the points together, the newly published book has been somewhat successful in achieving the specified aims especially in obtaining the communicative competence whereas it has a long distance ahead to arrive at the perfect point. And it needs more scrutinization for clarifying its merits and demerits so as to be refined for forthcoming years.

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Title

The Effect of Group Work Activities on Increasing Elementary Level Students' Vocabulary Knowledge

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Abstract

This study aimed to provide an insight into the exact role of group work activities in learning new language vocabulary .The question this study tries to answer is whether there is a relationship between learning vocabulary in group and students' knowledge of word or not. To answer, two sets of multiple questions were given to two groups of students, before and after treatment. each test consisted of 40 multiple choice vocabulary items .We have two groups of students at the same level and age who are learning English in a private institute in an intermediate level. Each group consists of 20 students .The experiment group receives 18 section of treatment that is based on group work activities. While the control group follows the traditional classroom syllabus that is based on memorization and reading passages. Two tests of this study have been standardized from IF and ID point of view. The instruments used consisted of a researcher-made multiple choice questions with reliability of 0.82 administered to 40 L2 students. Then inferential static (t-test) was applied to analyze the data. The finding indicated that experiment group outperformed in answering

to vocabulary test after receiving treatment. In addition the finding reveals that those who take the process into account, especially teachers, can be more effective in their job and have successful learners as well.

1. Introduction

Language is a dynamic and interactive process the amount of this interaction is thought to have a big influence on language learning (Ellis 1985) .Of late many teachers have taken interest in role of group work in developing language abilities .but what seems to be neglected in this regard is to determine the exact amount of this development. As a teacher we should understand exactly why and how group work promotes language learning. Vigotskey who was one of the pioneers of this field argued that there is a strong relationship between interaction and cognitive development. What he called (ZDP) is consisted of two main stages. The first is what a learner does by himself and the second is what he can accomplish with others. Good class in Savigon point of view is a class in which learners have opportunity to practice interaction similar to those in real life. When learners work in a group, they share their assumptions and they help each other in a positive way. It provides warm and supportive atmosphere that is beneficial for learners. For many years, theories of group learning tended to focus on how Group learning is different from individual learning.

Language learning is therefore viewed as being of a socio-interactive nature, based on the assumption that cognition develops by means of interactive procedures which occur within the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZDP is determined by the contact of at least two interlocutors, being one of which usually linguistically more competent than the other. Recently the definition of group has gone under some changes and has taken its place to interaction. In terms of experimental research, the main goal is to determine whether and under what circumstances group learning was more effective than learning alone. Researchers controlled several independent variables (size of the group, gender, nature of the task, age of participants, and so on). However, these variables interacted with one another in a way that made it almost impossible to establish causal links between the conditions and the effects of collaboration.

When people talk about groups they often are describing collection with two members or more members. For example, a work team or study group will often comprise two or three people.

However, groups can be very large collections of people such a crowd or religious congregation or gathering.The use of group work in classroom second language learning has long been supported by sound pedagogical argument. However a psycholinguistic rationale for group work has emerged from second language acquisition research on conversation between Non-native speakers or interlanguage talk. Provided careful attention is paid to the structure of tasks students work on together, the negotiation work possible in group activity makes it an attractive alternative to the teacher-led, "lockstep" mode and a viable classroom substitute for individual conversations with native speakers. For some years now, methodologists have recommended small group work (including pair work) in the second language classroom. In doing so, they have used arguments which, for the most part, are pedagogical. While those arguments are compelling enough group work has recently taken on increased psycholinguistic significance due to new research findings on two related topics: 1) the role of comprehensible input in second language acquisition (SLA) and 2) the negotiation work possible in conversation between non-native speakers, or interlanguage talk.

1.1Research question

Do group work activities have any facilitating effect on increasing elementary students' vocabulary knowledge?

1.2 Hypotheses

1) Teaching vocabulary through group work does not have any effect on increasing elementary student's vocabulary knowledge.

2) The experiment group shows progress in terms of knowledge of vocabulary since pre-post test

3) The control group does not show progress in terms of knowledge of vocabulary since pre-post test.

2. Methodology

In the present study, we attempt to detect the exact role of group work and classroom interaction in developing learner's knowledge of vocabulary. In our current work the following determine the effect of using group work. So the main question of this study will be this: does group work have any effect on learner's knowledge of vocabulary? our experimental study takes place during summer semester .the experimental group receives treatment which is based on group activities while the control group learns vocabulary in traditional way which is mainly concerned with

individual practice and memorizing long list of words. For that we will base our research study claiming that 1) Group work learning does not have any effect on increasing elementary level students vocabulary knowledge. 2) Experimental group does not show any progress since pre-test, post-test. 3) Control group does not show any progress since pre-test, post-test.

2.1 Participants

This study has limited its scope to 40 elementary male students of 12 to 14 in a private language institute. All of the samples were guidance school students. To homogenize these students, the Standardized Nelson English Language Test (version 250, 1976) along with an answer sheet was administered to them. The reliability of Nelson Test was 0.82. Then, the researcher corrected the papers and 40 students were selected through simple random sampling method. 20 students were randomly assigned to control group and 20 students to experimental group.

2.2 Materials and Procedures

After applying the treatment for experimental group we are going to give both groups a multiple choice vocabulary test from the materials that have been covered during the term. The comparison made between the mean scores of these two groups will tell us about the changes which have taken place A matched t-test will be conducted in order to compare the mean scores of pre test and post test to indicate the progress. The design of the study is based on pre-test and post-test design and the schematic representation is as follows: Group 1   T1   T2 Group 2   T1   T2

Using the pre-test we are going to divide our students into two separate groups. Then we are going to apply the treatment that is group based learning for our experimental group. The control group is going to be conducted with the traditional method of teaching. The post-test is going to tell us whether the treatment worked or not. We will use the pre-test for putting students into to separate groups. That is the total number of 20 sessions. All the students involved in the study were male. So there will be the probability of being worried about the gender balance. In the present study, the researcher utilized multiple choice questions consisted of vocabulary items. We designed some group based games and activities that is listed below.

2.2.1 Memory Challenge

Researcher divided the students into pairs or small groups. Gave them a time limit (e.g. 2 minutes) and asked them to write down as many words, phrases, or expressions as they can from the last lesson on topic X. The pair or group who can remember the most items is winner.

2.2.2 Last One Standing

Researcher gave the class a topic (e.g. travell , clothes, animals, things in a kitchen) and asked them to stand up, Clap out a beat and say, one, two, three, followed by a topic-related word. After the next three beats, the next student in the circle gives a word related to the topic, and so it continues. Anyone who can't remember a word or repeats a word already said has to sit down and it's the next person's turn. The winner is the last one standing.

2.2.3 Pictionary

Researcher divided the class into Teams A and B. Team A sits in a group on one side of the classroom, Team B sits on the other side. One member from each team goes to the board. Teacher flashes them a word, phrase, or expression written on a piece of paper. The students have one minute to get their team to say the item only by drawing clues on the board. Written words, verbal clues, or gestures are forbidden. The first team to say the word wins.

2.2.4 Bingo

Researcher wrote up 10 words, phrases or expressions on the board. Each student chooses 5 of the items from the board and writes them down. The teacher then selects one of the items (bits of paper from a hat, for example) and offers a short definition or synonym of the item. If a student thinks they have the word the teacher described, they mark it. When a student marks all of their words, they shout BINGO!! The first student to shout BINGO wins the round.

2.2.5 Concentration

Researcher divided the class into small groups. Each group was given a set of cards which are spread out on the table face-down. The sets are made up of two kinds of cards: word cards + definition/picture cards. Students in turn pick up a card, turn it over, and try matching it to its corresponding card. If there's no match, the cards are returned to their original place on the table and play passes to the next student. If a match is made, the student keeps the pair and tries to make another match. Once all the cards are matched, the winner is the player who has matched the most number of cards.

3. Data analyses and results

The statistical procedure is based on computer-assisted programs spss (version 16). The Data analysis is a process of gathering, modeling, and transforming data with the goal. Having administered the instruments for this research, the responses were collected and interpreted. The data gathered in this study was analyzed through T-Test.

To test this hypothesis, analysis of covariance is used and the results are shown in the following tables. (Table 4-1 and Table 4-2)

Table 4-1:within- groups factors

Group		Value label	Numbers
	1	experimental	20
	2	control	20

Table 4-2 The interpretation of homogeneity of the slope of regression lines

source	3rd type of square	degrees of freedom	mean of square	F	significance level
corrected model	358.078	3	119.359	13.525	000.
fixed	196.512	1	196.512	22.268	.000
group	4.771	1	4.771	541.	.0.467
pretest	100.777	1	100.777	11.420	.0.002
Group and pretest	22.652	1	22.652	.2.567	0.118
error	317.697	36	8.825		
total	20791.000	40			
Corrected total model	675.775	39			

a. = .531 (coefficient determination) = .524)

According to statistics, the results of this table show that interaction isn't significant. Regarding to (F= 2.567), in the error level of ($p \leq 0.01$), the homogeneity of the slope of regression line is rejected and interaction between random variable and independent variable is significant. After analyzing the existence of the homogeneity of the slope of the regression line, the existence of linear relation

between dependent variable and random variable is analyzed and the results are shown in the following diagram:
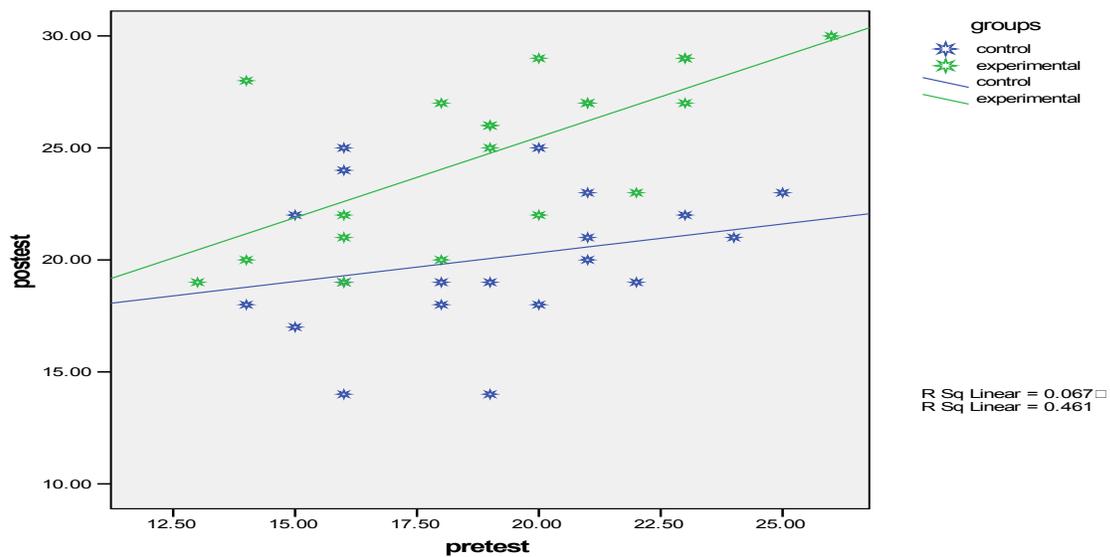
In the analysis of covariance, correlation coefficient between pretest and posttest scores in both control and experimental group is tested. Table 3-4 and 4-4 show correlation coefficients of pretest and posttest in both control and experimental group and are included correlation coefficients and the level of significance.

In the table 4-3 and 4-4 correlation coefficient between pretest and posttest is 0.25 and 0.67 and regarding to the level of significance that is below 5 percent, for both group correlation coefficient is positive and significant.

Variable	Group	Correlation coefficient	Number	Level of the significance
Pretest - posttest	Control	0.25	20	0.26
Pretest- posttest	Experimental	0.67	20	0.001

In order to the analysis of covariance pretest and posttest of control and experimental group, we introduce pretest and posttest variables, and we consider the third variable as qualitative variables with 2 levels in order to divide control group and experimental group.

We put posttest variable in dependent variable window and class variable in independent variable and pretest in covariance window of GLM section of analysis tab of SPSS and interpret the result of the tables of covariance analysis.

Table 4-4 Fisher. Equality of variances

Fisher's test	Degree of freedom 1	Degree of freedom 2	The level of significance
0.21	1	38	0.642

The results show that the equality of variance is not under question.

Table4-5:

source	3rd kind of square	Degree of freedom	Mean square	of F	The level of significance
Corrected model	335.426	2	167.713	18.232	.000
Constant scale	187.106	1	187.106	20.341	.000
pretest	220.775	1	220.775	24.001	.000
group	109.801	1	109.801	11.937	.001
error	340.349	87	9.199		
total	20791.000	40			
Corrected model	675.775	39			

a. determination = .421 (coefficient determination = .407)

The results F=11.937 in the error of measurement P≤0.01, has a significant relationship with dependent variable, so group work has a positive effect on vocabulary.

Table 4-5 scores of control and experiment group with confidence interval of 0.95

group	mean	Standard error mean	Confidence of interval 0.95 of Lower boundary	Upper boundary
experimental	20.075	678	18.701	21.450
control	24.775	678	23.400	26.149

a.: 19.2656= pre test.

 As the mean of posttest is shown in the following diagram there is a significant difference between twogroups

Estimated Marginal Means of postest
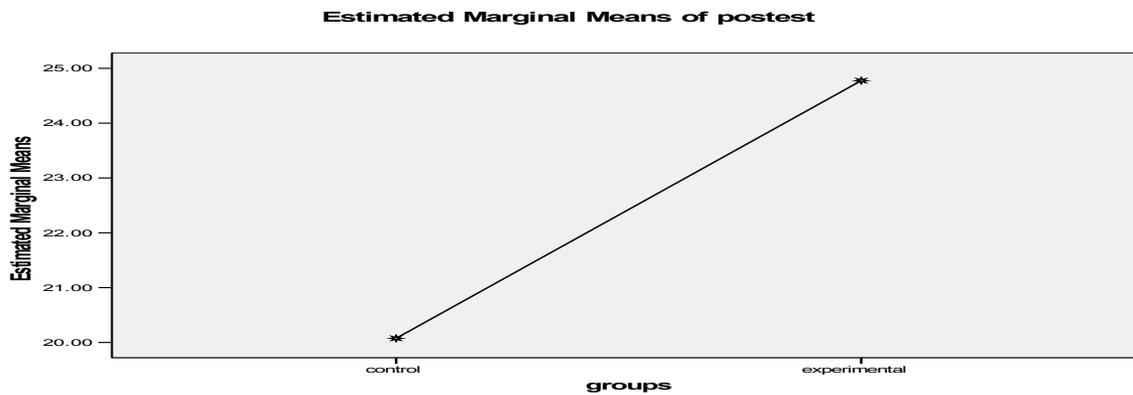
H02. There is no difference from pre-test to post-test of the experimental group of the students. For examining this hypothesis paired T-test is used. Table 4-6 shows descriptive indexes related to pretest scores and posttest scores of control group.

group.

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	pretestcontrol	6.4378	20	1.07117	.15968
	posttestcontrol	6.6378	20	1.01294	.15100

	mean	N	Std.deviation	Std.eror mean
Pre test control	**18.9500**	**20**	**3.20321**	**.71626**
Posttest control	**20.0500**	**20**	3.17017	.70887

In this table difference between mean of pretest and posttest isn't noticeable. Table 4-7 shows paired t-test between pre and posttest score of control group including t-test statistic and the level of significance and degree of freedom.

Table 4-7 Paired sample test

	mean	Std deviation	Std error of mean	Confidence interval of the difference lower upper		t	df
Pair 1 pre test control Post test control	1.10000	3.87842	.86724	0.71515	2.91515	-1.268	19

In this table according to t-test statistic that is -1.268 and in error vulnerability 0.05, significant difference between the mean of pretest and posttest of control group is rejected.

H 02. For examining this hypothesis paired T-test is used. Table 4-8 shows qualitative indexes related to pretest scores and posttest scores of Experimental group.

Table 4-8

	Mean	Numbers	Standard deviation	Standard error of measurement
Pre test	19.0500	20	3.48644	0/77959
Post test	24.8000	20	3.69352	0/82590

In this table difference between mean of pretest and posttest is noticeable. Table 4-9 shows paired t-test between pre and posttest score of experimental group including test statistics and the level of significance and degree of freed

	mean	Std deviation	Std error of mean	Confidence interval lower upper		t	df
Pair:pretest exp-post	5.7500	2.88143	.64431	7.0985	4.40145	- 8.924	19

In this table according to t-test statistics that is -8/92 and in error vulnerability of 0.05, significant difference between the mean of pretest and posttest of experimental group is accepted.

4. The Summary of the Findings and their Implication on the basis of data analysis

Based on the data collected from the analysis of using group work, hypotheses are proved, so it is possible to draw up the following conclusions about the influence of learning vocabulary through group work activities. 1) Group work has a positive effect on student's knowledge of vocabulary, so the first hypothesis is rejected. 2) There is a significant increase in experiment group's score since pre test-post test so group work can be considered an option for traditional model of learning that was mainly based on memorizing root learning. 3) Based on the data analysis the control group does not show any progress, so the third hypothesis is proved.

5. Discussion and conclusion

This investigation tested a claim made for the group learning activities and analyzed what learners actually did when worked together in small group. It is provided direct empirical support for the claim of the interaction hypothesis: small group interaction did contribute to the development of the learner's knowledge of vocabulary. As connections between interaction and SL development are being explored. It has been known for some time now that taking part in a group with opportunities for negotiation can provide comprehensible input, pushed output, and opportunities for noticing the gap, and that these are important parts of the language-learning process. It is known that interaction with these conditions can have a facilitative effect on SLA (Mahsefat & Amooyi, 2014). However, exactly how these positive effects of interaction on language learning are achieved need further and more detailed researches. Games and activities that were applied in this study made it clear that learners learn from each other directly and indirectly by sharing their knowledge. Creating a warm and supporting atmosphere reduce stress and students can do their best to achieve the best. In addition, it can help students to perform social skills better out of classroom setting too where social skills like leadership, decision-making, trust-building, conflict management, conversation management and use of a wide range of language functions are likely to be acquired by the pupils engaged in small group activities. In this research study, the adoption of the experimental method using a multiple choice tests done by students shed light on the necessity of using group work activities in learning EFL.

The implications of this study can be discussed from two major perspectives: On the one hand, the results of the study contribute to further explication of the group work theory in general and the

interaction theory in particular, on the other hand, the study serves a good number of applied purposes.

It is, therefore, the responsibility of ESL and EFL teachers to endeavor to make their students aware of and sensitive to the interaction variables that play an important role in different kinds of situational frames. These will serve as useful strategies for learning which will enable the learner to exchange his thoughts in actual contexts long after he has left the language classroom. The results also give a new dimension to learning vocabularies in teaching foreign languages. They will enable the foreign language teacher to teach vocabulary with more creativity and innovation. A good number of social factors such as culture, ethnicity, and generation are not easy to process. Researchers, therefore, usually keep aloof from them. In other words, sociolinguists indulge in the study of manageable factors and variables. For the same reason, the present study has limited its scope to such parameters as gender, age, and. level of learning. This study has narrowed its scope to vocabulary field. Other similar studies, however, could be carried out with a set of different focuses. The following list outlines some of the domains that call for research. 1) Teaching grammatical functions through group activities. 2) Role of social and ethnical factors in group learning.3) Gender differences in group learning.

The need for further research is strongly felt to deal with many questions: How does development come about? What are the cognitive processes beyond this development? What are the psycholinguistic variables beyond this development? It seems that this area will continue to provide many challenges as well as potentially profitable avenues for future explorations of the interaction hypothesis in second language acquisition.

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Title

Evaluation of an ESP Textbook for the Students of Accounting

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Abstract

On the basis of the importance of textbooks as one of the elements in curriculum which will guarantee effective teaching and learning in ESP courses and the necessity of textbook evaluation for selecting appropriate textbooks, this study tried to evaluate an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) book taught at the Azad University of Zahedan, faculty of Accounting to determine the overall pedagogical value and suitability of the book toward this specific language program. To achieve this goal, a questionnaire consisting of 20 items which was based on Sheldon' (1988) model of evaluation and modified by Karimi (2006), and examining six factors (practical concerns, materials in relation to course objective, subject matter, linguistic issues, skills and strategies, variety of tasks and activities, and the layout of materials) was used. Participants included 45BA students of Accounting, who were taking an ESP course at the University of Zahedan. The findings indicated that the book, despite having flaws, was suitable for the course.

Keywords: ESP, Language Teaching Materials, Evaluation and Textbook Evaluation

1. Introduction

English for specific purposes (ESP) has been around for more than three decades. It can be inferred from its name that it is designed for people in a particular group and context. However, Dudley Evans and St John (1998) maintain that English for specific purposes is part of a more general movement of teaching language for specific purposes (LSP).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.19) argue that "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning." From Richards and Schmidt (2010) points' of view ESP is defined as the role of English in a language course of instruction in which the needs of a particular group of learners determine the content and aims of the course. Likewise, Silva (2002, cited in DanayeTous and Haghighi, 2014) states that English for Specific Purposes are a response to learners' needs and the acquisition of language relevant to their future jobs. From Vicic's (2011) point of view ESP is predominantly student-centered, and consequently students' consideration should be at the top of the list of selection criteria. In addition, the students' current language knowledge and the target level they will need to communicate successfully in their jobs should be taken into account. So, there are three features common to all ESP courses: authentic material, purpose-related orientation, and self-direction. Self-direction means "turning learners into users" (Carver, 1983, p. 134).

This study seeks to investigate whether the English textbook designed for the students of Accounting at Zahedan university is appropriate or not. It seeks therefore to answer the following research question: Is the ESP textbook designed for the students of Accounting in the context suitable for them?

2. Review of related literature

In every teaching context, Textbooks play a pivotal role in language classrooms in imparting learning and assisting teachers to fulfill their responsibility in all types of educational institutions – state schools, colleges, language schools – all over the world (Lamie, 1999).According to Lamie (1999), that is why despite the development of new technologies that allow for higher quality teacher-generated materials, demand for textbooks continues to grow, and the publishing industry responds with new series and textbooks every year.

Swan (1986, cited in Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011) put forward eight reasons for the underdevelopment of evaluation in ESP which includes the shortness or even one-off nature of

ESP courses, the time consuming nature of evaluation, and the lack of any felt need for evaluation. In the Iranian context, the systematic evaluation of textbooks is not usually carried out and students' needs and opinions regarding the materials designed for them are ignored. In the following sections related issues will be discussed briefly.

2.1 Language Teaching Materials

Dudly Evans and St John (1998, p.170) argue that "materials are used in all teaching. The core materials are usually paper based, but, where possible, ESP teachers also want to use audio and video cassettes, computers and real objects". According to McGrath (2002) books are written to be relevant to as large a number of students as possible, which also means as wide a range of teaching-learning contexts as possible. According to him, no one book can be perfect for a particular institution, let alone a particular class within that institution or an individual within a class.

Regarding the importance of the textbooks, one should make sure that those books meet appropriate criteria. In Cunningsworth's (1995) words, we should ascertain that "careful selection is made, and that the materials selected closely reflect the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program" (p. 7). As Tomlinson (2001) believes, while the quality of EFL textbooks has improved dramatically in recent years, the process of selecting an appropriate text has not become any easier for most teachers and administrators. Program directors and classroom teachers are under pressure to adopt new reading textbooks on a fairly regular basis, and often on a short notice. While publishers' representatives may provide some informed assistance, their need to sell new products clearly influences their recommendations. (p. 224). Riazi (2003, p.52) believes that "textbooks play a very crucial role in the realm of language teaching and learning and they are considered the next important factors in the second/foreign language classroom after the teacher". Likewise, as Hutchinson and Torres (1994) put it, "The textbook is an almost universal element of [English language] teaching. Millions of copies are sold every year, and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce those in [various] countries…. No teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook" (p. 315). Sheldon (1988) agrees with this observation and suggests that "textbooks represent the visible heart of any ELT program" (p. 237). To follow Sheldon's view advantages of textbooks for teachers and students have been presented by different scholars; for example, Haycroft (1998) suggests that one of the primary advantages of using textbooks is that they are psychologically essential for students since their progress and

achievement can be measured concretely when we use them. Second, as Sheldon (1988) has pointed out, students often harbor expectations about using a textbook in their particular language classroom and program and believe that published materials have more credibility than teacher-generated or 'in-house' materials. Third, as O'Neill (1982) has indicated, textbooks are generally sensitive to students' needs, even if they are not designed specifically for them, they are efficient in terms of time and money, and they can and should allow for adaptation and improvisation. Fourth, textbooks yield a respectable return on investment, are relatively inexpensive and involve low lesson preparation time, whereas teacher-generated materials can be time, cost and quality defective. In this way, textbooks can reduce potential occupational overload and allow teachers the opportunity to spend their time undertaking more worthwhile pursuits (O'Neill, 1982; Sheldon, 1988). A fifth advantage identified by Cunningsworth (1995) is the potential which textbooks have for serving several additional roles in the ELT curriculum. He argues that they are an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective resource for presentation material, a source of ideas and activities, and a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect predetermined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence. Finally, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) have pointed out that textbooks may play a pivotal role in innovation. They suggest that textbooks can support teachers through potentially disturbing and threatening change processes, demonstrate new and/or untried methodologies, introduce change gradually, and create scaffolding upon which teachers can build a more creative methodology of their own. On the other, hand O'Neill (1982,) presents four reasons for the use of course books. First, most parts of course book materials are appropriate for students' needs, even if they are not specially designed for them. Second, they make it possible for students to plan for future learning and also review the previous materials or lessons. Third, course books provide students with high quality materials at a reasonable price, and finally, suitable course books allow teachers to adapt and modify them to meet the learners' needs and also allow for natural interaction to happen.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) believe that books and materials play a crucial role in every learning situation and help teachers with their responsibilities. They provide four justifications for using materials and books: a) as a source of language, b) As a learning support, c) for motivation and stimulation, d) for reference. On the other hand, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define six objectives for materials: they should a) provide a stimulus for learning, b) help to organize teaching and learning process, c) embody a view of the nature of language and learning, d) reflect the nature

of the learning task, e) have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training, and f) provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

So, it can be concluded that, textbooks can play an important role in the success of language programs. They provide the objectives of language learning; they function as a lesson plan and working agenda for teachers and learners. Although course books play an important role in the learning process, it should be noted that a number of scholars argue that a heavy dependence on a book and not using complementary materials can have negative consequences on the students (Allwright,1981; Cunningsworth,1995; Stern, 1992; Swales, 1980; Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011).

2.2 Evaluation and Textbook Evaluation

One of the important factors of utmost importance in language learning in general and ESP in particular is to see whether the books and materials are useful for the purpose of the course or not which is done through the process of textbook evaluation.

Mertens (2005, cited in DanayeTous and Haghighi, 2014) defines Evaluation as "the process of worth or value of something, determining its merit" (p.47).Textbook evaluation helps teachers acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material. In addition, it helps them move beyond impressionistic assessments (Ellis, 1997). Tomlinson (2001) contends that textbook evaluation, on the other hand, is an applied linguistic activity through which teachers, supervisors, administrators and materials developers can make sound judgments about the efficiency of the materials for the people using them. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue that course evaluation helps to assess whether the course objectives are being met- whether the course, in other words, is doing to what it was designed to do.

Breen and Candlin (1987) stated that the selection and organization of content in the materials is quite important. According to them, organization of the materials should be done in such a way that learners can work on them and internalize the content. Materials should be organized for simple and familiar 'things' to more complex and 'less familiar' ones. Sheldon (1988) also stated that the presence of structures and vocabularies moving gradually from simple to more complex should be taken into consideration. Additionally, Cunningsworth (1995) stated that by challenging students' intellect and engaging their interests, course books can provide much of the motivation which will stimulate them to become more independent in their use of English and in their learning.

He claimed that this can be done by including interesting, stimulating topics and by encouraging learners to think for themselves around these topics and discuss them with others.

Regarding language content and exercises, Harding (2007) suggests that ESP teachers should use contexts, texts and situations from the students' subject area. Whether they are simulated or real, they will involve naturally the language that the students need. Further, he adds that they should exploit authentic materials that students use in their vocation or specialism – and don't be put off by this idea that it may not seem 'normal English'. According to him, ESP teachers should make the tasks authentic and get students doing things with the material that they actually need to do in their work. Additionally, Skierso (1991) suggests some criteria for the evaluation of exercises. He wonders whether there is a variety of activities in the textbook, and whether the instructions to the activities are appropriate for the level of students. Wilson and Yang (2007) believed that students should find the materials challenging, interesting and 'usable' to call their attention and motivate them to learn through their interaction. Evaluation is a whole process which begins with determining what information to gather and ends with bringing about change in current activities or influencing future ones (Dudley Evans and St John, 1998).

Nunan (1991) observes the selection process can be greatly facilitated by the use of systematic materials evaluation procedures which help to ensure that materials are consistent with the needs and interests of the learners. They are intended to serve, as well as being in harmony with institutional ideologies on the nature of language and learning. Sheldon (1988, cited in Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011) has suggested several reasons for textbook evaluation. He states that the selection of a textbook is indicator of an educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial, and even political investment. Through evaluation, teachers will become familiar with the content of available textbooks and recognize the weaknesses and strengths of each. One more reason for evaluation is suggested by Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997). They argue that evaluation can be considered as a means of conducting action research as well as a form of professional empowerment and improvement. It can also be a component of teacher training courses in which prospective teachers become aware of important features which they should search in textbooks.

Robinson (1991) lists a number of tools used to carry out evaluation: questionnaires, checklists, rating scales, interviews, observation, and records. Cunnings worth (1995) and Ellis (1997) have proposed three types of materials evaluation: a) predictive or pre-use evaluation in which the future

or potential performance of a textbook is examined, b) in-use evaluation designed to examine the currently used textbook, and c) retrospective or post-use of evaluation, whereby one can decide how to improve the given textbook for subsequent use.

Dudley Evans and St John (1998) define evaluation as asking questions and acting on the responses. They further argue that evaluation "begins with determining what information to gather and ends with bringing about change in current activities or influencing future ones" (p.128). They divide evaluation into formative and summative types. They suggest that ESP practitioners should pay more attention to formative evaluation which takes place during a course and at intervals. As Dudley Evans and St John (1998) put it, formative evaluation involves 'mini-evaluations'. This kind of evaluation helps to make necessary modifications to the course including materials and books. Summative evaluation takes place at the end of the course or when the course is finished. Therefore, it does not affect the course. This kind of evaluation is used to gauge the usefulness of the course and make improvement in subsequent versions of the course or materials. Likewise, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define evaluation as a process of matching needs to available solutions. They divide the evaluation process into 4 stages: a) defining criteria, b) subjective analysis, c) objective analysis, and d) matching. They further add that to make the best choice, different parties involved in the course have to be considered: teachers, students, and sponsors. Robinson (1991) distinguishes between three types of materials evaluation: a) preliminary (before an ESP course begins), b) summative (takes place at the end of the course), and c) formative (conducted while the course is ongoing). She states that evaluation can be carried out by both outsiders and insiders. A further distinction made by Robinson (1991) is between process and product evaluation. The former addresses teaching and learning processes, strategies, administrative and decision-making processes, while the latter is concerned with the students' product such as examination results, essays, etc. By insiders she means teachers, students, and course designers. Besides formative and summative evaluation, Richards (2001) suggests another kind of evaluation, namely illuminative. He describes this kind of evaluation as follows: "This refers to evaluation that seeks to find out how different aspects of the program work or are being implemented. It seeks to provide a deeper understanding of the processes of teaching and learning that occur in the program, without necessarily seeking to change the course in any way as a result". (p.289)

McDonough and Shaw (2003) suggest a model for textbook evaluation which involves three stages. First, external evaluation that examines the organization of materials stated by the author or the publisher including claims made on the cover page and information in introduction and table of contents. This kind of evaluation gives information about the intended audience, the proficiency level, the context of use, presentation and organization of materials, and authors' opinion about language and methodology, use of audio-visual materials, vocabulary list and index, cultural aspects, tests and exercises included in the book. Second, internal evaluation in which the following factors are examined: a) the presentation of the skills, b) the grading and sequence of the materials, c) authenticity or artificiality of the listening materials, d) authenticity or artificiality of the speaking appropriateness of the materials for different learning styles and claims made by the authors for self-study. The last stage is overall evaluation in which flexibility, adaptability, usability and generalizability factors are examined.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

Participants of this study were 45 BA students of Accounting (26 males and 19 females) doing an ESP course. They were young people whose age varied from 19 to 23 except three females who were 27, 28, 30 and two males who were 26 years. They studied Accounting at the Azad University of Zahedan, faculty of Accounting.

3.2 Instrumentation

The main instrument used in this study consists of a questionnaire comprised of 20 items about the textbook. It was based on Sheldon' (1988) model of evaluation and modified by Karimi (2006). The questionnaire examines six parts: practical concerns, materials in relation to course objective, subject matter, linguistic issues, skills and strategies, variety of tasks and activities, and the layout of materials. The translated version was piloted with twenty five students and the Cronbach alpha reliability index for this questionnaire turned out to be 0.79. The book to be evaluated was English for the Students of Accounting by Talaneh (2009). Students were supposed to read the texts each session and called by the teacher to translate them into Persian.

3.3 Procedure

At first, the researcher talked with the participants about the study for a few minutes and made them aware of the processes they were supposed to go through and it is optional to participate in

this study. They were informed by the researcher and their teacher that it was not necessary to write their names and their answers would not even affect their course grade. To make the items easy to understand, the researcher translated the questionnaire into Persian orally and where needed it was back translated by the teacher of the class in the field. To evaluate the effectiveness of the intended textbook, the participants were asked to give their opinion on a five-point scale: Excellent, Good, Average, Weak, and Very Weak.

4. Results and discussion

The results of this study are organized in the following 7 sections. First the practical concerns, second the relation between course objectives and the textbook, third subject matter issues, forth language issues, fifth skills and strategies involved in the book, sixth the exercises and activities and finally the layout of the book are discussed and reported.

4.1 Practical Concerns of the Book

In this section, by focusing on questions considering practical concerns, the researchers aim to investigate textbook availability, coast effectiveness of the book and supplementary materials in detail.

Table 1 shows the percentage given by participants to practical concerns (textbook availability, coast effectiveness of the book and supplementary materials). The tabulated data shows the numerical aspects of the descriptive mentioned above.

Table 1 *The percentage given by participants to practical concerns*

Practical concern	Very Weak	Weak	Average	Good	Excellent
To what extent is the textbook available?	0%	4%	38%	46%	12%
To what extent can the accompanying materials be obtained in a timely manner?	4%	15%	31%	42%	8%
Is the text book cost effective?	0%	8%	27%	38%	27%

4.2 Relation between Course Objectives and the Textbook

In second section, by focusing on questions considering relation between course objectives and the textbook, the researchers aim to investigate matching course objectives and the textbook objectives, textbook and broader educational concerns and appropriateness of the textbook in detail.

Table 2 shows the percentage given by participants to the relation between course objectives and the textbook (matching course objectives and the textbook objectives, textbook and broader educational concerns and appropriateness of the textbook). The tabulated data shows the numerical aspects of the descriptive mentioned above.

Table 2

The percentage given by participants to relation between course objectives and the textbook

The relation between course objectives and the textbook	Very Weak	Weak	Average	Good	Excellent
To what extent do the objectives of the textbook match the objectives of the course?	4%	4%	15%	58%	19%
To what extent does the textbook seem to be in tune with broader educational concerns?	4%	4%	42%	35%	15%
To what extent is the textbook appropriate for the audience?	0%	7%	27%	54%	12%

4.3 Subject Matter Issues

In third section, by focusing on questions considering subject matter issues, the researchers aim to investigate motivation and interest, logically topics ordering and grading content to the need and background knowledge of students in detail.

Table 3 shows the percentage given by participants to the subject matter issues (motivation and interest, logically topics ordering and grading content to the need and background knowledge of students). The tabulated data shows the numerical aspects of the descriptive mentioned above.

Table 3

Percentage given by participants to the subject matter issues

subject matter issues	Very Weak	Weak	Average	Good	Excellent
To what extent does the subject matter motivate and interest students?	4%	12%	45%	35%	4%
To what extent has the ordering of topics been arranged in a logical fashion?	0%	16%	23%	42%	19%
To what extent has the content been graded according to the needs and background knowledge of the students?	0%	4%	23%	46%	27%

4.4 Language Issues

In fourth section, by focusing on questions considering language issues, the researchers aim to investigate basic grammatical patterns and vocabulary, presentation of structure and vocabulary and recycling of new structure in detail.

Table 4 shows the percentage given by participants to the language issues (basic grammatical patterns and vocabulary, presentation of structure and vocabulary and recycling of new structure). The tabulated data shows the numerical aspects of the descriptive mentioned above.

Table 4 *The percentage given by participants to the language issues*

language issues	Very Weak	Weak	Average	Good	Excellent
To what extent does the textbook contain the basic grammatical patterns and vocabulary?	4%	12%	27%	42%	15%
To what extent does the presentation of structure and vocabulary move from simple to difficult?	0%	35%	50%	15%	0%
To what extent are the new vocabulary and structures recycled in the subsequent units for reinforcement?	8%	19%	23%	50%	0%

4.5 skills and strategies involved in the questionnaire

In fifth section, by focusing on questions considering skills and strategies involved in the questionnaire, the researchers aim to investigate reading skills, reading strategies and speaking skills in detail. Table 5 shows the percentage given by participants to the considering skills and strategies involved in the questionnaire (reading skills, reading strategies and speaking skills). The tabulated data shows the numerical aspects of the descriptive mentioned above.

Table 5

The percentage given by participants to the considering skills and strategies involved in the questionnaire

The skills and strategies involved in the questionnaire	Very Weak	Weak	Average	Good	Excellent
To what extent does the textbook teach the reading skill?	4%	4%	27%	46%	19%
To what extent does the textbook teach reading strategies?	4%	22%	35%	35%	4%
To what extent does the textbook teach the speaking skill?	12%	22%	27%	35%	4%

4.6 exercises and activities in the book

In sixth section, by focusing on exercises and activities in the book the researchers aim to investigate various exercises and activities to challenge students in detail.

Table 6 shows the percentage given by participants to the considering exercises and activities in the book. The tabulated data shows the numerical aspects of the descriptive mentioned above.

Table 6

The percentage given by participants to the considering exercises and activities in the book

The exercises and activities in the book	Very Weak	Weak	Average	Good	Excellent
Are the exercises and activities varied enough to challenge the students?	4%	12%	42%	34%	8%

4.7 layout of the book

In last section, by focusing on questions considering layout of the book, the researchers aim to investigate attractiveness, illustrations, relativity of the book to major and grading content to proficiency level of students in detail.

Table 7 shows the percentage given by respondents to the considering layout of the book (attractiveness, illustrations, relativity of the book to major and grading content to proficiency level of students). The tabulated data shows the numerical aspects of the descriptive mentioned above.

Table 7

The percentage given by respondents to the considering layout of the book

The layout of the book	Very Weak	Weak	Average	Good	Excellent
To what extent does the book appear attractive?	12%	23%	38%	19%	8%
To what extent do photographs and illustrations in the book motivate you to talk about the subject?	46%	23%	19%	8%	4%
To what extent are the materials related to your major?	0%	4%	19%	50%	27%
To what extent has the content been graded according to the proficiency level of the students?	4%	4%	23%	54%	15%

5. Conclusion

This study was meant to assess the suitability of the book in the question for the students of Accounting. At first it should be noted that every textbook or teaching material has its merits. No

teaching material is perfect. The main reason for unsuitability of many ESP textbooks is the lack of needs analysis. In many cases, conducting needs analysis is ignored before the course begins, so there is not enough information about the students for which the textbook is provided. While writing the materials, the textbook writers do not have the intended audience in their mind, which forces them to follow predetermined guidelines for all courses (Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011). To this end, the participants responses to the questionnaire based on Sheldon' (1988) model of evaluation and modified by Karimi (2006) were explored and the results were juxtaposed with the percentage obtained by the participants in six areas of the questionnaire namely practical concerns, materials in relation to course objective, subject matter, linguistic issues, skills and strategies, variety of tasks and activities, and the layout of materials. The main findings of the study will be discussed in the following section.

5.1 Findings

The first part of questionnaire investigated practical concerns. Considering text book availability, coast effectiveness of the book and supplementary material, it was revealed that there was no significant problem with the supplementary materials. These materials can help students improve their English and learn the textbook content better.

The second part of questionnaire dealt with the relation between course objectives and the textbook**.** Regarding matching course objectives and the textbook objectives and the appropriateness of the textbook for the students, it should be mentioned that there was a statement of the purpose in the book. Moreover, to some extent students were aware of the major goals of the course.

The third part of questionnaire surveyed the subject matter issues. Regarding motivating, logically topic ordering and grading content to the needs and background knowledge of the students, it is obvious that the book is motivating. The level of students was taken into consideration and the topics were appealing to some extent.

The next part of questionnaire investigated language issues**.** Considering basic grammatical patterns and vocabulary**,** presenting structure and vocabulary from simple to difficult and recycling of the new vocabulary and structures, it was revealed that the participants were pleased with the book, logical order from simple to difficult and recycling of the structures and vocabulary.

The fifth part of questionnaire surveyed the skills and strategies. Regarding teaching skills, reading, teaching speaking skills and dealing with the exercises and activities in the book, the

participants seem to have positive attitude toward the textbook. The goal of ESP is to teach learners how to read efficiently by practicing useful skills and strategies such as inference making, guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context, etc. Exercises and activities have the role of consolidating what has been learned. It is difficult to imagine a book with a little exercises or activities, which should encourage learners to think about what the texts really mean and use their cognitive abilities to solve the given problems (Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011).

The last part of the questionnaire was related to the layout of the book. Considering attractiveness of the book, the effect of photographs and illustrations in motivating students to talk about the subject, relating materials to the major and grading content of the book to the proficiency level of the students, unfortunately, the book under investigation did not have any photographs or illustrations. This is definitely a source of boredom for the learners. ESP textbooks should arouse the interest of the students and be motivating. One of the techniques which can be used to achieve this goal is to use pictures, illustrations, tasks, and authentic materials. The layout of the book plays an important role in catching the learners' attention and increasing their motivation. In addition content of the books should be related to what has been learned, experienced and background knowledge of the learners.

The findings of the present study hold important implications for material developers and teachers. First of all, some points should be taken into consideration by material developers while revising the current textbook: 1) ensuring the revision sections in the next edition of the textbook, 2) fostering individual learning, 3) giving more priority to reading passages and associative activities, 4) providing materials that facilitate real-life interaction, 5) modifying grammar items matched with the students' level, 6) providing graphic illustrations that aim to motivate learners to talk about the subjects, and 7) focusing much more attention on attractive appearance. Moreover, the findings of this study enable the ESP teachers to adapt the accounting textbook more relevant to the students' needs. Evaluation checklist used in this study helps the ESP teachers gain a deeper insight in selecting the appropriate textbook.

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APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear participants: The following questionnaire is intended for a research on textbook evaluation. Please read the questions carefully and express your idea by selecting one of the options.

1. To what extent is the book available?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

2. To what extent can the accompanying materials be obtained in a timely manner?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

3. Is the text book cost-effective?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

4. To what extent do the objectives of the textbook match the objectives of the course?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

5. To what extent does the textbook seem to be in tune with broader educational concern?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

6. To what extent is the text book appropriate for the audience?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

7. To what extent does the textbook contain basic grammatical patterns and vocabulary?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

8. To what extent does the presence of structures and vocabularies move gradually from simple to more complex?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

9. To what extent are new vocabularies and structures recycled in subsequent units for reinforcement?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

10. To what extent does the subject matter motivate and interest you?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

11. To what extent has the ordering of the material by topics been arranged in a logical fashion?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

12. To what extent has the content been graded according to the need and background knowledge of the students?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

13. To what extent does the textbook teach the reading skill?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

14. To what extent does the textbook teach reading strategies?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

15. To what extent does the textbook teach the speaking skill?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

16. Are the exercises and activities varied enough to challenge the students?

a. excellent b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

17. To what extent does the textbook appear attractive?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

18. To what extent do photographs and illustrations in the book motivate you to talk about the subject?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

19. To what extent are the materials related to your major?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

20. To what extent has the content been graded according to the proficiency level of the students?

a. excellent   b. good   c. average   d. weak   e. very weak

Title

Translation teaching methods and translation teaching in Iran

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Biodata

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Abstract

It is obvious that translation plays an important role in human communication. The aim of this study is to explore Translation teaching methods and translation teaching in Iran. The present study investigated the effects of a suggested program on developing some basic translation skills for a group of first year English Majors of the faculty of Education. This methodology, consisting of a step-by-step, either sequential or successive procedure for workshops, which has proven quite successful in translator teaching. The methodology proposed and the corresponding evaluation process are discussed. All the aspects presented and analyzed here respond to empirical matters. translation teachers should keep in mind not to exclude characteristics of such significance to the communicative theory of translation as the structure of the activity the translator carries out, the contents of which depend upon common and explicit factors of the text and which is in a very close relation with the ability of the translator.

Keywords: Translation, Translation program, Educational system, Translation courses, teaching

1.Introduction

Translation has been used as a method to teach languages for over two thousand years (Rivers 28). It is still widely used in the teaching of classical languages, Latin and Greek, and it was also used in the teaching of modern languages, as Larsen-Freeman points out.

Kelly (151-54) and Titone (27-29) provide us with a historie account of the use of translation as a teaching method. Larsen-Freeman examines eight different approaches to the teaching of second languages and starts with the so-called "grammar-translation method." Maley reminds us of the clear relationship between grammar and translation in his introduction to Duff's book on *Translation:* "Translation has long languished as a poor relation in the family of language teaching techniques.

Translation is the gateway for understanding others and their civilizations, therefore; universities are interested a lot in the courses of translation just to train and graduate competent and efficient translators, since, mistakes in this field may be disastrous.

Chabban (1984:5) views translation as "a finicky job"; since it has not yet been reduced to strict scientific rules, and it allows for the differences that are known to exist between different personalities. For being a translator a person should know at least one language except his native language well. Two important qualifications for every translator are being able to express ourselves fluently in the target language (our native language) and having an understanding of the text we are translating.

The most important aim of the teaching of a language is to teach the student to comprehend and create texts of varied styles and functional genres by making use of the verbal and non-verbal standards of behavior and the textual conventions of each culture.

2.Teaching Translation

2.1 Translation

Wilss (1982:134) defines translation as "a transfer process which aims at the transformation of a written SL (Source Language) text into an optimally equivalent TL (Target Language) text, and which requires the syntactic, the semantic and the pragmatic understanding and analytical processing of the SL text". According to Nida and Taber (1989:12), "translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style". Catford (1985: 20) defines it as "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)".

Delisle (1981) illustrates what a subtle form of torture translation is: Translation is an arduous job that mortifies you, puts you in a state of despair at times, but also an enriching and

indispensable work, that demands honesty and modesty. There are many thorns that can mortify us during the translation process, whatever the nature of the text we face, and translators should be aware of them. The first problem is related to reading and comprehension ability in the source language. Once the translator has coped with this obstacle, the most frequent translation difficulties are of a semantic and cultural nature (Tricás, 1995): "Linguistic untranslatability" (cognates, i.e. true and false friends, calque, and other forms of interference; institutional and standardized terms, neologisms, aphorisms, etc.), and "cultural untranslatability," (idioms, sayings, proverbs, jokes, puns, etc.). One should adopt a very cautious attitude toward these words or expressions so as to avoid interference and/or language misuse (Kussmaul, 1995).

2.2 The Nature of translation.

Ali (1991:33) works out a new definition for translation; "a reproduction in the TL of a message contained in a SL." He views the process of translating as a mental process where a translator "analyzes the structures of the SL into kernel elements or features before he can dissect the intended meaning of the linguistic expression".

For more than twenty years, translation theorists have been pointing this out, and yet many people believe and claim that knowing two or more languages is identical to knowing how to translate properly. We must banish this idea. Delisle (1980) states it clearly: Linguistic competence is a necessary condition, but not yet sufficient for the professional practice of translation.

In addition to reading comprehension ability, the knowledge of specialized subjects derived from specialized training and a wide cultural background, and the global vision of cross-cultural and inter-lingual communication, it is a must to learn how to handle the strategic and tactical tools for a good translating performance.

In Riazi 's words "those involved in the process of translation teaching and learning, namely trainers and trainees, should be informed of the importance of translation which is a major intellectual discipline and is the key to international understanding and also of the vast world of communication in which competent translators and interpreters are needed"(Riazi & Razmjoo Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities of Shiraz University Vol21 No.1 spring 2004).

3.Translation as a complex competence

3.1 The Study of Translation Competence.

Schaffner and Adab (2000) track the developments in the study of translation as a competence that is composed of different skills. They indicate that It was not until the second half of the twentieth century that developments in Translation Studies led to a more systematic view of the attempts to develop a theory of translation. 'Systematic training of translators', they explain 'began to be undertaken as a serious objective in the 1940s, with the establishment of programmes aimed at training professional translators and/or interpreters at the University of Geneva, Switzerland, in 1941, Vienna, Austria, in 1943, Mainz-Germersheim, Germany, in 1946, Georgetown, USA, in 1949.

4. Translation in Teacher Education

This part evaluates the place of translation in EFL teacher education courses, and investigates the significance of the inclusion of such a component in the courses presented to Arab prospective teachers of English as a foreign language. The main argument will begin with a discussion of the place of translation within the framework of developments in the communicative approach and as a medium for language instruction in general. This will lead to a discussion of translation as a process that encompasses more than one basic skill in learning foreign languages i.e. reading, researching and writing. The purpose in this part is to show that both roles played by translation (as a pedagogical tool , and a language skill) are inseparable in language teaching and teacher education.

5.Translation in Language Teaching.

5.1Translation as a Pedagogical tool.

As Lefevere (1992:46) points out, translation as a pedagogical tool has been used from about 100 AD until the end of World War Two. When people began to show an interest in foreign languages, it seemed to make sense that the move from the native language to the foreign, from the known to the new, would be made with the aid of translation. Translation as a pedagogical tool is still widely used in many parts of the world in the teaching of English as a foreign language. As Howatt (1984:5) reports: 'the best-known example of Latin-teaching dialogue written in the 11th century is a Latin text which is accompanied by an interlinear translation in Anglo – Saxon'.

Iranian translation students' problems are largely attributable to the following factors: (1) Attitude toward their occupation: they do not recognize the importance of translation, so they do their homework casually and carelessly; (2) Weak bilingual foundation: both their comprehension

and expression of Farsi and English languages are not good enough. They often make grammatical and spelling mistakes, create Finglish sentences when they do translation, and sometimes use non-standard Farsi and incorrect punctuation marks. (3) Rhetoric and style: students have no clear consciousness of style, and have had little chance to appreciate various styles before they begin to study translation. Correspondingly, they translate without considering the style of the original and often mix different styles together.(4) Translation students can not use reference books: students often ask their teachers the meaning or spelling of a new word rather than looking it up in a dictionary. The teacher is the sage on the stage! All these problems are due to our educational system and traditional teaching method, and indicate that we must pay more attention to students' study and thinking methods.

In Iranian universities which translation course is offered, at the graduate level the general topics about translation are taught and students become familiar with the translation. They have some courses about translation of documents, journals and stories. It can be said that students get the idea about what is translation. In post graduate the students of translation study about translation more deeply, but there is not any recommendation for students to become professional in some particular text like legal, journal, technical and others. Students study more about translation and theories. It is useful if the translation courses in universities become distinctive and students decide about which kind of translation, simultaneous, consecutive, conference, and text they want to study and in the universities they get deep and profound knowledge about them.

6. A Translation Methodology: A Cooperative Work Procedure

This methodology, consisting of a step-by-step procedure workshop, (stages may sometimes be sequential and successive, sometimes, alternated) has proven quite successful in my classes in terms of students' motivation, productivity and the quality of their work. However, I do think that this methodology can be improved.

1. The teacher makes a selection of the material to be translated. Texts must be chosen according to previously defined objectives for translation practice, taking into account the degree of difficulty of the texts (semantic, cultural, stylistic, etc.), the topic or the specific knowledge area (science and technology; social, institutional, economic and/or political topics; and literary or philosophical works), the translation problems to be solved, and so on.

2. After browsing through the text (scan reading and/or skim reading), the students, assisted by their teacher, should identify the source, the norm, the type of text, the register, the style and the readership of the text selected. It is a kind of game of the imagination in which the text is real but the client and her/his needs are imaginary.

3. The students should read the whole text at least twice: The first reading will be comprehensive and general, to become acquainted with the topic and to understand the original, always bearing in mind that meaning is context-determined.

7. Translation Teaching in Iranian Universities

7.1 History of Translation Teaching in Iran

The education of translation at academic level started in 1973 in Tehran as a higher education center titled as 'College of Translation' was established to train competent translators. After Revolution (1979) this school was substituted by Allameh Tabatabaei University in Tehran in 1983. The instruction of this major as a specialized one has continued since that time and spread to some other universities across the country because it has been needed to deal with translation major more academically and systematically as global communication has become more popular and necessary with the advent of the Internet and satellites and Iran has been also so dependent on translation of latest researches and books published in developed counties to advance its science.

7.2 Aims of Teaching Translation in Iranian Universities

The educational system in Iran is highly centralized, each level depending to a great extent on the decrees, rules and regulations issued by Ministry of Science, Research and Technology. According to this ministry, aims of holding translation programs as M.A. and PhD. in universities are as what follows:

-To train researches who are willing to conduct research within the domain of translation

-To promote instruction of theories to trainees of translation

-To remove the constant need for specialized translation instructors

-To encourage students of translation to continue their studies in Iran

Students of translation are also expected to receive training in knowledge management of different disciplines and in problem-spotting and problem-solving skills which they can apply to most text

types and disciplines which is held as an advantage in a professional world where translation is considered more as a business and where multidisciplinary translators are highly demanded (see, for instance, Bajo et al. 2001).

7.3 Challenges of teaching translation in Iranian universities

At the POSI6 meeting which was held in London in 1998, it became clear that different countries favor different approaches to translation training. In some, it is conceived as an undergraduate degree and in others, especially in mainly English-speaking countries, it exists mainly as a postgraduate degree. In Iran translation is now being taught at all levels including B.A. and M.A. and PhD, but still there are some academics who believe that translation is just a sub-branch of linguistics and needs no professional education since one needs just some dictionaries to embark upon the task of translation.

Most professors of Iranian universities that teach translation courses of M.A.

There are also lots of students who complain about overabundance of theories in M.A. courses and believe that theories of translation should be also accompanied by practice of it as they are actually intertwined, while current theories of translation are explained separately and being distant from translation act itself.

7.4 Iranian Translation Students' Problems

Iranian translation students' problems are largely attributable to the following factors: (1) Attitude toward their occupation: they do not recognize the importance of translation, so they do their homework casually and carelessly; (2) Weak bilingual foundation: both their comprehension and expression of Farsi and English languages are not good enough. They often make grammatical and spelling mistakes, create Finglish sentences when they do translation, and sometimes use non-standard Farsi and incorrect punctuation marks. (3) Rhetoric and style: students have no clear consciousness of style, and have had little chance to appreciate various styles before they begin to study translation. Correspondingly, they translate without considering the style of the original and often mix different styles together.(4) Translation students can not use reference books: students often ask their teachers the meaning or spelling of a new word rather than looking it up in a dictionary. All these problems are due to our educational system and traditional teaching method, and indicate that we must pay more attention to students' study and thinking methods.

7.5. Inefficiency of Instructors of Translation

Many experts in the field of translation do believe that translation instructors must be highly qualified, and have extensively studied the theories of translation, linguistics, literature, aesthetics and other related branches of learning. Instructors of translation should have a rich experience in the practice of translation and have published books or articles on translation studies. They should be familiar with English and American literature and with the cultural systems of both Farsi and English. They should also be aware of the mistakes most often made by students, and be able to accurately analyze the causes of these mistakes from the theories of linguistics, culture, literature, rhetoric, style, aesthetics and so on. They are holders of post graduate degrees in English literature or linguistics from Iranian or Anglo Saxon universities. Hence, the trainers are at best merely interested rather than specialized in translation.

The absence of continuous training programs for university translation teachers has contributed to the current status quo. Teachers may very well take personal initiatives and train themselves. However, their efforts can hardly come to fruition. Those teaching translation courses in Iran Universities are not that familiar with ins and outs of translation.

8.Present situation in Iranian universities

8.1 Curriculum

After passing university entrance exam, students are accepted for BA degree in translation studies based on their selections they made before taking the exam. They enter the universities, but suffer from weakness in general English which is believed to be the base of a good translator's competence. The students are supposed to earn 133 to 135 credits to graduate and get a BA. About 70 to 72 credits are earned for specific courses of translation and 4 credits for language learning. The focus of BA program of translation is having the students memorize dozens of new words, which are erroneously believed to be the key factors and effective tools in translating, rather than teaching some translation strategies such as communicative strategies, to have the students learn how to overcome their deficiencies in vocabulary and grammar in getting the message across.

Different texts on economy, politics, literature, journalism, etc. with their translations are given to the students; those texts are overloaded with a great number of new words which are learned for the exam and then immediately forgotten. This process also discourages students from using creativity in their translation. Another point to be mentioned here is that the direction of translation is mostly form English into Persian.

9. Conclusion

Students cannot be experts right from the beginning, although we often expect the translation products of our students to be good. It takes time and exercise to acquire the necessary rules and skills. If they learn from the very beginning of their studies what translation really means and what translation competence consists of, then this knowledge will help them to make accurate choices in producing target texts.

Translation seems to be an often used strategy and preferred language practice technique for many students in EFL settings. It is important to help students to develop a significant structure for pre-translation analysis of the source text. This construction for source text analysis should become a subconscious method.

The present situation of translators' training and syllabus design seems to need some adjustment and modification, and this change is felt more and more when BA students of translation enter universities to continue their education for an MA degree. They feel that they do not know enough about translation to rely on for future MA courses, and most of them do not feel to have enough skill for translating the required texts. So it is suggested to those who are in charge of designing the syllabus for translation studies in Iranian universities to make some changes in the program in order to inject new power into the translation community in Iran.

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Title

The impact of Task-Based Vocabulary Instruction on Iranian EFL Reading Ability

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Abstract

The present study was done to reveal the impact of different instructions on second language vocabulary learning in the improvement of the reading ability. The researches that have been done on vocabulary teaching and learning during the years have shown that some vocabulary teaching techniques better help the learners recall and use the previously learnt vocabularies. Therefore, the researchers decided to compare two more common types of vocabulary instructions. These two instructions were task-based vocabulary instruction and conventional vocabulary instruction. The researchers of this study developed a cloze test containing of three passages as the pre-test and another cloze test containing of three other passages as the post-test. Then they divided the participants into two groups of thirty and instructed them differently to show if there were any differences between different types of instruction. At the end of the instruction which lasted for three months, participants attended the post-test. After the test, quantitative data were gathered and analyzed and the researchers found that different instructions affected learners' performances on the test differently. The results revealed that those participants who learnt the vocabulary through the task-based techniques performed better than those participants

who learnt vocabulary through conventional techniques on the test contrary to their pre-test similar performances. This difference in test scores was significant. Therefore the researchers could strongly claim that task-based techniques of vocabulary instruction are more effective than older conventional techniques in the improvement of EFL learners reading ability.

Keywords: Vocabulary instruction, Task-based techniques, Conventional techniques, Cloze test

1. Introduction

From a long time ago, all the people involved in the field of language pedagogy including, psychologists, linguists, language experts and language teachers have been interested in vocabulary learning and strategies for vocabulary teaching. The most effective procedures that second/foreign language learners use to retain the vocabulary are not still clear (Sanaoui, 1995). As the results of the most language tests offer, vocabulary is one of the toughest areas of the language to be learnt and the easiest area to be forgotten. The results of the research projects in the field of second/foreign language learning mostly depend on the various factors in the form of the moderator variables that have not been considered in such studies. "All teaching methods with their behavioristic, cognitive, humanistic, and psycholinguistic basis prove to show different effects on learning process (Birjandi, Mossalanejad & Bagheridoust, 2000, p.83)".

Therefore, researchers in the field of language pedagogy have invested ample time investigating strategies for vocabulary teaching since they knew that the role of vocabularies in comprehending both spoken and written form of the language is salient. This role is so big that some false assumptions appear to exist among ordinary people to assume knowing a language the same as knowing vocabularies in that language. Stahl (1999) states" An extensive vocabulary aids expressions and communication and vocabulary size has been directly linked to reading comprehension" (Stahl, 1999, page,3). Therefore, this research tries to introduce more recent vocabulary teaching techniques which seem to be more effective than usual techniques and can help to better retention of the learned words. The techniques that will be used in this study for teaching vocabulary to the participants are task-based techniques including: matching, filling in the word charts, filling in the blanks, making decisions about the use of the words, negotiating the meanings, and trying to guess the meanings cooperatively.

Then the researchers will compare the use of these techniques to the use of some classic techniques of vocabulary teaching such as: translating, giving definitions and using dictionary. As task-based techniques mainly focus on the active participation of the learners in learning generally and in vocabulary learning specifically, it is expected that participants who have been learning vocabulary through tasks will perform better in completing cloze passages as an aspect of reading comprehension than those participants who will learn vocabulary through classic techniques.

What are important in completing cloze passages are first learners' word knowledge and then their whole understanding of the cloze passages. Therefore, this type of test can make it clear whether learners have learned the meaning of the words fully and if they are able to use the words appropriately whenever needed. To examine the extent of this understanding of the words the researchers of this study use two different methods of teaching to teach vocabulary to the participants of this study.

They call the first method classic method and the second method task-based method. These two methods include procedures of vocabulary teaching. This study has three parts. The first part is the administration of the pre-test. The second part is the instruction that lasts for about three months in an academic term of language instruction in Iran. The third part is the administration of the post-test, which will be completed only in a day.

2. Literature Review

Over the last decades, researches have shown that vocabulary instruction plays an important role in comprehending what second/foreign language learners read and in what they write or say.(e.g., Baumann, Kame'enui et al., 2003; Beck & McKeown, 1991; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000;). In a research, Peter Yongqi Gu (2003) examined the impact of task-dependent strategies, dictionary strategies, rote rehearsal strategies, and encoding strategies. Instead of searching for the best strategies that produce the best results in learning and comprehending vocabulary, the researcher argued that the choice, use, and effectiveness of vocabulary learning strategies basically depend on the task, the learner, and the learning context. The impact of task-based strategies on comprehending English vocabularies was completely clear in this research project.

Which group of techniques is superior to the other group is still a matte. Dr. Elfrieda H. Hiebert (2004) investigated vocabulary instruction as a component of reading comprehension. They stated that the most important reason for which second and foreign language learners must be provided

with instruction to build vocabulary is the contribution of vocabulary knowledge to reading comprehension.

It was assumed that when a learner approaches a relatively challenging task, she/he adopts specific strategies to solve the problem. This problem-solving process in learning vocabulary is constrained by the learning context where the learner has faced new words. The premise under Yongqi Gu (2003) research was the belief that "the vast majority of words in L1 come from extensive and multiple exposures through use rather than direct instruction, and therefore, vocabulary learning in a second language should follow the same route (Coady, 1993).

It was because of this belief that the researcher of this study decided to compare the impact of task-based vocabulary instruction with the instruction of classic techniques of vocabulary presentation to show the effectiveness of each instruction. However, Yongqi Gu (2003) concluded that the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction greatly depends on the tasks involved in the process of teaching in addition to the learner and the context of learning. Yongqi Gu (2003) proved that second language vocabulary develops gradually and grows by itself, if the learner makes use of task-based techniques that aim the use of the words, rather than retention of words.

In line with Gu's (2003) research Riazi and Alvari (2004) checked the effect of strategy use by learners on vocabulary learning and retention. Participants of their study were forty freshman students (male and female) of English, divided into two groups in an Iranian university. Group one (G 1) only provided the researchers with self-reports on vocabulary learning, while group two (G 2) approached the task of vocabulary learning in a more systematic and conscious way. They also had the chance of being exposed to other students' techniques and strategies to have a form of strategy activation.

In response to Gu (2003), they argued that the choice, use, and effectiveness of vocabulary learning strategies depend on the task, the learner, and the learning context. Through a two way ANOVA used by them to analyze the data it was indicated that strategy activation and use was a determinant factor in vocabulary learning. They added that "part of the students' problems and their weaknesses do not seem to be due to their inability of learning or lack of study, but rather because of their inadequate way of studying" Riazi and Alvari (2004).

Javanbakht (2009) explored the impact of different tasks on elementary EFL vocabulary learning in a study. He actually intended to show the impact of tasks on vocabulary learning. In

order to achieve his goal, he adapted two kinds of reading-based tasks and one writing-based task from those in studies by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) and Martinez-Fernendez (2008). He used these tasks to show how they can help learners improve their vocabulary size. Javanbakht (2009) concluded that vocabulary learning tasks must be advocated as major vehicles that help EFL learners to learn and retain new vocabularies. He stated that more involving vocabulary learning tasks help the learners not only to learn but also to keep vocabulary in long-term memory.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Participants of this study were sixty students learning English at Marvdasht Islamic Azad University. The researchers could increase the size of the sample up to 120 but because the representativeness of the sample is more important than its size the researchers decided to limit the number to sixty. They were all in the second year of the university. The researchers also asked the participants to attend OPT (Oxford Proficiency Test) to check their proficiency to consider the homogeneity of the participants for the assurance.

It must be mentioned that except the name of the university where the research was conducted the other information about the participants are kept secret. The researchers also asked participants to sign a consent form before attending the study. The researchers made the participants sure that this research will have no side effects on their later performances. Because one of the methods (conventional) is what which is commonly used in language classes and the other one (task-based) is the one which is supposed to be effective. Although it was impossible to do randomization in picking the participants due to some limitations, they randomly assigned participants into two groups.

3.2. Design

This study is a quasi-experimental one because participants were selected from the accessible population group, but they were randomly assigned into two comparison groups to examine the effectiveness of two vocabulary teaching methods on reading ability through the use of cloze-test passages. This is also a quantitative study because data were collected numerically and statistical analysis was used to show the differences of using each method at the end of the study. This research has a categorical design because it includes two independent variables.

3.3. Instrumentation

The researchers used a cloze test containing of three passages at the beginning as the pre-test. They also used another cloze test at the end containing of three passages to check the impact of both methods on vocabulary retaining and reading comprehension ability. The pre-test was a test containing of three cloze passages of fixed ratio version because they are appropriate tests to check the overall proficiency (Oller 1973; 1979). The passages were chosen from participants English course book at Marvdasht University. Each passage contained twelve blanks, so the total score of each passage was twelve and the total score of the total passages was thirty six. The test was a standard cloze test. Every 9th content word was deleted and the method of scoring for the first one was weighed word method and for the second one and third one was exact word method. Thus, some of the participants were replaced because their scores were far from the mean score both positively or negatively. The post-test format was the same as the pre-test format. An OPT (Oxford Proficiency Test) was also used to check the homogeneity of the participants at before the pre-test was administered.

3.4. Procedure

This study aimed to reveal if different techniques of vocabulary instruction affect learners' reading comprehension ability differently. Therefore, the researchers decided to compare task-based techniques of vocabulary teaching to some older conventional techniques which are used in common English classes. To do so, they divided their sixty participants of this study into two groups of thirty. Before any instructions they developed a pre-test and ask the participants to attend that test. After the pre-test was administered the instruction started. The first group (G1) learned vocabulary through conventional techniques such as using bilingual dictionary and receiving direct definition of the words. The second group (G2) learned vocabulary through task-based techniques such as negotiating the meaning of the words in the class and guessing the meaning in the context.

After about three months of instruction the researchers developed a post-test. The post-test's format was similar to the pre-test's format. It was a test consisting of three cloze passages but of multiple-choice version because Porter (1976) and Ozete (1977) argued that multiple-choice makes cloze more a measure of reading ability. At the end of the post-test and after the data were analyzed using statistical methods the researchers were able to claim that there was a significant

difference between the use of task-based vocabulary techniques and conventional vocabulary teaching techniques.

4. Results and Discussions

This chart shows the normal distribution of the total data that were gathered in the post-test. It actually confirms that the scores of the post-test were gathered in a standarddezi way and there was no erroneous score in the post-test. Therefore, this chart ensures the readers that the post-test charts and graphs are reliable and the readers can trust the results of this study (figure 1).
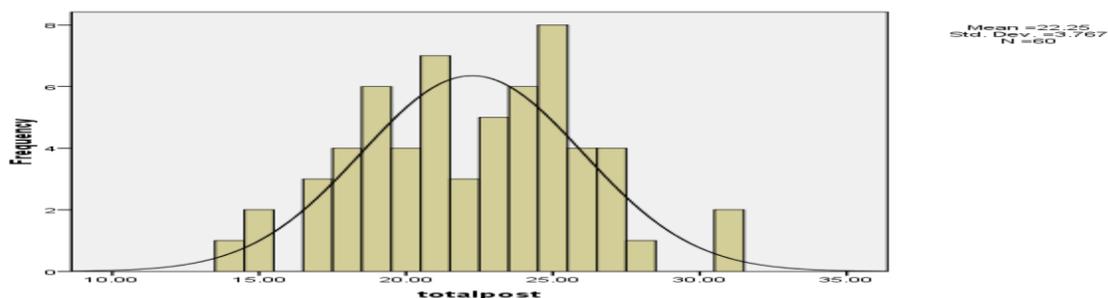
Figure1

The normality of the total post-test data

Since the researchers intended to reveal that there may be differences in the participants' performances after they receive different instructions, firstly they had to prove that their performances on the cloze passages before the instructions were not significantly different because if they performed differently before the post-test it would be concluded that the hypothesized difference in the post-test refers to their vocabulary potentiality and not to the instruction. Therefore, before the instruction they asked them to attend a pre-test. The pre-test format was the same as the post-test format. This means that they participated in a pre-test containing three cloze passages and they had to complete those passages based on their own knowledge and before receiving any instructions.

This way the researchers could prove that not only the participants were at the same level of vocabulary knowledge, but also their performances on completing cloze passages were the same, although their language proficiency level was considered beforehand by choosing participants from same classes and a proficiency test (OPT). The following table shows participants' performances on the pre-test. This table recommends that their performances on the pre-test were not significantly different. This table shows that the mean score of the G1 is 20.33 and the mean

score of the G2 is 20.13. So we can conclude that there is no meaningful difference between G1 and G2 scores in pre-test (table1).

Table1 Pre-test mean score for G1 and G2

Group Statistics

	group1	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
totalpre	G1	30	20.3333	3.25188	.59371
	G2	30	20.1333	2.37419	.43347

On the other hand, the researchers provided a bar chart that clearly proves no difference between the participants' vocabulary knowledge before receiving any instructions. This charts shows that (based-on the scores of the pre-test) the participants of the G1 were at the same vocabulary level with the participants of the G2 due to the scores that they got from the cloze test developed by the researchers (figure 2).
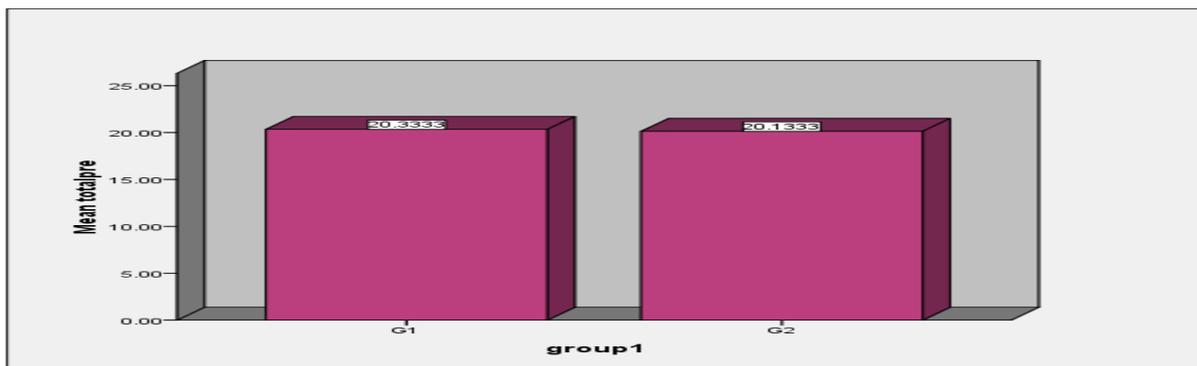
Figure2 Bar chart of the total pre-test scores of G1 and G2

4.1. T-test for Equality of Means

This is the table that confirms the level of the meaningfulness of the post-test data. This chart shows that the level of the meaningfulness of the data is 0/002, which is acceptable since it is below than 0/05 (p-value > 0/05). Based on this table we can make sure that the significance of data is within a standard range (table 2).

Table2 T-test for the equality of means

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
totalpost	Equal variances assumed	2.887	.095	-3.208	58	.002	-2.90000	.90408	-4.70971	-1.09029
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.208	53.163	.002	-2.90000	.90408	-4.71322	-1.08678

4.2. Research Question no. 1

The first research question concerned the effectiveness of task-based vocabulary teaching techniques over conventional vocabulary teaching techniques. To analyze the quantitative data of the post-test the parametric independent sample t-test was used based on histogram of normality of data. This testing system was used to compare the meaningfulness of mean of the total post-test data between G1 and G2. This is a kind of dependent distant variation system of testing. The statistical analysis showed that the mean of the total post-test of G1 was 20/8 and the mean of the total post-test of the G2 was 23/7 (table 3).

Therefore, because the absolute variance of t was 3.208 and the significance level of data analysis was 0/002, the researchers can conclude that there is a meaningful difference between the total post-test results of G1 and total post-test results of G2 with 99 percent assurance. This difference is clearly showed in the following table and charts. In addition, in compare to the total pre-test results of G1 and total pre-test results of G2 the researcher can strongly claim that task-based vocabulary teaching techniques are more effective than conventional techniques of vocabulary techniques.

Table3 Post-test mean score of G1 and G2

Group Statistics

	group1	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
totalpost	G1	30	20.8000	3.99482	.72935
	G2	30	23.7000	2.92610	.53423

4.3. Research Question no. 2

In the second research question the researcher specifically intended to show if task-based vocabulary teaching techniques were more effective than conventional techniques of teaching vocabulary in completing cloze passages. To do so, they used three cloze passages, each containing twelve blanks and asked participants to complete these cloze passages in the post-test. Based on the data analysis which was done through t-test, they could prove that the group of the participants who learnt vocabulary through tasks (G2) performed better in the test. The mean of the post-test scores of G2 was 23.7 and the mean of the post-test scores of G1 was 20.8 (figure 3.). Thus, they strongly claim that the task-based vocabulary techniques can lead to better performance in completing cloze passages in compare to older conventional techniques.
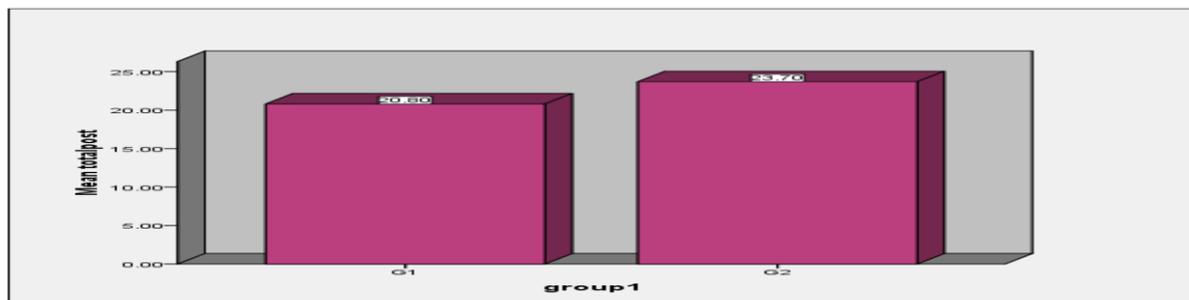
Figure3 The bar chart of total post-test for G1 and G2

5. Conclusion

This study was done to show the impact of different techniques of vocabulary instruction on the improvement of reading ability. The researchers believed that some techniques of vocabulary teaching are more effective than some other techniques in improving reading ability. During the years of teaching English to the Iranian English learners in different institutes and universities they were exposed to different techniques and they found that some vocabulary teaching techniques better help the learners to recall and use the previously learnt vocabularies in reading tasks. Therefore, they decided to compare the power of task-based vocabulary techniques to the power of some conventional techniques which were widely used in helping the learners to perform better in reading tasks. At the end of the study it was clearly revealed that task-based vocabulary instruction better help learners to remember the words in the reading tasks.

5.1. Findings

At the end of the instruction and after data were gathered and analyzed the researchers found that:

First, different instructions affect learners' performances on the cloze tests differently. The results of the pre-test suggested no differences between the groups' performances on the test, but the results of the post test showed that each group of the participants performed differently on the test. The results revealed that those participants who learnt vocabulary through the task-based techniques performed better than those participants who learnt vocabulary through conventional techniques in reading.

Second, the outcome of this study showed that the group of the participants who learnt vocabulary through task based techniques got better scores from cloze test in their post-test than the group of participants who learnt vocabulary through conventional techniques. The difference in post-test scores was significant. Therefore the researchers could strongly claim that task-based

techniques of vocabulary teaching and learning are more effective than conventional older techniques in reading tasks.

5.2. Pedagogical implications

At the end of the project and based on the results obtained from the tests the researchers proposed the following pedagogical implications:

First, it can be stated that different vocabulary teaching and learning techniques have different impacts on learners' performances in learning new words. Thus, the teachers must be aware that different instructions affect vocabulary learning differently. This study showed that task-based techniques work better than conventional techniques in helping language learners to recall new words.

Second, it became apparent that task-based techniques of vocabulary teaching and learning are more effective than conventional techniques in preparing language learners to complete cloze passages of reading type. With regard to this fact teachers must be aware that if they are preparing their pupils for some tests in which learners must complete cloze passages it is desirable to use task-based techniques of vocabulary teaching.

Third, during the instruction the researchers used some practices to accompany the techniques. The researcher found that meaningful exercises used alone or with the mechanical drills are more effective than mechanical drills alone. Therefore, language teachers must use meaningful drills more or they must follow mechanical drills with meaningful drills while trying to help the learners to put the words and their meanings into their minds.

5.3. Suggestions for further researches

The results of this study in addition to its pedagogical implications suggest some other ideas for other researchers. There are some suggestions for those researchers who are interested in the field of vocabulary teaching and learning:

First, the researchers of this study compared only two different ways of teaching vocabulary to the learners. They compared task-based vocabulary teaching techniques to some other conventional techniques which are used currently in most language settings in our country. Other researches can be done checking the impact of other vocabulary teaching and learning techniques.

Second, the researchers of this study used cloze tests to show the impact of different vocabulary teaching and learning techniques. Other types of test ranging from the most objective ones such as MCI to the most subjective ones can be used to show this impact.

Third, the researchers of this study revealed the impact of different techniques of vocabulary teaching and learning in written form of the language (reading ability) through the use of cloze tests. Other researchers can do the same process for the oral part of the language. Studies can be done to show the impact of task-based vocabulary techniques in using the new words in oral speeches. They can use oral tests to show this impact. For example learner's interviews can be recorded and then analyzed to find if they have used learnt vocabularies properly in their oral interviews.

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Title

A Comparative Study of the Use of Nominalization in Articles Written by Native and Iranian Authors in English Teaching Discipline

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Abstract

Writing research articles that are technically, scientifically and thus academically acceptable has been a matter of interest and concern for article writers. A very important feature of academically acceptable articles is the scientificity of their discourse. Moreover, a typical characteristic of scientific discourse is the use of nominalizations, where processes and properties are metaphorically re-construed as nouns. The present study aims at carrying out a comparative investigation of articles written by native and Iranian authors in terms of scientificity of discourse through comparing the articles regarding the use of nominalization. To this end, fifteen research articles in the field of English teaching written by native authors and also fifteen research articles in the same field written by Iranian authors were randomly selected from 4 journals published between years 2009 and 2013. Instances of nominalization then were identified and counted manually in both corpora. The results showed that there is no significant difference between articles written by native and Iranian authors in use of nominalization. It means that as far as nominalization is concerned, the discourse of research articles by Iranian authors is as scientific as that of those by native authors. The results of this study contribute to theoretical foundation and teaching methodology of scientific English writing domain.
Keywords: Scientificity, Nominalization, Scientific discourse

1. Introduction

Languages have their most natural ways of encoding the meanings which they express. This is called congruent way, and the non-congruent ways of encoding language are referred to as grammatical metaphor (Halliday, 1994; 1998; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999). Halliday (1985, p. 321) considers that there are two kinds of expressions: congruent, also called non-metaphorical or non-marked; and incongruent, metaphorical or marked. In general, it is considered that people, places and things are realized by means of a noun; actions are realized verbally; circumstances are realized by prepositional phrases and adverbs, and so on. This is the typical, congruent relationship between semantic and grammatical categories that usually happens in spontaneous spoken language. However, all meanings may have more than one way of realization, and sometimes, in written language and especially in the language of science; the realizations of the semantic functions of the clause are not typical, but marked. This realization constitutes a grammatical metaphor. Halliday (1985) considers two types of grammatical metaphors, the *ideational* type, that reflects the *field*, and the *interpersonal* one, that reflects the *tenor*. In this paper we refer only to the ideational grammatical metaphor since it is one of the characteristics of scientific language.

Some authors such as Halliday (2004a) point out the importance of studying the language of science, given that science and the language of science are two indissoluble entities. The language of science is, by its nature, a language in which theories are constructed and its characteristics are exactly those that make theoretical discourse possible. The difficulty of the scientific language is not limited to the lexical level but it also applies to a range of specific grammar structures that characterize discourse. Scientific language uses two kinds of resources: lexical and grammatical. Lexical resources include the technical terms that scientific disciplines constantly create. Grammatical resources include the constructions of nominal compounds deployed so that they can be combined to construe a particular form of reasoning (Briones, Fortuny, Sastry & Botto de Pocovi, 2003). Therefore; Scientific discourse is a highly nominalized register.

According to Bhatia (1993, p. 151), nominal compounds are the main carrier of information in academic scientific writing. They communicate very specialized and precise knowledge to an audience who must share with the writer the required level of knowledge of the subject discipline. The more technical and specialized the subject, the more frequent and complicated the noun compounds.

There are several functional reasons why the language of science demands a very high degree of nominalization:

1. Objectivity: Nominalizations produce a greater concentration of the experiential meaning and a smaller incidence of interpersonal elements, such as personal pronouns and modal verbs, thus presenting information in a less personalized way.

2. Thematic progression: the use of nominalization is not a static but a dynamic one.

According to Halliday (1993b, p. 131):

(...) the core of a scientific text is the development of a chain of reasoning (...) in which each step leads on to the next. But in order to lead on to the next step it is necessary to be able to repeat what has gone before and is now being used as the springboard for the next move.

3. Synthesis: Martin (1993b, p. 230) says that grammatical metaphors mean language "distillation". Distillation means condensation. Noun compounds reduce longer phrasal constructions, making scientific language more compact, more synthetic, more functional and direct to the specialist. This synthetic language that science has developed is achieved by means of:

4. Concise referencing: Nominalizations act as powerful referents in discourse and serve as ad hoc names for concepts that will be referred to again, thus avoiding long descriptions.

5. Summary: Nominalizations sum up the contents of a previous discussion before introducing new information.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Writing research articles that are technically, scientifically and thus academically acceptable has been a matter of interest and concern for article writers. A very important feature of academically valued and acceptable articles is scientificity of their discourse. Moreover, "a typical characteristic of scientific discourse is the use of nominalization, where processes and properties are metaphorically re-construed as nouns" (Halliday, 2004; Halliday and Martin, 1993). Recent studies pointed out the problems students encountered writing academic genres, with comments on their wording (conciseness), informality (register), interference by second language and inappropriateness use of lexico-grammatical resources to construe meanings (Chen & Foley, 2004). Students are often required to rephrase or use a more appropriate style in such written works. In view of this, control and management of the use of nominalization in academic text is essential in constructing a concise and formal written work.

Since a very important source of problem in terms of scientificity could be the disuse of nominalization, the aim of the present study is to compare articles written by Iranian writers with those written by writers whose first language is English in terms of using nominalization in order to measure the degree of scientificity of articles written by Iranian writers.

The main questions to be investigated in this study are as follows:

1. Is there any significant difference between articles written by native and Iranian authors in use of nominalization and what are the respective frequencies?

2. Is there any significant difference between articles written by native and Iranian authors in degree of scientificity and what are the respective degrees of scientificity?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Scientific Discourse

In order to engage with a certain discourse community one must be able to use its language, i.e., its register. Scientific discourse is a functional variation of language with its own technical terminology and grammar (Halliday & Martin, 1993; Martin & Veel, 1998). Generally speaking, the scientific use of language shows itself in several ways. Among the different types of scientific texts, e.g., research presentations, theses, dissertations, short written communications, scientific letter, etc., research articles have been most frequently subject of linguistic study.

Scientific discourse, comprising "various forms of discourse in which the activities of 'doing science' are carried out" (Halliday, 2004c, p. 49), rests on the combination of "theoretical technicality with reasoned argument" (Halliday, 2004a, p.127). This is achieved through its explicit technical terminology, and its proper technical grammar.

It is also known that complexity in scientific language is achieved mainly through specific terminology and nominalization, which is part of grammatical metaphor, "in which a semantic category such as a process is realized by an atypical grammatical class such as a noun, instead of a verb" (Halliday & Martin 1993; Halliday 2004a). Nominalization "is the single most powerful resource for creating grammatical metaphor" (Halliday 2004b, p. 656). Through nominalization, processes (linguistically realized as verbs) and properties (linguistically realized, in general, as adjectives) are re-construed metaphorically as nouns, enabling an informationally dense discourse.

A typical feature of grammatical metaphor in academic written discourse is nominalization, meaning the grammatical categories are shifted to nouns from various lexicogrammar. Nominalization involves change in wording on certain occasions as well.

2.2. Nominalization

Nominalization is an aspect of complexity in written language (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). According to Eggins (1994), nominalization is the process of transferring things which are not normally nouns into nouns. Nominalization allows a process to be transformed into a more abstract phenomenon. That is to say, in languages, "the grammar packages what has gone before by nominalizing the Process (attribute or event), and making the Medium of that Process a possessive modifier" (Halliday & Martin, 1993, p. 131). For example:

The weather is constantly changing, but its changes have a definite pattern. The great reactivity of fluorine in these reactions with on-metals [is explained]……

With regards to classification of nominalization, Halliday (1994) mentions two types of nominalization, verbal nominalization (*press – pressure*) and adjectival nominalization (*hot – heat*). Additionally, Hartnett (1998) classifies five kinds of nominalization based on morphological endings:

(1) those where the verb and noun maintain the same form, also called non-zero derived de-verbal nouns (*e.g., to plan - plan*)

(2) gerunds (*e.g., to run - running*),

(3) adding a suffix to the verb (*e.g., to engage - engagement*),

(4) those from adjectives (*e.g., beautiful - beauty*),

(5) when the verb and noun have different meanings (*e.g., to birth - birthday*)

Carolyn (2004) distinguishes verb-change nominalizations into two sub-types: a nominalization by changing a verb internally (*sell – sale; live - life*) or by adding an ending such as *–al* (*portrayal*), -ance (*attendance*), -ee (*payee*), -ment (*achievement*), -tion (*recommendation*), -ure (*creature*), -y (*mastery*) and *–yst* (*analyst*).

This study investigates the two main types of nominalization: verbal and adjectival realized by the following features:

a. Non-zero derived de-verbal nouns;

b. Changing verb internally;

c. Gerunds;

d. Those from adjectives; and

e. Adding suffixes to verbs and adjectives

2.3.   Nominalization in Scientific and Technical Writing

Halliday and Martin (1993) point out that nominalization is a typical feature in scientific texts. Scientific discourse demands high degree of nominalization for two main reasons, the structure of scientific argument and the structure of scientific knowledge.

In order to demonstrate the importance and necessity of using nominalization as the chief type of grammatical metaphor in scientific discourse, Halliday (2004) considers two conditions which are required to be met in scientific theory; *technicality* and *rationality*. To justify the first condition, Halliday (2004) pointed out that "… the grammar has to create technical meanings, purely virtual phenomena that exist only on the semiotic plane" (p.123). He, then, asserts that nominal group is the most powerful resource helping manage the complexity being inherent in the scientific discourse. "The power of the nominal group is at once both grammatical (its structure potential) and semantic (the nature of entities). Thus, there is a payoff, both grammatically and semantically, for construing phenomena as nouns (Halliday, 2004, p. 124).

Through giving the example of *glass crack growth rate*, Halliday (2004, p. 35)

demonstrated how grammatical metaphor has been able to create this technical concept:

… power of nominal group is brought into play through progressive

nominalizing of the processes and qualities involved: from *glass can crack* (verb) to a *glass crack* (noun); from *glass cracks can grow* to *glass crack growth*; from *glass crack growth is faster or slower* to *glass crack growth rate* … the new noun is not simply a rewording; it is a remeaning … (p. 126). *Rationality* in science, as Halliday (2004) argues, is observed when the discourse needs to construct an argument out of a long sequence of connected steps and the previous steps may be organized as grounds for the next. " … once discourse is in motion, the Theme will typically pick up something that has gone before" (p. 125). In a chain of reasoning in scientific discourse, the Theme "… typically becomes a résumé of the argument that has gone before; and the only way to package a piece of argument so that it becomes a natural Theme of a clause is to turn it into a nominal group" .

It seems that nominalization took a remarkable role in modern science. Development of various branches of science across time, naturally led to the increased use of nominalization. According to Banks' findings, nominalizations have increased in use historically in both physical and biological

science (Banks, 2008, p. 124). Halliday (1988) also argues that science prose has shifted historically from congruent styles of expression to a dense reliance on grammatical metaphor. The following historical development which is derived from Halliday (1988) is presented:

A happens; so *x* happens

Because *a* happens, *x* happens

That *a* happens causes *x* to happen

Happening *a* causes happening *x*

Happening *a* is the cause of happening *x*

Concerning the relationship between nominalization and scientific writing, nominalization was defined by Wang (2010) as a process whereby a verb or an adjective is transformed into a nominal group. He says: In English, some verbs and adjectives can be used directly as nouns, for example, "record" and "musical" (as in Broadway musical), while others require some form of morphological transformation requiring a suffix. For example, "nominalization" from "nominalize", "information" from "inform", "investigation" from "investigate", "difficulty" from "difficult", "hardness" from "hard", and so on. When a verb is nominalized, it becomes a concept rather than an action. These examples of nominalization which are derived from Wang (2010) followed by his analysis, can help to understand some characteristics of academic writing which are the results of the use of nominalization.

Example1:

 (1) The city government *has decided* to widen the road through this neighborhood. This has upset the local residents.

(2) The city government's *decision* to widen the main road though this neighborhood has upset the local residents.

The 2 clauses in Example1 show that clause (1) contains 2 clauses. With the nominalization "decision" in clause (2), the 2 clauses join together to become a single clause which packs in several complex abstract ideas and, this is the characteristic of academic writing. When a verb or an adjective is transformed into a noun, with or without morphological transformation, the word can now act as the head of a noun phrase. The following is another example from Cox (1994), which shows another characteristic of academic writing.

Example 2:

(1) a. The driver *drove* the bus too fast down the hill, so the *brakes failed*. (Congruent form)

b. *The driver's over rapid downhill driving* of the bus caused *brake failure*. (Metaphorical form)

So according to above mentioned examples, it can be concluded that nominalization reduces the number of clauses to make more information be compressed into each nominal (noun) group which enables an academic writer to concisely refer to recurring abstract ideas, a single sentence to pack in several complex abstract ideas.

2.4. Recent Corpus-Based Studies

Holtz (2010) made a quantitative analysis of instances of nominalization in a corpus of research articles. Emphasis was given to the discussion of the use of nominalization in abstracts and research articles, across corpora and domains. The corpus under study consisted of 94 research articles from several scientific journals in English of the disciplines of computer science, linguistics, biology, and mechanical engineering, comprising over 420,000 words. The results indicated that nominalization occurs much more often in abstracts than in research articles, and that the difference in this occurrence is statistically significant. Moreover, abstracts generally showed a much wider vocabulary range concerning the use of nominalizations than their research articles.

Sayfouri (2010) compared the medical articles written and published by native and non-native authors and published in English and American journals on the one hand and in those published in Iran in terms of Swales' (1990) moves analysis as well as grammatical metaphor. The analytic results of Move analysis phase revealed that the two groups of Iranian articles employed significantly fewer numbers of Sub-moves in their Introduction sections compared to English-American articles.

Wenyan (2012) carried out a formal comparative analysis of medical papers written by native English writers and those by Chinese academic writers in terms of three aspects of nominalizations, lexical density and thematic progression. The result revealed that the Chinese writers do not often use nominalization in medical papers while native writers of English use a high proportion of nominalization which greatly enhances the fluency and coherence of their papers.

Tabrizi and Nabifar (2013) compared health and political texts of English newspapers in terms of using nominalization. Five political and five health texts of famous English newspapers were considered to find out how many instances of nominalization were used in both genres and what the respective frequencies are. It was found that there were 260 instances of nominalization in the political texts and 241 instances of nominalization in health texts. Although the nominalized

processes were used in both political and health texts, the percentage of ideational grammatical metaphor in health texts was less than the political texts. In other word, the frequency of such patterns seems to increase when one moves from health texts to political texts.

3. Method

3.1. The Corpus

Teaching journals may contain different types of articles including, Research

Articles, Review Articles, Editorials, etc. The corpus of this study consists of only the Research Articles in English, having the standard IMRD (Introduction,

Methods, Results, and Discussion) structure published in group A (two journals for native articles) and group B (two journals for Iranian articles) (Table 1) between 2009 and 2013 in order to see the development of use of nominalization over time as well. The criteria for journal selection were representativeness, reputation and accessibility.

Table 1 *The Selected Journals and Their Related URLs*

Journal Type	The selected Journals	The Related URL
Group A: Native articles	*Language Teaching (Cambridge Journals)(LT)*	http://journals.cambridge.org/ action/login (last retrieved, August 2013)
	ELT Journal (Oxford Journals) (ELT)	http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/ (last retrieved, August 2013)
Group B: Iranian articles	*The Iranian EFL Journal (IEFL)*	http://www.iranian-efl-journal.com/ (last retrieved, August 2013) http://asian-efl-journal.com/
	The Asian EFL Journal (AEFL)Quarterly	(last retrieved, August 2013)

3. 2. The Samples of the Study

The samples of the study consisted of 30 full English teaching journal articles (Appendix) comprising over 150,000 words and categorized into two groups: Natives and Iranians articles. Each group consisted of 15 articles. To compile this corpus, fifteen research articles in the field of English teaching written by native authors and another fifteen research articles in the same field written by Iranian authors were randomly selected from related journals (see Table 1). Before

performing random samples selection, it was first necessary to have an easy access to the articles which were regarded as the corpus of the study. To do so, all the articles (Research Articles) of the 4 journals (see Table 1) published within the period specified above were listed in two separate groups for each year. That is, articles in group A and those in group B were listed in two different groups for each year. Next, each qualified article in each group was given a unique number. In the next step, each set of articles (15 articles) was randomly selected over a period of 5 years from 2009 to 2013. That is, each 6 articles-3 written by natives and 3 written by Iranians- was randomly selected from a given year from 2009 to 2013- 6 articles from 2009, 6 articles from 2010, …, and the last 6 articles from 2013. The numbers of the listed articles of the journals differed due to the variety in the publication frequency of the journals. The corpus of the present study, therefore, comprised 401 articles, including 280 from IEFL, 15 from AEFL, 73 from LT and 33 from ELT. Articles were selected by means of *Stattrek Random Number Generator* which was available online at http://stattrek.com/Tables/Random.aspx (last retrieved, September 2013). Random sampling was carried out 10 times for the 4 types of the journals to select 15 articles from each set of journal.

3.3. Procedure

First, the two corpora, that is, the corpus of research articles written by native authors and the one written by Iranian authors were complied and annotated for the instances of the two main types of nominalization mentioned in chapter 2, i.e. verbal and adjectival nominalizations. That is, instances of nominalization were identified, extracted and counted. Searching for, identifying and counting of instances of nominalization were done manually. After obtaining all the occurrences of nominalization and the total number of words in each article, a frequency ratio was then calculated (number of occurrence/total number of words) for each article. In the next step, calculated frequency ratio in each article was normalized per 1,000 words to be applied in statistical tests and analyses for comparison.

3.4. Data Analysis

This is a corpus-based study that has only one variable. The use of nominalization which is the variable of the study will be measured across the articles written by native and Iranian authors for the purpose of making a comparison between them.

The corpus was compiled, pre-processed, and annotated for nominalization instances. Emphasis was given to the analysis and discussion of the use of nominalization in native and Iranian articles

across corpora using tabulation of data, figures and diagrams. The researcher utilized the Microsoft Office Excel for the calculation of the research. The data collected were processed using SPSS software version 16.0 to analyze the descriptive and inferential statistics. The data analysis was carried out in two parts. In one part, the number of instances of nominalization in all the fifteen articles written by native authors was compared with its counterpart written by Iranian authors. In the other part, the natives' articles were compared with those of Iranians in use of nominalization in each year from 2009 to 2013 separately. In other words, each three articles written by native authors was compared with the three articles of the same year written by Iranian authors in order to measure and compare their use of nominalization for the purpose of finding and contrasting their degrees of scientificity.

4. Results

4.1. Data Analysis

According to questions of the study following null hypotheses were posed: 1. There is no significant difference regarding the use of nominalization between articles written by native and Iranian authors.2. There is no significant difference regarding the degree of scientificity between articles written by native and Iranian authors. The frequency of nominalization in each article was obtained through the division of nominalization by the total words in the whole text. They were then normalized per 1,000 words to be more tangible and understandable. A frequency of 56, for example, means that nominalization occurs 56 times every 1,000 words.

In year 2009, frequency of nominalization in the three articles by native writers as a whole is 237 which is more than that in articles by Iranian writers which is 234. In 2010, this amount is 216 in articles by native writers compared to 195 in those by Iranian writers which is again more. In 2011, the frequency in articles by native writers is 208 which is fewer than the frequency in those by Iranian writers, namely 232. Frequency of nominalization in articles by native writers and Iranian ones in 2012 is 287 and 271 respectively showing more instances of nominalization in articles by natives once more. Finally in 2013, comparing 262 for articles by native writers with 266 for those by Iranian writers shows more use of nominalization by native writers. In all articles as a whole, the native writers used more nominalization than Iranian writers did, i.e., 1200 as opposed to 1198.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were applied to describe and summarize the different sets of data. These statistics are presented in Table 2 Frequency of verbal nominalization in articles by native writers is 1070 and that of adjectival one is 130 which are respectively 89.2% and 10.8% of the total frequency of nominalization, i.e. 1200 in this set of articles. Frequency of verbal nominalization in articles by Iranian writers is 1088 and that of adjectival one is 110 which are respectively 90.8% and 9.2% of the total frequency of nominalization, i.e. 1198 in this set of articles. An approximate comparison showed that despite the more frequency in articles by native writers, the difference is very trivial. However in order to exactly answer the questions of the study, inferential statistics were needed.

Table 2 *Descriptive Statistics of Native-Iranian Nominalization*

| | | | Nominalization | | |
			Verbal	Adjectival	Total
Native-Iranian	Native	Count	1070	130	1200
		Expected Count	1079.9	120.1	1200.0
		% within Native-Iranian	89.2%	10.8%	100.0%
		% within Nominalization	49.6%	54.2%	50.0%
		% of Total	44.6%	5.4%	50.0%
	Iranian	Count	1088	110	1198
		Expected Count	1078.1	119.9	1198.0
		% within Native-Iranian	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%
		% within Nominalization	50.4%	45.8%	50.0%
		% of Total	45.4%	4.6%	50.0%
Total		Count	2158	240	2398
		Expected Count	2158.0	240.0	2398.0
		% within Native-Iranian	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%
		% within Nominalization	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%

4.3. Inferential Statistics

In order to answer the first question of the study, that is, to see what difference is between articles written by native and Iranian authors in use of nominalization, chi squares were run to test the first hypothesis in the different years and in all corpora as a whole.

The chi squares of use of nominalization in corpora as a whole was not significant (df=1, phi value = .02, p = .17>.05). Pearson Chi-Square is also very low (1.815). It means that difference between articles by native writers and those by Iranian writers in use of nominalization was not significant. Tables 3, 4 and Figure 1 illustrate these statistics.

Table 3 *Inferential statistics of Native-Iranian Nominalization (Chi-Square Tests)*

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.815[a]	1	.178		
Continuity Correction[b]	1.636	1	.201		
Likelihood Ratio	1.817	1	.178		
Fisher's Exact Test				.196	.100
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.814	1	.178		
N of Valid Cases[b]	2398				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 119.90.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

Table 4 *Symmetric Measures*

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	-.028	.178
Cramer's V	.028	.178
N of Valid Cases	2398	

Bar Chart
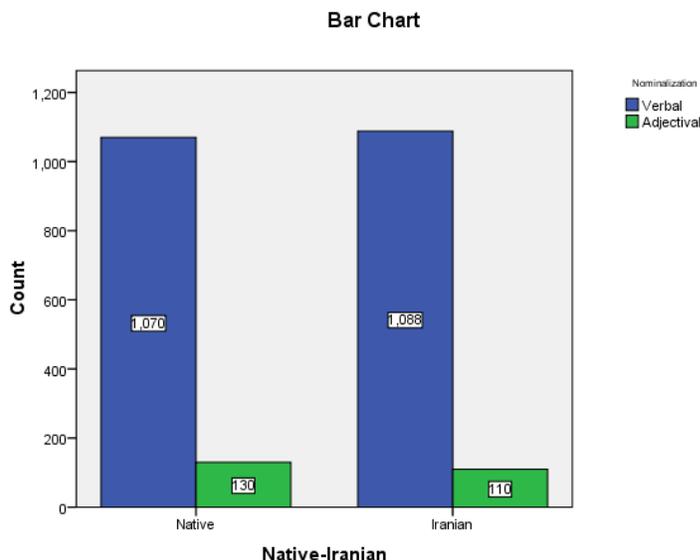
Figure 1. Use of nominalization in articles by native and Iranian writers from 2009 to 2013.

Statistics obtained from comparing the articles in different years showed that the difference between articles by native and Iranian writers was not significant in any of 5 years. In 2009, df=1, phi value= .04 and $p = .37>.05$

In 2010, the difference was not significant either, df=1, phi value= .08, $p = .07>.05$.

In 2011, there was again no difference regarding use of nominalization between articles by native writers and Iranian ones, df=1, phi value= .02, $p = .60>.05$. This is depicted in Figure 4 which follows.

The difference regarding use of nominalization between articles by native writers and Iranian ones was significant neither in 2012, df=1, phi value= .04, $p = .36>.05$ nor in 2013, df=1, phi value= .03, $p = .37>.05$.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

As already mentioned, the goal of the present study was to compare articles written by native authors with those by Iranian authors in use of nominalization. It was mentioned before that frequency of nominalization in articles by native writers in years 2009, 2010, 2012 and in the corpus as a whole exceeds those by Iranian writers. It was also said that the frequency in 2011 and 2013 in articles by native writers is fewer than those by Iranian ones. However, the aforementioned

statistics proved no significant difference between the two corpora. Therefore, the first null hypothesis could not be rejected and proved right. It means that Iranian writers use as many nominalization instances in their articles as native writers do. Therefore the first hypothesis of the study which hypothesized that there is a significant difference in use of nominalization between articles written by native and Iranian authors was rejected and couldn't prove right. This hypothesis could neither prove right in any of 5 years from 2009 to 2013. According to Table 2, the frequency for articles by natives is 1210/15= 81and for those by Iranian writers is 1198/15= 80 which are very close to each other.

This study seems to support Sayfouri (2010) study comparing the medical articles written and published by native and non-native authors and published in English and American journals on the one hand and in those published in Iran in terms of Swales' (1990) moves analysis as well as grammatical metaphor. The results indicated that the two groups employed the grammatical metaphor types with a similar pattern of ranking order as well as similar proportions of nominalization.

Findings of Wenyan (2012) carrying out a formal comparative analysis of medical papers written by native English writers and those by Chinese academic writers in terms of three aspects of nominalizations, lexical density and thematic progression is in contrast with those of this study. The result of Wenyan (2012) study revealed that the Chinese writers do not often use nominalization in medical papers while native writers of English use a high proportion of nominalization which greatly enhances the fluency and coherence of their papers.

The present study showed that in both corpora, that is to say, both sets of articles by native and Iranian writers, verbal nominalization was used much more than adjectival nominalization. According to Table 2, verbal nominalization was used 90% while it was 10% for adjectival nominalization. This result is in line with Vinh To, Thao Le, Quynh Le (2013) from the university of Tasmania, Australia, making a comparative study of nominalization in IELTS writing test papers.

Regarding the second hypothesis of the study saying that there is a significant difference in degree of scientificity between articles written by native and Iranian authors, we need to restate Halliday (2004) and Halliday and Martin (1993) that "a typical characteristic of scientific discourse is the use of nominalization, where verbs and adjectives are metaphorically re-construed as nouns". Since scientific discourse is a highly nominalized register, the more an article uses nominalization,

the more scientific the discourse of that article will be. According to the result for the first hypothesis showing that there was no significant difference in use of nominalization between articles written by native and Iranian authors, we came to the conclusion that the second null hypothesis could neither be rejected. It means that there is no significant difference in degree of scientificity between articles written by native authors on one hand and Iranian authors on the other hand. It is also found that both natives and Iranians use much more verbal nominalization than adjectival ones in their articles.

Since "research articles are the preeminent type of scientific discourse" (Hyland, 2009) having a good command of English writing seems to be necessary for researchers. Of the two productive skills, writing is considered more complicated and difficult for lea rners to acquire since it is a complex process of using grammar structures in order to co nvey the writers' ideas effectively (Byrne, 1988). Moreover, people acquire the spoken la nguage (at least their own mother tongue) intuitively whereas the written form is in most cases deliberately taught and learned. In writing, the content is presented much more de nsely while the information in speech tends to be sparser (Byrne, 1988). Although the results of this study do not support the significant difference in use of nominalization between articles by native and Iranian writers and, Iranian writers use as much nominalization as native writers do, it doesn't lower the value and importance of the phenomenon of nominalization and its effects on the scientificity of discourse of articles. Thus, developing students' awareness of nominalisation in academic writing is crucial in Englishteaching.It helps students to be aware of the gra mmatical complexity of language and how the language works to pack meanings in sente nces. As recognized in academic writing and scientific discourse, nominalization heavily a ffects the register of text, so teaching this concept to students will help them adjust their writing style. Furthermore, students who are able to use nominalization will make their writing more coherent, concise, and formal and it benefits them in different ways in aca demic writing and tests. Thus, teaching nominalization should receive greater attention in English teaching curriculum. This study shed light on the importance and role of nominalization in scientificity of technical writing and also draws students and EFL teachers' attention to this issue. Gaining insight on how scientific disciplinary discourse is linguistically realized allows a better understanding of its discourse community and, as a consequence, of the social interactions within this community, which is expressed ultimately through language.

Considering the results, another implication of the current study is that despite the important role of nominalization in scientificity of article discourse, since the result revealed that Iranian writers use as much nominalization as native writers in their articles, EFL teachers should take into account the other aspects and characteristics of scientific discourse in their writing classes and should not put extra time and effort on teaching nominalization.

It is also worth mentioning that the use of adjectival nominalization (9.2% for Iranian articles & 10.8% for native ones) was much less than verbal one (90.8% for Iranian articles & 89.2% for native ones) in both corpora especially in Iranian corpus. It shows that adjectival nominalization should be taken into more consideration by students, EFL teachers and material developers of technical writing.

In order to linguistically compare research articles by native and Iranian writers more extensively, further linguistic investigation is needed. This study examined and compared only one of the characteristics of grammatical metaphor and scientific discourse, i.e. nominalization. Since registers can be seen as typical settings of linguistic features, which have a greater-than-random tendency to occur (Halliday and Martin 1993, p. 54), there could be other numerous future studies on the quantitative analysis of several other linguistic features typical of scientific registers, in this case, natives' articles in comparison to Iranians' ones.

In order to display a more profound description of Iranian teaching articles, further quantitative/qualitative studies should be conducted to scrutinize their uses of meta-discourse markers, paragraph development, fluency, etc. Such studies can further manifest if the articles published in international journals are truly more valuable than those published in local journals. The same research can also be done comparing articles of other Iranian and native journals, for example ISI and non-ISI journals.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix:

List of the Articles (30 Samples of the Study)

1. **Native Articles**

ELT 1: Can a graded reader corpus provide 'authentic' input? Volume 63, Issue 1, January 2009.

ELT 2: Pragmatics, awareness raising, and the Cooperative Principle. Volume 64, Issue 3, July 2010.

ELT 3: The listening log: motivating autonomous learning. Volume 64, Issue 4, October 2010.

ELT 4: Learner self-assessment: an investigation into teachers' beliefs. Volume 65, Issue 2, April 2011.

ELT 5: Today's teaching, tomorrow's text: exploring the teaching of reading. Volume 65, Issue 2, April 2011.

ELT 6: Learner code-switching versus English only. Volume 66, Issue 3, July 2012.

ELT 7: A basic starter pack': the TESOL certificate as a course in survival. Volume 67, Issue 2, April 2013.

ELT 8: Writing is a way of knowing': writing and identity. Volume 67, Issue 3, July 2013.

ELT 9: Online collaborative learning on an ESL teacher education programme. Volume 67, Issue 4, October 2013.

LT 1: Second language acquisition by low-literate learners: An under-studied population. Issue 43, Issue 1, March 2009.

LT 2: Recent developments in language assessment and the case of four large-scale tests of ESOL ability. Volume 42, Issue 1, January 2009.

LT 3: Second language acquisition, teacher education and language pedagogy. Volume 43, Issue 2, April 2010.

LT 4: The foundations of accent and intelligibility in pronunciation research. Volume 44, Issue 3, July 2011.

LT 5: Materials development for language learning and teaching. Volume 45, Issue 2, March 2012.

LT 6: Own-language use in language teaching and learning. Volume 45, Issue 3, July 2012.

Iranian Articles

IEFL 1: The impacts of teacher self-disclosure on the speaking ability of EFL Learners. Volume 3, March 2009.

IEFL 2: The place of information technology in second language teaching in girl's high schools and private English institutes in Shiraz. Volume 4, September 2009.

IEFL 3: Examining the relationship between Iranian non-native English teachers' use of communication strategies and context types within Iranian EFL classrooms. Volume 5, December 2009.

IEFL 4: Dialogical interaction in formal and informal contexts: a study in an EFL situation. Volume 6, Issue 1, March 2010.

IEFL 5: On the possible relationships between multiple intelligences, listening proficiency and motivational orientation among Iranian TEFL university students. Volume 6, Issue 2, June 2010.

IEFL 6: Which learner speaks better interactively motivated or instrumentally motivated. Volume 6, Issue 4, December 2010.

IEFL 7: The relationship between Reid's learning styles and oxford's language learning strategies in adult EFL learners of Iran language institute. Volume 7, Issue 4, August 2011**.**

IEFL 8: The effect of autonomous CALL based task on speaking skill. Volume 8, Issue 2 April 2012.

IEFL 9: The relationship between learning styles and vocabulary recall of EFL learners. Volume 8, Issue 6, December 2012.

IEFL 10: The effect of task type on learning English collocations. Volume 9, Issue 1, February 2013.

IEFL 11: The effect of task-based language teaching accompanied by songs on Iranian EFL learners' learning l2 grammar and their attitudes. Volume 9, Issue 2, April 2013.

AEFL 1: The impact of phonetic instruction on Iranian students' listening ability enhancement. Volume 52, Issue 2, May 2011.

AEFL 2: Using improvisational exercises for increasing speaking and listening skills. Volume 52, Issue 2, May 2011.

AEFL 3: Word knowledge: aspects, viewpoints and performances. Volume 14, Issue 3, September 2012.

AEFL 4: The effect of using self-correction of mistakes in online text-based Conversation on EFL learners' oral proficiency. Volume 15, Issue 1, March 2013.

Title

The Effects of Free Writing on Writing Fluency of Intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) Learners

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Abstract

The present study aimed at investigating the effect of free writing on writing fluency of intermediate EFL learners and their attitudes toward free writing. To these ends, 30 homogenous intermediate female EFL learners, studying at Kish Institute were randomly divided into an experimental group, who experienced free writing which was to write non-stop for fifteen minutes in the beginning of each session and, a control group, who did not do free writing and received only a regular class instruction based on their course book. Data was collected through pre- and post-tests of writing and a questionnaire. Writing fluency was measured regarding, 'the number of words written per minute (wpm)', the average number of 'words', 'clauses', and 'T-units'. One-way ANOVA results revealed that experimental group outperformed the control group in all indicators of writing fluency at the end of the twenty-one sessions of treatment. Moreover, experimental group expressed a positive attitude toward free writing. It can be concluded that in order to improve writing fluency of intermediate EFL learners and in order to create positive

attitudes toward L2 writing in them, free writing technique can be applied by EFL teachers, in EFL classrooms.

Keywords: Attitude, EFL, Free writing, Writing fluency

1. Introduction

In recent years, on one side, free writing has been applied as a useful technique both in L1 and L2 contexts which, according to some researchers (e.g., Hillocks, 1986; Li, 2007), increases motivation and confidence of the learners in writing. On the other side, fluency has recently been considered as a significant component in L2 writing. In fact, in most of the EFL classrooms, the focus is on accuracy and error correction in writing. One factor which negatively influences on L2 writing can be error correction through giving score and focusing strictly on form which reduce self-confidence and increase anxiety of L2 learners (Heaton & Pray, 1982; Lee, 2008). Moreover, according to Jones (2007), between fluency and confidence, there lies a strong relationship.

Many studies have investigated free writing in L1 instruction (e.g., Bintz, 2000; Lannin, 2007; Li, 2007). However, few researchers investigated the effects of free writing on writing fluency of EFL or ESL learners (e.g., AHwang, 2010; Chenoweth and Hayes, 2001; Jude, 1999). In addition, the major shortcomings of the studies which were concerned with the effect of free writing on writing fluency were that they did not have any control group and they considered 'average number of words' or 'words per minute' as the only indicators for measuring writing fluency. Furthermore, although in the Iranian EFL context, there are some studies which have indirectly applied free writing (e.g., Abdolmanafi-Rokni & Seifi, 2013; Meraji & Sadighi, 2013), up to the present time, no study has directly investigated the effects of free writing on L2 writing.

Accordingly, the present study addresses the following research questions:

1. Does free writing technique significantly improve the writing fluency of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

2. What are Iranian intermediate EFL learners' attitudes toward free writing technique?

The null hypothesis formulated for research question number 1 is: Free writing technique does not significantly improve the writing fluency of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1 Free Writing

Free writing, according to Hillocks (1986), is rooted in the early seventies. Moreover, as Piovesan (2007) argues, "Free writing reached its peak of popularity during the neo-progressive movement of the late 1960s and early 1970s when experimentation in new methods and content of English instruction was widespread" (pp. 18-19). In addition, free writing was originally advocated by Elbow (1973, 1989, 1998a, 1998b).

Regarding the features of free writing, as Thomas (1989) maintains, the main features of the technique are "concentration on content, unlimited choice of form and rapid, uninterrupted writing" (p. 6). Moreover, according to Hillocks (1986), in free writing, the students are not given topics, and what they write is usually not graded. In addition, in Lannin's (2007) view, in free writing, the writer writes freely any words about the topics, without being afraid of grading and without any self-censorship.

Regarding the different types of free writing, according to Thomas (1989), there are two types: pure free writing and focused free writing. Thomas further explains that, in pure free writing, the instructor does not give any topic and students write about whatever they want; while in focused free writing, students are given unique topics about which to write freely. Free writing is also known as a technique to increase verbal fluency and confidence (Elbow, 1998b; Lannin, 2007). Moreover, Jacobs (1986) believes that, students do not think that their writing is not good enough, while they do free writing. So students write with self-confidence in free writing.

Considering the studies conducted on free writing in EFL and ESL contexts, Briere (1966) reported the positive effects of using free writing in L2 context. He concluded that free writing can help L2 learners, especially intermediate students, to develop their writing quantity or fluency. Jude (1999) also investigated free writing and applied it on high-beginner to advanced English learners. He found out that students could write more by the end of ten weeks of free writing and they enjoyed writing instead of being afraid of making mistakes. Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) also investigated the effects of free writing on writing fluency of college L1 and L2 students in EFL classrooms, using a think aloud protocol. The result revealed that free writing could increase students' writing fluency, as well as, their flexible thinking. Additionally, Piovesan (2005) conducted a case study in a Brazilian classroom on the importance of free writing in EFL context. She concluded that the most effective way for L2 students is free writing and it can help to overcome the sense of block. Moreover, AHwang (2010) conducted a case study about the positive effect of free writing on writing fluency and confidence of EFL college level students. The study

revealed that guided free writing had a significant influence on improving the students' writing fluency. However, as it was mentioned earlier, all of the mentioned studies lacked any control group.

In Iranian contexts, as mentioned earlier, free writing was also indirectly utilized by some researchers. As such, Abdolmanafi-Rokni and Seifi (2013) examined the effect of dialogue journal writing on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. The participants in their experimental group did free writing with an emphasis on fluency. As another example, the relationship between reading short stories and the writing proficiency of Iranian EFL learners was examined by Meraji and Sadighi (2013). In that, two writing tests (a pre-test and a post-test) were given to all the students. The first part of the pre-test and post-test included free writing section, in which two topics were given to the student and they were asked to choose one of the topics and write freely about it.

2.2 Writing Fluency

Since, fluency is considered as subjective, the attitudes of different researchers differ in defining it. According to Brown (1994), fluency is saying or writing a steady flow of language for a short period of time, without any correction. In Jones' (2007) view, fluency is "being able to express yourself despite the gaps in your knowledge, despite the mistakes you're making, despite not knowing all the vocabulary you might need" (p. 18). Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) believe that when a person produces grammatically correct sentences and when he has accuracy, he may not have the ability to speak or write fluently. Moreover, in Jones' (2007) view, "students can't be expected to express themselves fluently, without making mistakes, at the same time" (p. 19).

Considering the literature in the field of measuring writing fluency, fluency is usually considered in terms of composing rate which is a measure of how much students write (Abdel Latif, 2008). In addition, according to Wolfe Quintero, Inagaki, and Kim (1998), when a person is fluent, he produces more structures and more words in a limited period of time, whereas a lack of fluency means that only a few structures or words are produced by him. Moreover, in VanderMolen's (2011) view, writing fluency is "a measure of the number of words or structural units that a writer is able to produce, in a given period of time" (p. 19).

Regarding the studies conducted on writing fluency in EFL and ESL contexts, Chenoweth and Hayes (2001), in a think-aloud protocol study with native speakers of English who were learning French or German, explored the relationship between writing fluency and linguistic experience and provided information about the processes involved in written text composition. Their analysis

revealed that increasing writer's experience with the language leads to fluency increase. Also, the positive effect of dialogue journals on writing fluency, reflections, anxiety and motivation of the forty-one 10th-grade students in Taiwan was investigated by Liao and Wong (2007). The study's findings showed that the dialogue journal writing project improved the students' writing fluency; and thus, they could write more. Furthermore, in ESL context, a study was done by VanderMolen (2011), on the use of dialogue journals on writing fluency of low-literacy adult Somali students. Despite the up-and-down fluctuation of word counts, each student's number of words per entry increased in sixteen sessions, as the weeks progressed.

The major shortcomings and gaps of the mentioned studies conducted on writing fluency were to measure writing fluency regarding only the 'average number of words' or 'words written per minute', without taking into account 'clauses' or 'T-units'. And regarding the studies conducted on free writing, they lacked control group.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The present study was carried out at Kish English Institute in Rasht, Iran. After the administration of proficiency test, 30 homogenous intermediate female students were selected and divided into two groups, each group including 15 students. The range of their age was from 16 to 24. Moreover, the course-book taught for both experimental and control group was 'Total English' and the classes for both groups were held 3 times a week and lasted for 90 minutes, each session.

3.2 Instrumentation

There were three main instruments used in the present study. First, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used to determine the homogeneity of the learners. This was a quick placement test from Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, which included 60 multiple choice questions. Another instrument was a list of topics which was given to the experimental group (see appendix A). Topics were chosen considering students' interests and age and they were generally taken from the book '501 Writing Prompts' (2003). Finally, a designed and piloted Attitude Questionnaire was utilized in the present study. The questionnaire was validated through pilot study with EFL learners similar to the main participants of the study. Using Chronbach's Coefficient alpha, the internal reliability of the questionnaire was reported to be .79 ($p < .05$). Moreover, in order to check the validity of the questionnaire, two university professors

teaching TEFL courses closely examined it. They provided the researcher with some recommendations about its structure, items and also scales. After making the necessary changes, the professors agreed that it was suitable for the purpose of the present study. In addition, to prevent students' misconceptions, the researcher translated the items of the questionnaires into the student's L1 (i.e. Persian).

3.3 Procedure

In the first session, since the researcher was not the teacher of both groups, the researcher informed the students about the aim of the study. Then, the (OPT) was given to 52 EFL learners at Kish Institution. In the second session, the results of the proficiency test were announced and 30 homogenous intermediate students were selected. Next, they were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups, including 15 students in each group. In the same session, both groups took the pre-test. In the pre-test, the students were provided with two topics namely, 'write about your friends' and 'write about your favorite books' and they were asked to choose one of them and write for 20 minutes about the selected topic. Then, in the following sessions, the treatment was done for experimental group for twenty-one sessions, during which they were asked to do free writing. The control group did not do any free writing each session and received only a regular class instruction. They followed their course book which did not include any free writing. In the beginning of each session, the participants in experimental group were given a list of topics to choose one. After a five-minute short discussion about the chosen topic, they were asked to do free writing and to write about whatever they liked about the topic. They had to write non-stop for 15 minutes, without making corrections, without being hesitant about the errors, mistakes, punctuations, formal English and without being afraid of the grades. In addition, they were told that their papers were not supposed to be corrected or evaluated in terms of form but they were supposed to be read and commented in terms of the content. They were also not allowed to use any dictionary for looking up the words and were asked not to use any eraser. Furthermore, they were said not to go back to see what they wrote while writing. Also, when they did not have anything to write, they were asked to repeat writing 'I do not know what to write', until an idea came to their mind about the topic.

During the time that experimental group's participants were writing, the researcher observed them carefully in order to be sure that they were not correcting, not changing what they had written, not going back to see what they had written and not using any dictionary or eraser. The researcher

also warned them about the time remaining. About the feedback, when the papers of experimental group were collected each session, the researcher gave the papers back in the following session, with a short written comment only on the content of their writing. The aim was to assure the learners that they had audience for what they wrote. In the 24rd session, both experimental and control groups were taken the post-test, in that they were again given two topics, named 'write about your family members' and 'write about your favorite films or serials' and they were asked to choose one to write. Finally, in order to investigate the experimental group's attitudes toward free writing, the attitude questionnaire was distributed among the students and they were also asked to write freely their comments about free writing, in the final section of the attitude questionnaire.

3.4 Design of the Study

The present study made use of a 'Pre-test post-test control group design'. Assigning the students into control and experimental group, as well as, determining which group would be the experimental group were decided randomly.

3.5 Data Analysis

In this study writing fluency was measured using Chenoweth and Hayes' (2001) measurement of writing fluency, 'the number of words per minute'. In addition, average number of 'words', 'clauses', and 'T-units' were used to measure writing fluency, based on Wigglesworth and Storch's (2009) study. Also, for identification of clauses, T-units and words in the present study, Polio's (1997, pp. 138-140) study was consulted. In fact, in order to count the T-units, clauses and words, the formal accuracy such as grammar and spelling were not taken into account provided that they did not prevent understanding the meaning of the sentences. Each essay in the pre-test and post-test were checked two times. The intra-rater reliability was examined using Pearson Product-moment correlation. The reliability for the pre and post-test was reported to be ($r = .84$, $p < .05$), and ($r = 87.5$, $p < .05$), respectively. In addition, One-way ANOVA was used for analyzing students' pre-posttests of writing. Finally, the frequency counts and percentages were used in order to analyze the results of the attitude questionnaire.

4. Results

4.1 Result of OPT (proficiency test)

Table 1 expresses the descriptive statistics for OPT scores of the students in the control and experimental groups. It shows the mean, standard deviation, as well as, standard error of the means

for each group, respecively. To demonstrate that there is not a significant difference between the control and experimental groups, regarding their language proficiency, Table 2 also shows the results of Independent Samples t-test. As shown in Table 2, the p-value of Levene's test is greater than .05, which is our assumed alpha level; thus, it is implied that variences are equal. It can be realized that there is not a significant difference between control and experimental groups regarding their English language proficiency, since the level of significance (two-tailed) is .139, which is greater than 0.05 (p >.05).

Table 1 *Descriptive Statistics for OPT*

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OPT scores	control group	15	35.93	2.576	.665
	experimental group	15	35.93	3.283	.848

Table 2

Independent Samples T-test for OPT

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference		Lower	Upper
OPT scores	Equal variances assumed	2.320	.139	.000	28	1.000	.000	1.078		-2.207	2.207
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	2.65	1.000	.000	1.078		-2.213	2.213

4.2 Results of Pre-test

In Table 3, the descriptive statistics, including mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the means for each of the four measures of writing fluency in the pre-test are presented. And, Table 4

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Writing Fluency in Pre-test

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
words. pre	control	15	193.33	30.371	7.842	176.51	210.15	136	248
	experimental	15	192.67	43.829	11.317	168.40	216.94	115	288
	Total	30	193	37.051	6.765	179.17	206.83	115	288
wpm. pre	Control	15	9.66	1.51854	.39208	8.8257	10.5076	6.80	12.40
	experimental	15	9.55	2.20817	.57015	8.3338	10.7795	5.65	14.35
	Total	30	9.605	1.86287	.34011	8.9161	10.3073	5.65	14.35
clauses. pre	control	15	30.13	7.772	2.007	25.83	34.44	19	41
	experimental	15	31.87	8.991	2.321	26.89	36.85	18	51
	Total	30	31.00	8.305	1.516	27.90	34.10	18	51
T-units. pre	control	15	20.07	6.486	1.675	16.47	23.66	12	32
	experimental	15	21.40	6.727	1.737	17.67	25.13	12	34
	Total	30	20.735	6.528	1.192	18.30	23.17	12	34

shows the results of ANOVA test for writing fluency in the pre-test. As is shown in Table 4, there were not any significance differences between the two groups regarding 'average number of words' (sig=.962, F=.002, p>.05), 'words per minute' (sig=.875, F=.025, p>.05), 'average number of clauses' (sig=.577, F=.319, p>.05), and also 'average number of T-units' (sig=.585, F=.305, p>.05). In other words, there is not any difference between the performance of the experimental and control groups in terms of writing fluency, in the pre-test.

Table 4

Results of ANOVA Test for Writing Fluency in Pre-test

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
words. pre	Between Groups	3.333	1	3.333	.002	.962
	Within Groups	39806.667	28	1421.667		
	Total	39810.000	29			
wpm. pre	Between Groups	.091	1	.091	.025	.875
	Within Groups	100.548	28	3.591		
	Total	100.638	29			
clauses. pre	Between Groups	22.533	1	22.533	.319	.577
	Within Groups	1977.467	28	70.624		
	Total	2000.000	29			
T-units. pre	Between Groups	13.333	1	13.333	.305	.585
	Within Groups	1222.533	28	43.662		
	Total	1235.867	29			

4.3 Results of Post-test

Table 5 illustrates descriptive statistics for all the four measures of writing fluency in the post-test. Moreover, Table 6 shows the results of ANOVA test for writing fluency in post-tests. As is indicated in Table 6, regarding 'average number of words', the p-value is (p= .000) which is less than .05(sig=.000, F=34.99, p<.05), for 'words per minute' (sig=.000, F=35.42, p<.05), with respect to 'average number of clauses' (sig=.000, F=2.257 , p<.05) and considering 'average number of T-units' (sig=.002, F=1.222, p<.05). In other words, experimental group outperformed control group in all aspects of the writing fluency.

Table 5 *Descriptive Statistics for Writing Fluency in Post-test*

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
words. post	control	15	194.2	33.248	8.585	175.79	212.61	125	260
	experimental	15	319.33	74.879	19.334	277.87	360.80	195	500
	Total	30	256.76	85.381	15.588	224.88	288.65	125	500
wpm. post	control	15	9.710	1.66242	.42924	8.7894	10.6306	6.25	13.00
	experimental	15	15.99	3.73786	.96511	13.9267	18.0666	9.75	25.00
	Total	30	12.85	4.27789	.78103	11.2559	14.4507	6.25	25.00
clauses. post	control	15	29.80	7.457	1.925	25.67	33.93	18	42
	experimental	15	48.87	13.637	3.521	41.31	56.42	26	75
	Total	30	39.33	14.514	2.650	33.91	44.75	18	75
T-units. post	control	15	20.73	5.994	1.548	17.41	24.05	12	31
	experimental	15	32.47	11.057	2.855	26.34	38.59	17	54
	Total	30	26.6	10.719	1.990	22.34	30.49	12	54

In addition, in order to have a clearer description of the results, they are illustrated in the following figures. As shown in Figures 1 and 2, the improvement of control group was not reported significant in any of the indicators of writing fluency ($p > .05$). However, the improvement of experimental group was significant in all indicators of writing fluency ($p < .05$).
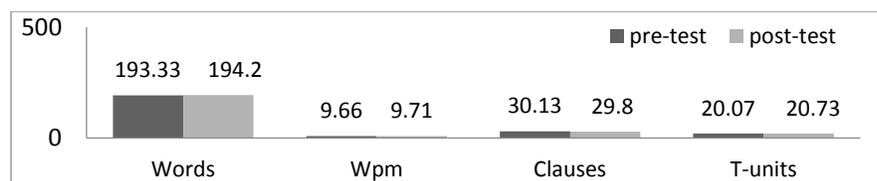
Figure 1. *The Writing Fluency of the Control Group in the Pre-posttests*
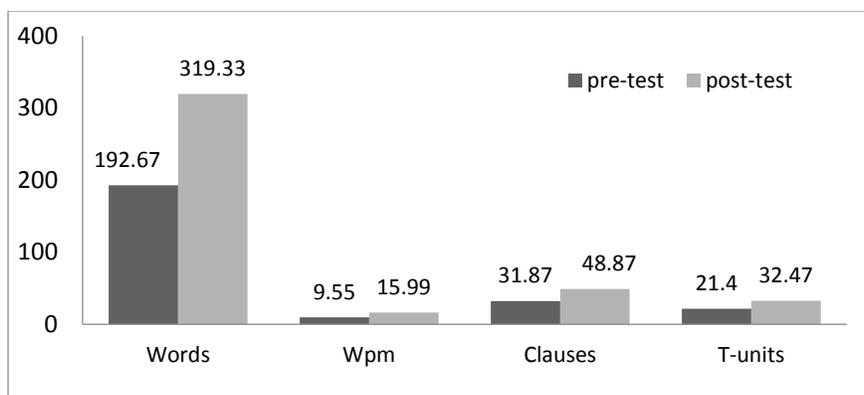
Figure 2. *The Writing Fluency of the Experimental Group in the Pre-posttests*

4.4 Results of the Attitude Questionnaire

This section reports the results of the attitude questionnaire which was distributed among the learners in the experimental group. The tables show the frequency and percentage of students' replies to the items in the questionnaire in each section, separately.

Table 6.

Results of ANOVA Test for Writing Fluency in Post-test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
words. post	Between Groups	117437.633	1	1.174	34.99	.000
	Within Groups	93971.733	28	3356.133		
	Total	211409.367	29			
wpm. post	Between Groups	296.416	1	296.416	35.42	.000
	Within Groups	234.293	28	8.368		
	Total	530.710	29			
clauses. post	Between Groups	2726.533	1	2726.533	2.257	.000
	Within Groups	3382.133	28	120.790		
	Total	6108.667	29			
T-units. post	Between Groups	1002.601	1	1002.601	1.222	.002
	Within Groups	2214.433	27	82.016		
	Total	3217.034	28			

Table 7 illustrates the results regarding the first category in the questionnaire which addressed the experimental students' general attitudes toward free writing technique.

Table 7

Students' General Attitudes toward Free Writing

	Statements	Strongly agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	I like this way of writing.	7	46.66%	8	53.33%	0	0%	0	0%
2	This is a meaningless technique	0	0 %	0	0%	9	60%	6	40%
3	This is a useless technique	0	0%	0	0%	7	46.66%	8	53.33%
4	This is a boring technique	0	0%	0	0%	8	53.33%	7	46.66%
5	This technique doesn't have any educational aim.	0	0%	1	6.66%	10	66.66%	4	26.66%
6	This is a difficult technique.	0	0%	0	0%	8	53.33%	7	46.66%
7	Free writing is not good because the teacher does not correct and give grade	0	0%	0	0%	9	60%	6	40%
8	I like this activity when the teacher gives me a chance to write freely about different topics.	7	46.66%	8	53.33%	0	0%	0	0%

As is shown in the Table 7, among 15 learners of the experimental group, the majority held positive attitudes towards free writing technique in general. In fact, as is shown, except for item 5, in which only 6.66 % agreed that free writing does not have any educational aim, students replied positively to all the 8 items of the statements related to free writing and it shows that they liked free writing in general.

Table 8 shows the frequency and percentage of students' replies to the second category of the questionnaire, regarding learners' attitudes toward the effect of free writing on writing fluency. Once more, it is shown that the majority of the learners had positive attitudes, except a few percentages indicating negative attitudes; such as item 9, addressing students' attitudes towards this belief that free writing helped them to write more and to become fluent in writing with which 6.66 % of the learners disagreed. Or item 11, which indicated this idea that the quantity of students' writing is more than before by free writing, with 6.66 % disagreement. Regarding item 12, once more, 6.66 % of the participants disagreed that free writing helped them to increase their English vocabulary. Moreover, 6.66 % held this view that by free writing, their writing in English has not changed at all. Except the items mentioned, it is indicated that students held positive attitudes toward the second category.

Table 8 *Students' Attitudes toward the Effect of Free Writing on Writing Fluency*

	Statements	Strongly agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
9	This technique helps me to write more and more and to become fluent in writing in English.	4	26.66%	10	66.66%	1	6.66%	0	0%
10	By this technique, my mind becomes open in writing in English.	5	33.33%	10	66.66%	0	0%	0	0%
11	By this technique, I feel that the quantity of my writing is more than before.	1	6.66%	13	86.66%	1	6.66%	0	0%
12	This technique helps me to increase my English vocabulary, in other words, it helps me to use more words or vocabulary in my writing.	3	20%	11	73.33%	1	6.66%	0	0%
13	I feel that by this technique, my writing in English has not changed at all.	0	0%	1	6.66%	12	80%	2	13.13%

Finally, Table 9 shows the results for the last category of the questionnaire which comprises of seven items related to the students' attitudes toward the effect of free writing on their motivation, anxiety and self-confidence in writing English.

Table 9 *Students' Attitudes toward the Effect of Free Writing on Students' Motivation, Anxiety and Self-confidence*

	Statements	Strongly agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
14	This technique encourages me to write in English	3	20%	12	80%	0	0%	0	0%
15	By this technique, I do not fear of writing in English anymore because the grade always created fear in me in writing English	12	80%	3	20%	0	0%	0	0%
16	By this technique, my self-confidence increases in writing English.	4	26.66%	11	73.33%	0	0%	0	0%
17	This technique does not create any especial motivation in me in writing English	0	0%	0	0%	4	26.66%	11	73.33%
18	By this technique, writing is enjoyable and has fun.	13	86.66%	2	13.33%	0	0%	0	0%

| 19 | This technique helps me to have calmness in writing and to write without anxiety. | 14 | 93.33% | 1 | 6.66% | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% |
| 20 | By this technique, I do not fear of making mistake in English | 14 | 93.33% | 1 | 6.66% | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% |

As the table indicates, all of the students showed a positive attitude toward the effect of free writing on their motivation, self-confidence and reducing anxiety in English writing; in other words, no student held negative attitudes toward it. Moreover, the comments made by experimental group learners in the questionnaire can also shed light on their interests in doing free writing. In fact, examining the comments of the students towards free writing also revealed that students had positive attitudes towards free writing. The comments were written in students' L1 (Persian) and the researcher translated them into English. Some of them are included in appendix B.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study firstly aimed at investigating the effect of free writing on the writing fluency of a group of intermediate EFL learners. Secondly, the study addressed experimental group's attitudes toward free writing technique. To do so, two homogenous groups of female intermediate students were selected. The experimental group experienced free writing; while the control group did not. Considering our first aim, the results of one-way ANOVA showed that free writing had significant effects on all indicators of writing fluency of intermediate EFL learners; in other words, free writing had significant effects on increasing average number of words produced (p=.000), the amounts of words produced per minute (p=.000), the average number of clauses produced (p=.000) and average number of T-units written by the experimental group (p=.002). Therefore, we can strongly reject the first null hypothesis. Also, based on the results of the questionnaire, as well as, students' comments, it was revealed that most of the students in the experimental group who experienced free writing technique expressed a positive attitude to this technique.

The results of the present study are in line with those of Briere (1966), Jude (1999), Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) and AHwang (2010) who concluded that free writing can improve L2 writing fluency and can reduce L2 learners' anxiety and increase self-confidence. With this difference that the mentioned studies did not have any control group and also they regarded only the 'average number of words' or 'words per minute', for measuring writing fluency. The results also support Elbow (2000), who believes that in free writing, students do not have anxiety; so, they will find

enjoyment in writing. Moreover, the results support Lannin's (2007) view, according to whom, one of the goals of free writing is to develop fluency and confidence and they also support Dickson's (2001), who believes that free writing could help students overcome the sense of block. However, it rejects Thomas (1989), who demonstrated in his experiment that free writing did not have any positive result on students' motivation in writing; although, his study was done in L1 context on high school students.

Based on students' responses to the questionnaire, as well as, their comments expressing that they never felt that they were in the classroom while free writing, free writing may have positive effects on EFL learners' attitudes toward writing and learners may enjoy free writing when it is non-graded; thus, on one side, we may come into conclusion that free writing might decrease anxiety and might increase self-confidence and motivation of the learners in L2 writing. And, on the other side, since according to Jones (2007), there is a strong relationship between confidence and fluency, free writing might have a positive effect on improving students' writing fluency or quantity, through reducing students' anxiety and through increasing their motivation and confidence. This was clearly found out in examining the writing fluency of the experimental group's pre-posttests.

On the basis of the obtained results, we can conclude that free writing can improve L2 learners' writing fluency and it can also positively affect their attitudes toward writing in a foreign language. Regarding Townsend's (1997, p. 72; cited in Knight, 2008) belief that, "Teachers can help if they act like coaches, not judges", using free writing in EFL classrooms can gradually weaken the attitude among EFL learners and teachers that the focus should always be on the accuracy and every piece of student's writing must be checked and evaluated in terms of form. Moreover, it suggests making balance between accuracy and fluency, as well as, creating an atmosphere in EFL or ESL classrooms in which students find enjoyment in writing in a second or foreign language rather than having anxiety and being afraid of it. This can also be seen in Dornyei's (2001) view, according to whom, "teachers should ensure a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom where the students can feel safe and trusting" (p. 42).

There are some limitations in this study which do not assure us in definite accepting the results. First, considering the participants of the study, they were all females. In addition, their level of proficiency was intermediate and the number of participants (N=30) was relatively small.

Secondly, the whole study was done in only two months, which was not a long time. Thirdly, there were a few treatment sessions, one semester which included twenty-one sessions.

For the further studies, more research can be done in order to investigate the effect of free writing on writing fluency of males as well as females. Furthermore, more investigation is needed to be done on the effects of free writing on other proficiency levels, such as elementary or advanced. Additionally, more studies can be done on the effects of free writing on writing accuracy or complexity in addition to writing fluency. Finally, other studies can be conducted to realize the effects of free writing on other skills such as listening, speaking and reading.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Topics for Experimental Group in Treatment Sessions

1. A restaurant or café which you know well. **2.** The country or city which you like to travel as well as the reason of choosing that. **3.** Your hometown. **4**. Effect of computers in human's life. **5.** The country life and city life. **6.** Effect of weather on your mood. **7.** Any subjects (whether for entertainment or studying) which you like and the ones which you do not like. **8.** Norooz (Iranian New Year Holiday). **9.** A good teacher. **10.** Yourself in the future. **11.** Your favorite singer or actor. **12.** Effect of money on one's life. **13.** Your view of a dreamy school. **14.** Your English class. **15.** The special skills you have and those you do not have. **16.** Good and poor habit of eating. **17.** Strong and weak points of your character. **18.** The ideal holidays which you like to have. **19.** The people that you like and people you do not like, regarding their features and characteristics. **20.** Your home. **21.** Your favorite seasons.

Appendix B: Some of the Comments of the Students in the Experimental Group toward Free Writing

1. I really liked free writing because I wrote with self-confidence and during writing I told myself 'Ok, let's write, it is not important and no grade will be given to you'. This feeling was enjoyable. Thanks.

2. In schools and institutes, the teachers always give us scores. I am afraid of score and being evaluated that is why I study. By this technique, I was not afraid of score. I liked and enjoyed writing together each session. Thanks. **3.** I enjoyed free writing. I think, when score is not given, everything is enjoyable. I felt very relaxed and I wrote with self-confidence. In my opinion, if it continues, the amount of my writing will be more and more. Thanks. **4.** I really enjoyed it. If it continues, it may have better results for me. Before using this technique, I had negative attitudes toward writing in English. To be honest, I hated English writing, but now when I see that I can do it easily and without anxiety, I think I like it. Your comments on my writing were encouraging to me because I could feel that there was someone reading my writing instead of giving score. By free writing, I can write more. **5.** I think, it was an interesting and effective way of writing that I had never seen in English classes, before. Without being afraid and without anxiety, I could write and I never thought that my writing was awful because it created self-confidence in me while writing. I hope that this technique continues for other semesters. **6.** I really liked when we wrote together in the beginning of the class. It had fun for me. I never felt that I was in the classroom. It seemed as if I was sitting at home writing for myself. The classroom did not have anxiety for me. To be honest, I was proud of myself that I could write in English. I did not know before that I could write in English.

Title

A Comparative Study of Metadiscourse Markers in some Selected News Programs on VOA: The Case of Regular English Programs vs. Special English Programs

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Abstract

Metadiscourse is a way of persuading and involving listeners and readers. Since this involvement or interaction with the audience in news report usually takes place instantaneously, the probability of perceiving the message incorrectly accelerates and makes it difficult to get the material completely processed. Therefore, it is undeniable that reporters are expected to use such rhetorical devices in order to keep high profile of interaction and involvement with their audience. The aim of the present study was to investigate the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in some selected programs of VOA news: the Special English programs report for nonnative audience and the Regular programs report for native ones. For this purpose, fifty news reports (25 from each program) were selected. The selected corpuses in both programs were matched for

topic to make sure that the topic varieties have not considerable influence on the aim of study. The frequency and type of metadiscoursal markers in each program were investigated in accordance with Hyland (2005a) taxonomy and the frequency of the metadiscourse markers was calculated per 1000 words. Based on the results of total frequency of metadiscourse markers no significant differences were found between Special and Regular programs. Furthermore, this study revealed the most frequent use of transitions and engagement markers, following evidentials and hedges in news report programs. The findings of the present study might be useful for teachers and pedagogic designers to pay serious attention to metadiscourse markers in L2 listening courses.

Keywords: News report, Metadiscourse, VOA special news programs, VOA regular news programs

1. Introduction

Generally speaking, language is not used randomly and without definite rules or patterns by speakers and writers. This complex phenomenon, as a means of communication, can be used for transferring information from one living source to another (Lyons, 1981). To transfer information, speakers or writers should use a group of rhetorical devices to attract and involve their listeners or readers. Since this involvement or interaction with the audience in news report usually takes place instantaneously, the probability of perceiving the message incorrectly accelerates and makes it difficult to get the material completely processed. Therefore, we must have enough knowledge about how reporters are able to attract and involve a great number of people by using such rhetorical devices.

The term 'metadiscourse' refers to one of such devices. According to Vande Kopple (2012) it is commonly defined as "discourse about discourse" and refers to integrated expression of three kinds of meanings. Hyland and Tse (2004, p.156) define metadiscourse as, "an intuitively attractive concept as it seems to offer a motivated way of collecting under one heading the range of devices writers use to explicitly organize their texts, engage readers, signal their attitudes to both their materials and their audience." According to Hyland (2005a, p.3) "metadiscourse embodies the idea that communication is more than just the exchange of information, goods or services, but also involves the personalities, attitudes and assumptions of those who are communicating".

Removing these metadiscourse features make the passage less personal, less interesting and less easy to follow. By offering a way of looking at these features systematically, metadiscourse provides us with access to the ways that writers and speakers take up positions and align themselves with their readers in a particular context. (ibid., p.4)

Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993) point out that writers and speakers employ metadiscourse to make it easier for their readers and listeners to arrange, interpret, judge and react to texts as the writers and speakers expected. According to Crismore (1989), Hyland (1999) and Hyland (2000) other benefits of metadiscourse derive from its use of explanatory and persuasive elements (e.g., code glosses, attitude markers, evidential) which attest to its key rhetorical function (cited in Camiciottoli, 2003:29). Furthermore, Camiciottoli (2003) notes that writers use such rhetorical devices to represent an acceptable effect depend on their underlying purposes and perception of readers' expectations.

The term 'metadiscourse' has been derived from Halliday's classification of language macro-functions. Halliday (1985) considered three main functions of language. 1. Ideational function denotes language functioning as a means of conveying and interpreting experience of the world, comprising of physical experiences and mental processes. 2. Interpersonal function implies language functioning as an expression of one's attitude and influence upon the attitude and behavior of the hearer. 3. Textual function means language functioning as a means of text construction. Many metadiscourse studies (Vande Kopple, 1985;Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 1998; Dafouz-Milne, 2003) utilized the Halliday's macro-functional theory to discriminate textual and interpersonal functions of language in order to categorize the linguistic elements and discuss their effects in various texts. Vande Kopple (1985) states that textual and interpersonal are imperative to metadiscourse. He also notes that they are communication about communication. According to his thought, interpersonal metadiscourse signals speakers and listeners to state their personalities and their reactions to the propositional content of their texts and adjust the interaction they desire to have with their audience about that content, while textual metadiscourse displays the way speakers and listeners incorporate individual propositions to construct a cohesive and coherent text. According to Crismore (1984; as cited in Noorian and Biria, 2010:66) when interpersonal metadiscourse markers are added to texts, interpersonal function of language will be attained. To reply these and other definitions of metadiscorse, Hyland and Tse (2004) refused the duality of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse functions performed by most of the researchers

and assert that all metadiscourse is interpersonal. Since all metadiscourse comes across with readers' needs, textual experiences, processing needs supply the writers' rhetorical demands to be achieved this. Hyland (2005a) argues that textual, interpersonal and propositional elements of the texts are not separable. According to Hyland (2005a), discourse is a process in which writers are simultaneously creating prepositional content, interpersonal engagement and the flow of text as they write. In this process the creation of text is a means of creating both interpersonal and ideational meanings, and textual features cannot be seen as ends in themselves. If metadiscourse is the way writers engage their readers and create convincing and coherent text, then we have to acknowledge that it is about interaction in text. It expresses the interpersonal dimension and how both interactive and textual resources are used to create and maintain relations with readers. (p.27)

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the term 'metadiscourse' in different contexts. For example, it has been investigated from a comparative viewpoint to understand cultural and individual differences. Based on Crismore et al. (1993) investigation writers from various language backgrounds apply different kinds of metadiscourse elements. On the other study, Abdi (2002) investigated the way writers utilize the interpersonal metadiscourse may have correspondence with their identity; he examined their ways of interaction in social sciences and natural sciences. The analysis revealed that writers of social sciences employed larger number of interpersonal metadiscourse than writers of natural sciences.

Many other studies were carried out to examine the use or effect of metadiscourse markers in various genres and disciplines, including textbooks, advertisements and science popularization. Hyland (1999) explored the possible function of university textbooks in students' acquisition of a particular disciplinary literacy; he concentrate on the use of metadiscourse as a clarification of the writer's linguistic and rhetorical presence in a text. Fuertes-Olivera, Velasco-Sacristán, Arribas-Baño, and Samiengo-Fernández (2001) studied the metadiscourse resources commonly used by copywriters to organize their slogans and headlines. Examples selected from a typical women's magazine manifest that both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse help copywriters to deploy their persuasive message. Liddicoat (2005) analyzed the aspects of hedging in French scientific writing; the investigating of modal and lexical verbs used for hedging in French uncovered not only the resources which academic writers may convey in constructing their texts, but how they approach the issue of knowing and representing knowing in the articulation of science. The application of hedges and their distribution in the texts exposed scientists are developing

statements about knowledge which are conjectural rather than ultimate statements of knowledge. Mostafavi and Tajalli (2012) compared and contrasted English medical and literary text to find out whether there were any considerable differences between the two kinds of texts in terms of the types and frequency of metadiscoursal markers. The frequency and types of metadiscoursal markers in each text were investigated according to Vande Kopple's (1985) taxonomy and the total frequency of metadiscoursal items in each type of the texts was determined in this study. Metadiscourse has also been analyzed in different comprehension skills like reading comprehension. Hyland (2005b) investigated the interactional model of stance and engagement used as an analytical structure to find out the number and types of reader engagement markers in different articles. Ansarin and Tarlani (2011) studied how native Persian and English writers involve their readers in their articles, the result of the analysis demonstrate significant differences in the way native Persian and English engage their readers. Besides, remarkable differences were observed in categorical distribution of reader engagement markers.

Most of the studies have been conducted on writing; in this regard academic writing has more adherent among researchers in recent decades especially in Iran. Hyland and Tse (2004) analyzed metadiscourse in academic writing, based on the analyses of 240 L2 postgraduate dissertations, they suggest the way of understanding interpersonal devices to which writers deploy to represent propositional materials. Hyland (2004) examined metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing to illustrate how advanced second language writers employ these resources in a high stakes research genre. The analysis suggests the way academic writers use language to propose a credible representation of themselves and their works in different disciplines; therefore, the way metadiscourse can be seen as a means for manifesting the rhetorical and social varieties of disciplinary communities. Hyland (2008) investigated persuasion, interaction and formation of knowledge by expressing self and others in research articles and proved the importance of interaction in academic argument and pointed out how these choices reflect and constitute disciplinary communities. Bahrami (2012) analyzed frequency and distribution of transition markers in English and Persian research articles in applied linguistics. The results acknowledged that Persian researchers, unlike English writers, make more use of transition markers. Moreover, it was emphasized nonnative English writers represent a pattern of overuse of transition markers when they write in English due to the cultural effects of their native language. Shokouhi and Talati (2009) analyzed metadiscourse functions in English and Persian sociology articles. The outcomes

revealed a greater range of metadiscourse markers in the English texts. It is found that total numbers of textual metadiscourse markers are more than the interpersonal markers in both language samples. Jalilifar (2011) studied metadiscourse diversities in the discussion sections of articles written in Persian and English and published in Iranian as well as international scholarly journals in English language, then hedges and boosters were identified. The results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses revealed considerable variations in frequency, types, and functions of these devices in the texts. Jones (2011) investigated the effects of metadiscourse application for enhancing coherence in academic writing; he also intended to observe the impacts of the globalisation of English in non-native English speakers' university courses in English-speaking countries. He analyzed this difficulty with significant attention to the techniques of reader-based writing represented in the concept of metadiscourse and offered reasonable remedies to help the student, both for the short and long term. Dastjerdi and Shirzad (2010) explored the consequence of explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on EFL Learners' writing skill; the findings denoted that explicit teaching of metadiscourse markers noticeably developed EFL learners' writing performance.

While research on metadiscourse has traditionally focused on written texts, little attention has been paid to the presence of metadiscourse in spoken one; Pèrez and Macià (1999) analyzed metadiscourse in lecture comprehension to find out how the presence or absence of metadiscourse works on lecture comprehension; two groups of students listened to two different version of same lecture on embedded metadiscourse whereas other did not. The results recommend that there are two key factors to be taken into account: students' abilities in English and different types of metadiscourse items exist in lectures. Ädel (2010) provided a Taxonomy of Metadiscourse in Spoken and Written Academic English; she explained that diversities of spoken and written metadiscourse markers are rare, so the similarities and differences between spoken and written types of metadiscourse are unknown. The outcomes pointed out that most of the discourse functions in the taxonomy found in both speech and writing, even spoken metadiscourse conveyed a higher frequency of discourse actions than written metadiscourse.

On the other hand, few studies have been done in the case of metadiscourse markers on Media, and mostly focused on the genre of newspaper; Dafouz-Milne (2008) investigated the role of metadiscourse in the opinion columns of two elite newspapers: the Spanish *El País* and the British *The Times*. Findings suggest that both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers are

embodied in English and Spanish newspaper columns. But there are dissimilarities in distribution and constitution of such markers. The results revealed that the Spanish writers applied considerably more textual metadiscourse than the English writers; on the contrary, the British writers deployed more interpersonal markers. In other study, Abdollahzadeh (2007; as cited in Noorian and Biria, 2010:67) scrutinized the presence of metadiscourse in the editorial sections of Persian and English newspapers. The results revealed that English editorial writers deployed more hedges while Persian editorials utilized more certainty markers. Furthermore, he said high frequency of the certainty markers in the Persian editorials may refers to an Iranian tradition of valuing and abiding by the rules of those in power without expressing uncertainty about social and religious issues, moreover the high distribution of hedges by the English group was attributed to their being more polite to their readers. Following the studies of these researchers, Noorian and Biria (2010) examined the role of interpersonal metadiscourse in opinion articles written by American and Iranian EFL journalists. For this reason, two elite newspapers in the United States and Iran, *The New York Times* and *Tehran Times* were selected to realize whether American and Iranian EFL writers applied the same amounts of interpersonal markers in their texts. The findings indicated on the presence of interpersonal metadiscourse in both data sets, but there were significant differences between the two groups concerning the occurrences of interpersonal markers, particularly in the case of commentaries. The results proposed that different factors interacted in the selection of metadiscourse elements in newspaper opinion articles written by American and Iranian EFL columnists: culture-driven preferences, genre-driven conventions, and Iranian EFL writers' extent of foreign language experience.

Ultimately, the investigation of metadiscourse in news report programs, to the best of our knowledge, has not received considerable attention, just some studies focused on political programs in the news. It is undeniable that, this different channel of media discourse is one of the most popular and public media with particular social importance having wide range of audience daily. This article, therefore, aims to compare VOA Special English programs in the news present for nonnative audience with VOA Regular programs report for native audience. VOA Special English is a controlled version of English, reports daily by United States broadcasting service are delivered one third slower than VOA Regular English, the addressees are supposed to be at the intermediate to advanced levels of English language proficiencies. Besides, VOA Regular

programs are usually addressing their audience who are the aborigines of English language and are indigenous in that country.

Thus, the present study aims to investigate the frequency and types of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers used by reporters in these two programs of the news report. In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the following research questions were proposed:

1. Are there any differences in total frequency of metadiscourse markers in the two news programs report for native and nonnative audience of English?

2. What differences can be seen in the frequency of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in these selected programs report for native and nonnative audience of English?

3. What differences can be seen in the types of textual and interpersonal subcategories in these selected news programs?

2. Methodology

2.1 Corpus

The data of this research came from the two VOA English news programs: The Special English programs in the news presented for nonnative audience and the Regular programs announced for native ones. Fifty news programs' voices and their transcriptions (25 from each programs) comprising 30195 words were selected. The voices and transcriptions extracted from Special English program contained a total of 15488 words ranging from 390 to 1287 words whose average length amounted to 530. The transcription derived from Regular programs comprised 14707 words. The lexical range of transcriptions was 373 to 892 with an average length of 620 words. The selected corpuses in both programs were matched for topic to ensure that the topic varieties have not considerable influence on the aim of study. The voices and transcriptions of Special English programs and Regular programs covered various topics including: Technology, Economic, Agriculture, Science and Health; five from each topic were selected.

2.2 Data collection and Procedures

The first step involved the collection of 100 news report from the online archives of the Special and the Regular programs of VOA. Then, 25 news reports from each program were chosen for the analysis. The data were collected in November 2012 and the transcriptions were reported in the period between 2009 and 2012. A variety of metadiscourse taxonomies have been proposed (Crismore, 1989, 1993; Vande Kopple, 1985, 2002; Ädel, 2006; Hyland, 2004), but the analysis

of the selected voices and their transcriptions were closely based on Hyland's (2005a) taxonomy which not only has theoretical and practical advantages to other models, but has also been utilized by most of the researchers in the field . The taxonomy presented by Hyland (2005a), comprises of two main categories of "interactive" and "interactional". According to Hyland (2005a), these two dimensions are defining characteristics of any communication, whether spoken or written. The interactive aspect of metadiscourse refers to the writers' awareness of their readers and their intension to accommodate their interests and needs to make the argument acceptable for their audience. The interactional aspect, on the other hand, deals with the writers' efforts to make their views clear to involve the readers by anticipating their responses to the text. "Interactive" category comprises of five subcategories: transition markers, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glasses. "Interactional" category as well contains five subcategories including: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self mentions and engagement markers.

A brief summary of these subcategories based on Hyland (2005a) is as follow: 1. Transition markers are primarily conjunctions and adverbial phrases which make it easier for readers to interpret pragmatic connections between steps in an argument. 2. Frame markers concern text boundaries or schematic components of text structure. 3. Endophoric markers are utterances which attributed to other parts of the text. 4. Evidentials are metalinguistic expressions of an idea from another source which help the readers to interpret and organize an authorial command of the subject. 5. Code glasses provide further information by explaining or elaborating what has been said to make sure that readers will understand the intended message of the writer. 6. Hedges are devices which remark the writer's decision to identify alternative points of view. 7. Boosters enable writers to close down alternatives and conflictive views and convey their certainty in their statements. 8. Attitude markers represent the writer's affective, rather than epistemic attitude to propositions. 9. Self mentions concern the degree of explicit author existence in the text by measuring the distribution of first person pronouns and possessive adjectives. 10. Engagement markers explicitly relate to readers, either to capture their attention or incorporate them as discourse participants.

Accordingly, in this research attempts are made to analyze the metadiscourse elements existing in the selected news reports' transcriptions manually. After identifying and categorizing the metadiscourse markers, a quantitative analysis was conducted to determine the frequency

of different types of metadiscourse and to find the differences between the two groups in this regard. The frequency of the metadiscourse markers was calculated per 1000 words.

3. Results and Discussion

Table 1 illustrates the total number of metadiscourse elements in the two programs of news report; these findings show that there are not significant differences in frequency of metadiscourse in news programs. In other words, metadiscourse markers consist of 16.10 percent of the words in Special programs and 15.87 percent in Regular programs. These percentages point to the importance of metadiscourse elements in two different programs of News report; indicating in spite of the fact that Special English programs provided nonnative English learners with the clear and simple news and information to improve their use of American English, this simplification may have not so much influence on total frequency of metadiscourse elements. This 0.23 percent insignificant difference in frequency of metadiscourse may be due to the influence of differences in the length of texts in these programs.

Table1: Total number of Metadiscourse per1000 words in two different programs of News broadcast

No. of Metadiscourse Elements in Different programs	Frequency per1000 words	Percentage
Special programs	161.02	16.10%
Regular programs	158.76	15.87%

In order to answer the second question of the study which addresses the frequency of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse in the selected programs of news report (Special and Regular programs), the frequency of occurrence of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers per 1000 words were calculated and their percentages were computed. Tables 2 and 3 illustrate that there are slightly more frequent textual (interactive) metadiscourse markers in these two programs. The Special programs contain 18.12 percent more textual (interactive) elements than interpersonal (interactional) elements and the Regular programs contain 17.09 percent more textual elements. These findings are in line with most of the researches carried out in different genres and disciplines, as mentioned in Hyland (2005a), like Doctorial dissertations, Public Administrations, Business studies, Computer science, Electronic engineering, Biology, some of research articles, Science popularization writings, Different academic textbooks, CEOs' Letters and Directors' Reports; shows that writers and speakers use slightly more interactive markers than interactional ones.

These findings lead us to believe on priority of managing and organizing the text interactively in order to negotiate with readers and listeners and guiding them through utterances whether spoken or written; although it is undeniable that both interactive and interactional resources are two sides of the same coin used to create relations with readers and listeners simultaneously.

Table2: Textual and Interpersonal MD Elements in Special English programs in the News

Textual and interpersonal elements	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Textual(Interactive)	95.10	59.06
Interpersonal(Interactional)	65.93	40.94
Total	161.02	100

Table 3: Textual and Interpersonal MD Elements in Regular English programs in the News

Textual and interpersonal elements	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Textual(Interactive)	93.62	58.92
Interpersonal(Interactional)	65.13	41.02
Total	158.76	100

Table 4 and 5 illustrate the use of textual (interactive) metadiscourse markers in different programs of news report. These findings show that the most frequently used textual metadiscourse markers in both Special and Regular programs were transitions and evidentials indicating the significance of transitions and evidentials in elaboration of ideas and assumptions for sharing topical knowledge. Here some instances of more ferquently used interactive metadiscourse markers including transitions and evidentials have been presented. Transitions appear in bold and evidentials are marked underlined:

Extract 1

Robb Wolf says the Paleo diet helps to treat a number of medical conditions, including Type 2 diabetes **and** heart problems. There is, **however**, no scientific evidence for these claims.

The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force says wider public acceptance of HIV testing could lead to earlier treatment of cases, **and further** slows the spread of AIDS.

The experts said some plant chemicals are high in antioxidants. **In addition** to turmeric, these include cloves, cinnamon, ginger, oregano, sage and thyme.

Other nutritionists say many people fail to follow the diet for long periods **because** it is too restrictive.

Still, the Mayo Clinic warns that cinnamon CANNOT replace proven medicines for diabetes.

But the co-op president says the DRC's 12% export taxs on coffee **still** invite smuggling.

People are less likely to progress to disease **and also**, as importantly, is people are less likely to transmit to others. **So** starting therapy early **leads to** better disease outcomes

Four months ago, the South Korean government reported to the country's lawmakers about the plan to re-start whaling. A Foreign Ministry official says the plan is **still** under consideration.

(VOA Special English Programs)

Extract 2

Nevertheless, Lele says new thinking **and** "radical changes" are needed in 2010.

But experts say donors can help the needy **and** a nation's farmers **at the same time** if they buy food for humanitarian aid locally rather than importing it.

Although this work is **still** very much in the early research stage, Hill says it's possible that if drugs can be developed to target the sleeping sickness parasite, the same general principle might **also** be used against the parasites that carry some other tropical diseases including malaria and leishmaniasis.

However, Walensky notes that first-line anti-retrovirals - those medicine given to newly diagnosed patients that can stave off symptoms for years - are much cheaper than they were a decade ago.

 In addition to this major benefit, Sun points out that less refined grains tend to have more nutritional benefits than their refined counterparts.

And the minimum cost of dialysis - $117 a week - is virtually unaffordable for low-income patients **even though** it is a subsidized rate.

The International Monetary Fund said last week that **while** it continued technical assistance to Zimbabwe, the political situation remains too unstable for the international body to grant the country financial assistance.

Davies said, as an example, that **although** the MDC is in charge of the public service within the unity government, the party would not be able reduce the number of public servants if that was necessary to revive the economy.

U.S. President Barack Obama has proposed a freeze on non-entitlement domestic spending, **while** awaiting recommendations from a bipartisan commission tasked with charting a course to a balanced federal budget.

However, the FAO says, "Available financing mechanisms are substantially insufficient to meet the climate change **and** food security challenges faced by the agricultural sector

The United Nations says Zimbabwe **still** needs emergency feeding, **though**, for about 1.7 million people before the next harvest, which beings in April.

Masaka says research is needed into ways to balance people's needs with the preservation of natural resources. **However**, in the face of economic crises **and** widespread hunger, local authorities who used to strictly enforce such bylaws are now tolerating urban crops.

(VOA Regular Programs)

According to Hyland (2005a) most of textual knowledge is realized by transition markers like conjunction and adverbials help the readers interpret links between ideas. In addition, High frequency of transition markers and evidentials in Applied Linguistics, Public administration, Business studies, Computer science, Biology, Master and Doctorial dissertations acknowledge the importance of internal connection in the discourse and intertextuality. Furthermore, the least frequent used metadiscourse markers in News programs were endophorics. Since News programs are ongoing process, with small length (an average length of 530 words) with no chart and graph, they may provide little opportunity for listeners referring back to information in part of the statement said before.

Table4: Textual MD Elements in Regular English programs in the News

Metadiscourse category Regular programs	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Evidentials	26.72	28.54
Endophorics	0.47	0.50
Code glasses	16.38	17.49
Transitions	43.92	46.91
Frame markers	6.11	6.52
Interactive	93.62	100

Table5: Textual MD Elements in Special English programs in the News

Metadiscourse category Special programs	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Evidentials	29.18	30.68
Endophorics	0.64	0.67
Code glasses	17.56	18.46
Transitions	38.09	40.05
Frame markers	9.62	10.11
Interactive	95.10	100

Other significant differences revealed in this research are that: Reguler programs have 6.86 percent high frequency of transition markers, while Special programs have 2.14 percent high frequency of evidentials. These results indicate that in the process of simplification, the Special programs presented nonnative English learners, clear and simple news and information. So they may avoid using complex sentences with subordinates and other complex conjunctions like (conversely, even though, nonetheless and nevertheless). Meanwhile, overuse of evidential markers in Special programs may be because of removing ambiguous language. They repeat nonnative audience evidential markers to provide clear expressions about sentences refer to someone or something, because it is rather difficult for them to realize the reference of indirect pronouns outside of clause or sentence.

Table 6 and 7 illustrate the use of interpersonal (interaction) metadiscourse markers in different programs of news report. These findings show that the most frequently used interpersonal metadiscourse markers in both Special and Regular programs were engagements and hedges. The more frequently used interactional metadiscourse markers including engagement markers (bold) and hedges (underlined) are illustrated in a number of examples from the data. These examples are as follow:

Extract 3

It **notes** that limited whaling for scientific research is permitted under the commercial whaling ban. Japan has continued hunting whales under this exception.

Earlier in this report, **we** heard from Han Jeong-hee of Greenpeace. She says pro-whaling forces appear to be in control of the South Korean government.

NOAA **must consider** when deciding whether these animals may be imported.

The researchers believe this is evidence of what they call "spontaneous mimicry of the human voice, <u>presumably</u> a result of vocal learning." In other words, they <u>suspect</u> the beluga whale was copying the sounds made by humans.

Now **we have to** fast-forward to a day -- hopefully in the next year or two -- where at least in clinical studies the information is flowing forward to the patients and the doctors.

<u>Generally,</u> herbs come from the green leaves of plants or vegetables. Spices come from other parts of plants and trees.

You know, **you connect** with the earth, where **your** food comes from. **You** appreciate the food a little bit more."

If approved, aquarium officials <u>would</u> send some of the animals to the other facilities.

(VOA Special English Programs)

Extract 4

In **our** final recommendation **we will have to** say that one shoe is not for everybody; **we** still **have to** skillfully identify the low-risk and high-risk."

Ambrose says any Reforms <u>would likely</u> favor middle-income countries like Turkey and the Philippines and not the poorest of the poor.

"**You have to see** how **you** can demystify the technology and bring it down to the community level so that they can manage, control and own the technology,"

The end product is then <u>often</u> enriched, to replace a portion of the nutrients lost during the refining process. However, white rice is <u>essentially</u> a starch.

"**We** also **look at** the potential to link with existing financing mechanisms for agricultural development and overseas development assistance.

Nearly a billion people are food insecure today. The Millennium Development Goals are <u>not likely</u> to be reached by 2015.

So I think one of the first things that **should** happen is the pledges **should** materialize. That's the least that can happen,"

When a breast cancer is palpable, it's <u>usually</u> larger and has spread beyond the breast. **Our** goal with screening mammograms is to detect a cancer that is small and contained within the breast.

Until 2007, there were declining real commodity prices, production was increasing and there was <u>generally</u> a sense that **we** were accomplishing something.

U.S. food aid consists <u>almost</u> entirely of American grain. Cohen says that started in the 1950s, when the United States had "what were called, 'burdensome surpluses' of food.

(VOA Regular Programs)

Furthermore, the least frequently used interpersonal markers were attitudes. The results provide evidence for the importance of engagement markers in the process of announcement by creating convincing and persuasive social context to establish relationship with audience.

Table6: Interpersonal MD Element in Regular English programs in the News

Metadiscourse category Regular programs	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Hedges	14.61	22.43
Engagement markers	25.22	38.72
Boosters	9.45	14.50
Attitude markers	3.53	5.41
Self mentions	12.30	18.88
Interactional	65.13	100

Table7: Interpersonal MD Elements in Special English programs in the News

Metadiscourse category Special programs	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Hedges	16.78	25.44
Engagement markers	24.53	37.21
Boosters	11.16	16.92
Attitude markers	3.03	4.59
Self mentions	10.39	15.76
Interactional	65.92	100

Hyland and Tse (2004) point out engagement markers obviously deal with making relationship with readers, by considering their attention and engaging them as participants in the text. Hyland (2005a) acknowledges that it is often not easy to discriminate attitudes and engagement markers in practice. He also described engagement markers' characters based on reader's participation in two modes. First case associates with the need to reasonably meet readers' expectations of inclusion and disciplinary solidarity, addressing readers to involve in an argument.

Second one deals with placing the audience especially at critical arguments for predicting objections and directing them to particular interpretation. Additionally, as mentioned in Hyland (2005a) engagements and hedges are most frequent components in majority of researches like Masters and Doctorial dissertations, Applied Linguistics, Public Administrations, Business studies and Electronic engineering. However, in these studies the frequency of hedges are more prominent and in the news programs engagement markers are more frequently used. These findings could be indicate that first of all, announcers need to provide context to attract their audience by making explicit relationship to show that they are in the same road with their audience in an ongoing and momentary process of announcing; while as mentioned in most of the studies, academic writers need to be more conservative to their readers and weaken their position by using weak verbs like modals and hedges. On a general level, the percentage of interactive metadiscourse markers in regular programs is slightly more than special programs, while the percentage of interactional metadiscourse markers is slightly more in special programs. This could reveal the significance of providing satisfactory argument by organizing suitable text for nonnative learners in special programs and the significance of engaging native audiences in the process of announcement in Regular programs. As Hyland (2005a) assert that interactive metadiscourse functions rhetorically to point readers and listeners in the direction the writer and speaker intends by his or her argument. On the other side of the coin, the ways writers and speakers control the expression of interactional relationships within a text are as crucial to the rhetorical success of a text as its prepositional content. Furthermore, metadiscourse which considered as a rhetorical means in construction of a text is culture-bound; thus writers and speakers deploy different strategies in using some types of metadiscourse due to their cultural differences (Shokouhi and Talati, 2009; Bahrami, 2012). Therefore, ongoing exposing of EFL learners in the context of English native speech can provide learners rhetorical knowledge and understanding of the ways meanings are conveyed in this language.

4. Conclusion and Implications

The present study offers clear evidence that metadiscourse markers play a significant role in the construction of different programs of news report. Based on the results of total frequency of metadiscourse markers hardly any significant differences were found between Special and Regular programs, indicating that simplification in Special programs of news reports may have not much

influence on total frequency of metadiscourse elements. As in line with the results of most of the studies that have been conducted to compare textual (interactive) and interpersonal (interaction) metadiscourse elements, the findings suggest priority of interactive elements in order to negotiate with listeners and engage them in news programs, although this interpretation must be said with caution. Because the role of interpersonal sources which are continually interact with textual knowledge in order to negotiate meaning are undeniable in these processes of meaning making programs. Additionally, this study revealed the most frequent use of transitions and engagement markers, following evidentials and hedges in news programs. Findings of this study are approximately in line with most of studies that have been conducted in the field of writing. As pointed out in the discussion section, it seems that few differences in this regard have been observed. Even though this research provided useful information about presence of metadiscourse elements in construction of the two selected programs of news, it would be worthwhile if larger corpus size were provided for this study to see more reliable picture of results. The findings of such studies may promise some improvements in construction of listening materials designed for pedagogical purposes, and might be effective for teachers and syllabus designers to pay considerable attention to metadiscourse markers in L2 listening courses. It is undeniable that understanding spoken language is problematic issue for language learners; this might be useful for L2 learners to improve their listening skill by helping them to be aware of these jack of all trades strategies that have significant application in construction of every spoken and written language. This analysis suggests the necessities of providing suitable listening materials for language learners. Since all languages use for social and communicative purposes, lack or ineffective application of metadiscourse devices in pedagogical materials may cause difficulty in speech comprehension and production for language learners. Teachers also need to provide feedback for students and deploy metadiscourse markers in an overtly manner with intonation for delivering efficiently their speech in academic spoken discourse. Still another pedagogical implication is providing pre-task listening activities and encourages students to determine and correct misused forms to provide insight about these devices and prepare them for the listening task. Making awareness in application of metadiscourse markers should also be an effective way to facilitate their communication. It is also essential for teachers and language instructors to be aware of currently developed research articles to keep them up to date and provide effective criteria to meet their students' needs. Moreover, the results provided useful information for comparing

metadiscourse markers in news programs considered as an authentic language with those listening materials designed for pedagogical purposes of EFL learners. This aspect certainly deserves further studies.

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Appendix

The data of this research came from VOA English programs online archives www.VOAnews.com. First step involved the collection of 100 news broadcast from the online archives of the Special and the Regular programs of VOA. Then, 25 broadcasts from each program were chosen for the analysis.

VOA Special English Programs in the News

Science

Should Whales be Hunted or Watched? By VOA**,** *03 December, 2012*

Is Eating Like our Ancestors Good for us? By VOA, *12 November, 2012*
Condition of Oceans Affects Human Health. By VOA, *05 November, 2012*

Scientists Search for New Ways to Treat Infection. By VOA, *22 October, 2012*

 Scientists Look at Plant Products With an Eye to New Possibilities for Health. By Jerilyn Watson, *2010-5-31*

Health

For Smokers, Never Too Late to Quit; Diesel and Cancer. By VOA, *19 June, 2012*

Seeking HIV Tests for All in US Age 15-65. By VOA, *27 November, 2012*

Gene Mapping Identifies Four Different Types of Breast Cance. By VOA, *02 October, 2012*

New Medical Tape Reduces Pain for Newborns, Older Adults. By VOA, *13 November, 2012*

UN Says Family Planning Pays Big for Developing Countries. By VOA, *20 November, 2012*

Economic

Patriotic Millionaires' Say Their Taxes Are Too Low. By VOA, *29 November, 2012*

 Nobel Prize in Economics Recognizes 'Market Designers. By VOA, *18 October, 2012*

 Connecting Employers with Jobs Seekers in Today's Economy. By VOA, *02 August, 2012*

Vietnam Opens its Securities Companies to Foreign Investors. By VOA, *20 September, 2012*

A Former American Treasury Secretary Talks about US-China Economic Ties. By VOA, *19 July, 2012*

Technology

Are Smartphone Apps Encouraging Young Smokers? By VOA, *04 November, 2012*

South Pacific Islands Now Totally Powered by the Sun. By June Simms, *26 November, 2012*

Mobile Phones Could Help Efforts to End Malaria. By VOA, *21 October, 2012*

Technology Designed to Take Paralympians to New Levels .By June Simms.*16 September, 2012*

Electronics among Most Popular Gifts This Year. By VOA, *2011-12-25*

Agriculture

To Protect Rhinos, Anti-Poaching Business Grows in South Africa.By VOA, *03 December, 2012*

Seeking a Better Way for African Farmers to Fight a Fever. By Jerilyn Watson, *2011-11-7*

In Eastern DRC, Ex-Fighters Make a New Life with Coffee. By VOA, *05 November, 2012*

The Appeal of Urban Farming. By VOA, *2012-3-5*

Teaching Coffee Farmers About the Birds and the Bees. By VOA, *2012-4-23*

VOA Regular or Standardized Programs in the News

Science

Eating More 'Good' Fats Lowers Risk of Heart Disease. Art Chimes | Washington, DC *25 March 2010*

Research Finds Possible New Way to Attack Sleeping Sickness. Art Chimes | St. Louis, Missouri, *17 December 2010*

Early HIV Treatment Saves Lives. Rose Hoban | Durham, North Carolina ,*29 December 2010*

Pregnant Women Who Take Iron, Folic Acid Have Smarter Babies. Rose Hoban | Durham, North Carolina. *29 December 2010*

Double Transplant Can Improve Quality of Life for Diabetics. Véronique LaCapra | St. Louis, Missouri. *28 December 2010*

Health

Rice Could Help Prevent Heart Attacks. Naomi Seck | Washington, DC. *04 May 2010*

Estrogen Therapy Reduces Breast Cancer Risk.Art Chimes | St. Louis, Missouri. *09 December 2010*

Early Detection Still the Best Defense Against Breast Cancer. Vidushi Sinha | Washington *31 October 2010*

Eating White Rice Increases Diabetes Risk . Smitha Raghunathan | Washington, DC . *25 June 2010*

Spanish Doctors Train Kenyan Counterparts in Kidney Transplant Surgery. Cathy Majtenyi | Nairobi. *30 May 2010*

Economic

Zimbabwe's Economic Woes Continue. Peta Thornycroft | Johannesburg . *06 December 2010*

International Monetary Fund Debates Internal Reforms, Global Economic Growth

William Eagle | Washington, DC. *07 October 2010*

Obama Urges US Senate to Pass Financial Reform. Kent Klein | White House . *15 May 2010*

Central Bankers: Economic Depression Averted, But Debt Crisis Remains

Michael Bowman | Washington. *21 April 2010*

EU Wants Stonger Measures to Fix Greek Economy. Nathan Morley | Nicosia, Cyprus *01 March 2010*

Technology

Technology Enables Small Artists to Compete for Big Bucks. St. Louis, Missouri | David Weinberg. *26 November 2010*

Technology Changes Peace Corps Experience . Zack Baddorf | Kigali, Rwanda. *31 August 2010*

Futuristic Robot Comes to Life in Virginia Lab. Beverly Amsler | Blackburg, Virginia *06 December 2010*

UN Official Calls for Investment in Climate Technology. By Ron Corben Bangkok. *24 February 2009*

India Plugs into Low-Cost Solar Technology. Raymond Thibodeaux | Tiloniya, Rajasthan *25 October 2010*

Agriculture

Climate Change: More Funding Needed for Agriculture Adaptation. Joe DeCapua *06 December 2010*

Mobile Phones Help Farmers Feed Their Fields. Steve Baragona | Washington, DC *28 July 2010*

Food Aid Hurts Haiti's Farmers. Steve Baragona | Artibonite Valley, Haiti *29 April 2010*

Report Calls for Radical Changes on Eve of Global Agriculture Conference.

Joe DeCapua . *25 March 2010*

Zimbabwe's Hard-Pressed City Dwellers Cultivate Urban Agriculture

By Taurai Shava. Gweru, Zimbabwe. *25 November 2008*

Title

Grammatical Processing of Spoken Language in Child and Adult Language Learners: A Review Article

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Abstract

Felser C. and Clahsen H. (2009) in their article "Grammatical processing of spoken language in child and adult language learners" aim at presenting an overview of studies on auditory language processing in terms of two different grammatical domains of morphology and syntax in children and late second-language learners using on-line methods (i.e., Event-Related Potentials (ERPs), eye-movement monitoring, and the cross-modal priming paradigm). To this aim, two grammatical phenomena (i.e., children's and adults' processing of German plural inflections and language learners' processing of filler-gap dependencies in English) are examined and hence some differences between native vs. nonnative and child vs. adult L1 grammatical processing are described.

Keywords: Adults, Children, Language processing, Morphology, syntax

1. Introduction

In real-time language processing, on one hand, there are some differences and similarities between child and adult L1 learners and on the other hand, between native and nonnative language learners.

For example, the latter group has similar problems in segmenting and analyzing the input based on incomplete grammatical, lexical-semantic, or world knowledge. Also, Children have limited attention and working memory capacities compared to adults. On the other hand, language processing is cognitively more demanding for nonnatives rather than for adult natives. In addition, both children and L2 learners show longer response latencies compared to adult native speakers in psycholinguistic experiments indicating slower lexical access, less processing speed, cognitive limitations, and delayed parsing or comprehension. Furthermore, while L1 children use adult-like structural processing, adult L2 learners' processing of some aspects of grammar remains nonnative-like even at high proficiency levels.

In the following part, some differences between child L1 and adult L2 learning in terms of morphological processing have been illustrated. Section 3 explains about syntactic processing differences of the above-mentioned groups. The next section proposes the strengths and weaknesses of Clehsen and Felser's article "Grammatical processing of spoken language in child and adult language learners". The last section states the concluding remark.

2. Inflectional Morphological Processing Differences in Child and Adult L1 Learners vs. Adult L2 Learners

Based on studies of inflectional morphology in early L1 and late L2 acquisition, some significant differences between native and nonnative language processing have been presented. Late L2 learners have difficulties in acquiring verbal and nominal inflection, complete paradigms, and morphological distinctions, using specific inflectional morphemes inconsistently in their spontaneous speech even at high L2 proficiency levels. On the other hand, in L1 acquisition, inflectional morphemes are acquired completely, inflectional errors are infrequent, and inflectional morphemes are consistently used.

Another L1/L2 difference exists in morphological processing. According to Ullman (2005), in dealing with morphologically complex words, adult L2 learners use more of the lexical storage system than the grammatical structures. He identifies two brain memory systems for processing native language: a declarative (lexical) system responsible for the storage of memorized words and phrases, and a procedural one, which is involved in the processing of combinatorial rules of language. He argued that L2 processing, even at high proficient stages is largely based on the former, and the latter occurs in L2 processing to a much lesser extent than in L1 processing.

Sections 2.1 and 2.2 demonstrate some experimental evidences for child and adult language processing differences.

2.1. Evidence from Speeded Production

One of the experimental evidences showing the contrast in adult L2 learners' processing of inflected words versus child and adult native speakers comes from the speeded production tasks in which participants are asked to produce as quickly and as accurately as possible an inflected form for a verb stem. This experiment is based on the idea that lexical retrieval and storage are affected by a word's frequency, that is if an inflected word is stored as a whole, then its retrieval should be faster for high-frequency forms than for low-frequency ones. On the other hand, if an inflected form is computed from its morphological constituents during production, then there is no effect for high-frequency forms in speeded production. Ullman (2005) argued that these results are indicative of nonnative speakers' more use of lexical storage of inflected words than native speakers.

2.2. Evidence from ERPs during Auditory Comprehension

The most direct evidence for how native and nonnative language learners process morphologically complex words comes from studies on German noun plurals. To this aim, a set of monolingual children from three age groups, adult native speakers, and advanced adult L2 learners with Russian as L1, as the participants of these studies listened to correctly and incorrectly inflected noun plurals presented in sentence contexts while ERPs were being recorded. As a result, over-regularized plural forms were the clearest L1/L2 contrasts in which a feminine noun in German which requires an –n plural form takes the regular –s plural instead.

Another psycholinguistics' experiment used is probe-verification tasks in which the participants were instructed to indicate whether a probe sentence was including as one of the presented set or not. Then, they were prompted to pluralize all critical singular nouns which were read to them.
In general, the results of both of these tasks indicated that all participants were familiar with the critical nouns and their plural forms. Particularly, in the adult L1 group as well as the oldest child group, -s plural over-regularizations elicited a biphasic ERP pattern, a Left Anterior Negativity (LAN) followed by a posterior positivity (= P600) with the latter group having a delayed onset of both effects. On the other hand, the L2 group showed a P600 effect but no signs of negativity. Also, the youngest child group showed a negativity for the incorrect items without any P600 effect. Lastly, for the intermediate group of children, a distributed anterior negativity was found for the

incorrect items. The two components of LAN and P600 reflect distinct stages of morphological processing. LAN effects indicate automatic morphosyntactic parsing processes while the latter shows more controlled processes of reanalysis and repair during sentence processing. The biphasic ERP patterns found for the adult L1 group indicate the involvement of these two distinct processes in noun plurals: one that automatically checks their correctness, resulting in a LAN for incorrect forms, and a later process of repair in which the plural form is combined with other elements of the NP resulting in a P600.

The older children showed the same biphasic ERP pattern as the adult L1 group but in the younger child groups, the P600 was missing or very limited because during their processing, morphological errors were not repaired. These suggest that in the younger children, incorrect forms affect to a lesser degree on the phrase building processes than in the adults.

The most important native/nonnative contrast found was that the L2 learners only showed a late ERP responses and later onsets to morphological violations. Both L1 children and late L2 learners revealed no signs of earlier negativity indicating their lack of early morphological decomposition processes in contrast to L1 adult speakers. Instead, they recognized the ungrammaticality of the forms at a later (phrase-level) stage of processing, resulting in a later P600 effect. These results indicate slower and less efficient processing in both early L1 and late L2 learners than in adult native speakers.

3. Syntactic Processing Differences in Child and Adult L1 Learners vs. Adult L2 Learners

The online experimental techniques which are used for examining auditory sentence processing of both children and adults include cross-modal priming, self-paced listening, eye-movement monitoring and ERPs. Sections 3.1 and 3.2 illustrate auditory sentence processing of L1 children and L2 adults, respectively. Sections 3.3 highlights child and adult learners' processing of indirect object gaps.

3.1. Auditory Sentence Processing in L1 Children

Results from the eye-movement and ERP studies have revealed that children from early on (e.g., 2-3 years old), are very sensitive to grammatical information during sentence processing in an adult-like fashion (i.e., showing a P600-like brain response to morphosyntactic and phrase-structure violations). From the age of seven, their brain responses to syntactically incorrect sentences resemble closely those of the adults'.

Data from the online experimental techniques have revealed that in syntactic ambiguity resolution process, young children are similar to adults in applying structure-based parsing techniques but different from them in facing difficulty in using semantic or referential information. Children are sensitive to verb semantics and discourse information during processing reflecting that they focus on structural or bottom-up information due to their capacity limitations rather than insensitivity to semantic and pragmatic information. Nevertheless, we should note that children's sentence processing is also affected by individual differences in WM capacities.

3.2. Auditory Sentence Processing in Nonnative Listeners

Acquiring the syntax of an L2 after the childhood is very cognitively demanding which is influenced by many factors such as the age of learning, length, and amount of exposure, and motivation. L2 grammatical sentence processing may remain nonnative-like even for late high proficient learners. According to McDonald (2006), these may be due to general cognitive or processing factors such slower processing speed, poorer decoding ability or working memory limitations. Unlike monolingual children, nonnatives are more native-like in the use of sub-categorization, lexical-semantic and pragmatic information during parsing while showing less sensitivity to nominal, grammatical and morphosyntax information. In this sense, the early LAN effects resulted from syntactic violations, which reflects automatic morphosyntactic processing in native speakers, does not appear in nonnatives.

Another significant L1/L2 differences exists in the processing of structurally ambiguous sentences and sentences involving syntactic or referential dependencies that cannot be attributed to the native language influence. The same distinction exists also between children and adult native speakers. While children use the same structure-based processing like adults, they have problems in using contextual or 'top-down' information during parsing. On the other hand, nonnatives mainly use the 'shallow processing' in their interpretation, which is based on semantics but not grammatical information.

3.3. Child and Adult Learners' Processing of Indirect Object Gaps

Structural dependencies between nonadjacent sentence constituents constitute a significant problem for the human sentence processing because the parser must retain the structural information and discourse referents encountered in his mind and in encountering a new element or a syntactic gap, link it to its antecedent. Processing of nonlocal syntactic dependencies involves using both WM storage and computational processes which are more limited in children vs. adults

and in nonnatives vs. natives. Children like L1 adults, can link a fronted constituent to its semantic licenser immediately. Also, adult nonnative speakers can fill the gaps immediately in real-time sentence processing in reading-based tasks.

Felser and Clahsen conducted a cross-modal picture-priming task investigating indirect *wh*-object dependencies, using young English children, monolingual adults, and highly proficient late Greek learners of English. The auditory stimulus, which included 20 sentences containing indirect-object relatives among a set of 60 filler sentences of similar length, were presented. The picture targets depicting either the referent of the indirect object noun or an unrelated object, were shown either at the beginning of the direct object NP – i.e., at the syntactic gap - or at some points earlier, and participants were instructed to decide as quickly as possible whether or not the object depicted was 'alive' by pressing the appropriate button. All three groups of participants were found to be highly accurate at the aliveness decision task and comprehension of stimulus sentences.

The results of these studies indicate that children's structural parsing is the same as monolingual adults' although they are much slower in auditory processing, lexical access, and WM capacities than the adult groups. On the other hand, late language learners which differ from native speakers as a whole, do not use structural gaps during their processing, irrespective of whether or not parallel filler-gap dependencies exist in their L1. These findings support the shallow structure hypothesis for L2 processing according to which adult language learners interpret complex sentences by using the least effort representations of the input which lacks grammatical details, and instead exploit nonstructural information during processing. Ullman (2005) suggests that these effects which make it harder for late language learners to acquire procedural processing, are due to maturational changes in the brain during adolescence.

Felser and Clahsen as a conclusion indicate that the results of ERPs, auditory processing studies of language learners, as well as the two case studies from different domains of grammar (i.e., morphology and syntax) done by the researchers reveal that both child L1 and adult L2 learners are slower at lexical access and processing the TL than adult native speakers due to WM limitations. These, in particular, indicate that nonnatives' grammatical processing of complex words and sentences differs substantially from native speakers'. While both child and adult L1 speakers use morphological decomposition, structural parsing, and abstract syntactic categories in sentence processing, even highly proficient L2 learners exploit more lexical storage and semantic information than grammatical ones.

4. Strengths and Weaknesses

Although most of the current theories of language processing have been fed mostly by off-line reading-based data from adult monolingual speakers, this study on *on-line auditory* native/ nonnative language processing along with the synthesis of the related literature provided, have provided more information generally about differences and similarities between morphosyntactic processing of child vs. adult L1 speakers on one hand and of native vs. nonnative learners on the other hand. In particular, this study along with other relevant studies by the same authors (e.g., Grammatical processing in language learners, 2006; The processing of ambiguous sentences by L1 and second language learners of English, 2003; Morphological processing in a second language: Behavioral and Event-related Brain Potential evidence for storage & decomposition, 2006), are illustrative in the field in which different issues namely the role of WM limitations, processing abilities and speed in production and comprehension; of the critical period in grammatical development and language acquisition of the above-mentioned groups are provided using different tasks and experiments in order to support the SSH which they are claiming for. Furthermore and most importantly, this article has received 65 citations to date and this illustrates its extensive significance in the field.

In general, the article seems to us to be well-written, well-organized, coherent, and interesting in terms of content and evidences illustrated specifically those in support of the SSH, using an appropriate length and difficulty level which is understandable even for those who are not well-professionalized in the field of psycholinguistics. In particular, Felser and Clahsen's claim in terms of L2 learners' preferences for lexical information is well-supported in the literature (Mitchell et al., 2000, as cited in Mestre, 2006). Also, it is generally accepted that L2 learners process their L2 more slowly, however the exact cause of this delay is not known (Carroll, 2006).

Although they provide a good review of the current L2 literature, their viewpoint and argumentations seems to be flawed and not as substantiated as needed in three general respects of the participants involved and their characteristics, the limited domains used, and specially and more importantly the SSH which they strongly claim for.

First, the authors' use of highly proficient L2 participants as the *only* L2 group along with the underlying assumptions taken about them seem not to be substantially justified. According to Birdsong (2006), their claim of the fundamental processing differences between child L1 and adult L2 processing_ i.e., adult L2 processing being less automatic and efficient due to being subject to

shallow representations while L1 processing is based on detailed computations_ have been somehow made by comparing highly L2 proficients with natives. On the other hand, recent studies on processing data (e.g., Cutler, Mehler, Norris, & Segui, 1989; Flege, MacKay, & Piske, 2002; Golato, 1998) suggest that data from high proficient L2 learners is not sufficient in itself to explain L2 learners' performance. Instead, they could have identified whether or not the same difference also exists for L2 dominants and natives. Although proficiency and dominance are overlapping psychological terms, which sometimes may coincide, as two quite distinct constructs, they are defined differently. While proficiency is defined in processing terms, dominance is identified as attainment in grammar, lexis, and pronunciation. One does not need to be L2 dominant in order to be highly L2 proficient and the vice versa. So, in order to identify the limits of L2 processing more successfully, they could have considered not only the proficient L2 speakers but also the L2 dominants because L2 learners' processing of L1 and L2 is dependent upon which of their languages and to what extent is dominant and activated. If L1 is unused or infrequently used, L2 is dominant and its processing may quite exactly resemble to native adults' processing. Hence, L1 processing is slower and less efficient than L2 processing, even less efficient than L1 monolingual speakers' and the vice versa.

On the other hand, a comparison between early and late bilinguals of the same age, different proficiency levels, and different backgrounds (e.g., immersion vs. academic learning), or the inclusion of balanced bilinguals (see Dowens & Carreiras, 2006) would have been a better approach to take before claiming that adult L2 learners are restricted in their sentence processing and hence completing more successfully the claim of L1/L2 differences.

In addition, it seems that the authors have considered that their highly proficient adult L2 learners are in a fixed and unchanging L2 competence without any opportunities for improvement in their sentence processing. However, this is not the case. In other words, the authors have failed to note that even highly L2 proficient learners may have some opportunities for improvement or change in L2 processing, automaticity, and parsing options due to more L2 exposure or more familiarity with the intended structures (Dowens & Carreiras, 2006).

Also, it seems to us that the authors do not believe in the idea of L1 transfer because in this paper (p. 22), they claim that in filler-gap dependencies, late language learners have not yet shown any evidence of using purely structurally defined gaps during processing, irrespective of whether or not parallel filler-gap dependencies exist in their L1. Although they state that the general

cognitive factors such as slower processing speed or WM limitations are not the only sources of L1/L2 processing differences, it appears that they have missed the effect of incomplete acquisition due to L1 transfer. Indeed, according to Dowens and Carreiras (2006), more research is needed to determine the influence of each of the individual cognitive factors but what is obvious is that the combined effects of them certainly may account for some of the differences found.

The second general flaw seems to the researchers to exist in the limited types of just three domains (morphosyntax, ambiguity resolution, and syntactic dependencies) on which the authors' claim of the SSH in this case, is based. However, the tasks and experiments used seem to be sufficient, there is a great need to test L2 learners' performance in other domains in order to determine in which domains and to what extent, L2 learners' performance is less efficient than natives' and whether they are generalizable to performance in other domains or not.

The third and the most important general disadvantage is the authors' underlying assumptions about the SSH implying a fundamental difference between adult native and nonnative speakers. L2 learners develop interlanguage grammars which is fundamentally different from L1, but resembling to it in being based on UG principals and restrictions. According to Fundamental Difference Hypothesis, it is the L1 grammar which replaces UG in guiding L2 development. So, to the extent that L2 structures are dependent on L1 transfer, they are subject to detailed syntactic parsing not a shallow one (Dekydtspotter, Schwartz, & Sprouse, 2006). Also, as Dekydtspotter et al. (2006) claim, there are significant differences between native and nonnative processing in terms of prosody, lexical access routines, semantic fields, and response time differences but it does not necessarily mean a fundamentally different processing mechanisms. On the other hand, FC have not made explicit yet how shallow L2 processing is, whether it is generalizable to L2 data apart from the one which exactly resembles mature L1 data, and why it has not involved shallower lexical processing which can be considered as counterevidence against this hypothesis. If they see the critical periods/age of acquisition responsible for this shallower processing, so why this effect exists for some aspects of language parsing but not for lexical processing and comprehending subtle semantic differences? Also, as the researcher have noted earlier, their claim of shallower L2 sentence and morphological processing is just based on little domains.

5. Concluding Remark

In general, although FC's conclusions in terms of the differences in child/adult L1 and native/nonnative speakers' processing in general and their claim for SSH have contributed to a great extent to the development of the field, giving some significant insights to other researchers, they need to be more refined and detailed properly and by more research and empirical evidence in the field. But, it does not mean that their conclusions are incorrect. As the authors themselves claim, shallow processing and good enough representations may be part of L1 or human comprehension system in general (Dowens & Carreiras, 2006). Indeed, according to Carroll (2006), there is a great need not only for replications of the same phenomena with different groups of well-specified learners from different learning backgrounds, but for more studies of the new phenomena.

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Title

The Effect of Sentence Reading Versus Sentence Writing on Vocabulary acquisition among Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract

This study investigated the effectiveness of two vocabulary learning tasks on 41 Iranian EFL learners' retention of ten previously un-encountered lexical items. These two tasks were: 1)writing novel sentences and 2)reading original sentences. First, Nelson proficiency test was administered to 60 intermediate EFL learners as a homogeneity test. A vocabulary pre-test in sentence reading and a vocabulary pre-test in sentence writing were administered to

assess their knowledge of these words. Accordingly, 41 homogeneous learners were comprised as the research sample. The participants were randomly divided into two similar groups, one as a group in sentence reading(20 learners)and the other as a group in sentence writing(21learners). The experiment was conducted within 90-minute class period for 10 sessions. For the reading task, they were instructed to read each sentence once and to focus on understanding it. The reading task involved three sentences. They read 30 sentences in each session. For the writing tasks, participants were instructed verbally to write sentences of 10 words. The participants were to write three sentences per time; which means 30 sentences each session. The post-test took place five days later. A vocabulary post-test in sentence reading and a vocabulary post-test in sentence writing were administered. Different results were obtained depending on the amount of incidental vocabulary learning in the sentences. The result revealed more significant progress in sentence writing than in sentence reading.

Keywords: Reading, Vocabulary Acquisition, Learning, Writing

1.Introduction

SLA researchers and second language teaching experts have started paying more attention to vocabulary learning and teaching. In fact, some researchers now claim that, compared to the other components of language. Vocabulary is the most essential one. It is also argued that students, while communicating in the target language, find vocabulary to be the greatest hurdle to using the language(Ludwig,1984).

Language teachers and learners are challenged by the formidable task of teaching and learning the large number of L2 words. Due to limited class time and the need to focus on many language skills, direct instruction alone may not make a major contribution in this respect. Moreover, it is not guaranteed that learners will attend to such instruction. When looking at the large stock of vocabulary that proficient L2 learners possess, it would appear that this huge amount of vocabulary cannot be simply learned in the classroom.

2. Statement of the problem

Although it seems to be a growing acceptance among SLA researchers that vocabulary is a crucial component of overall communicative competence(Schmitt and Mccarthy,1997),it is still an area

that is often neglected both in and outside the classroom. Even when vocabulary is taught more directly in the classroom, it tends to be via supplementary workbooks containing word manipulation exercises, rather than as a main element of the curriculum. Not only there are no course books offered which have vocabulary as an organizing or main component of the syllabus, but the supplementary vocabulary books which are offered tend to be very similar in approach, introducing new words and definitions on one page, followed by a series of activities to give practice using the new words(for example, crossword, puzzles, matching activities, word searches, fill in the blank, and the like).

2.1. Purpose and significance of the study

The main purpose of this study is to help the EFL learners to become familiar to acquire vocabularies via sentence reading and sentence writing .This study is an attempt to come up with a partial answer to the question raised in the introduction about the attributes of effective tasks, as the focus will be on certain types of vocabulary learning tasks. It is hoped that this will ultimately add to our knowledge about the efficacy of tasks in vocabulary learning. Meara(1998) *argues* that 'the main difficulty … is that we just do not have a comprehensive theory of vocabulary acquisition which could be exploited to produce practical advice for how vocabulary should be taught' . *It is hoped that* the present research will contribute significantly to the comprehensiveness of this theory by demonstrating the degree of helpfulness that the vocabulary learning tasks examined in this study can provide to the students*'* learning and retention of previously un-encountered vocabularies.

In addition, teachers and textbook writers as well may be able to benefit from the finding of this study in designing their lessons and syllabuses in order to help the learners acquire new words more quickly and more efficiently, which is the ultimate goal of any language teaching program .Writing theory could also draw potential benefits from this work. L1 writing researchers(Flower and Hayes, 1977, among others) have mainly focused on the cognitive processes involved in writing, the various stages of the writing process, the strategies for improving the quality of writing, etc. Writing, with regard to vocabulary, should go a further step beyond practicing already learned lexical items to using and incorporating newly learned ones.

3. Method

3.1.Participants

There are 60 male and female intermediate learners ranging from 18 to 28 inage, who were studying English in a language institute in Tehran.

3.2.Instrumentation

A Nelson test was administered as a pilot test. The same Nelson test was administered as a homogeneity test. A vocabulary pre-test in sentence reading and a vocabulary pre-test in sentence writing were administered. Then, a vocabulary post-test in sentence reading and vocabulary post-test in sentence writing were administered.

3.3.Procedure

The Nelson proficiency test was administered to 60 participants. 41homogeneous learners comprised the research sample. The participants were randomly divided into two similar groups, one as a group in sentence reading(20 learners) and the other as a group in sentence writing(21 learners). A vocabulary pre-test in sentence reading group and sentence writing group was administered. The treatment was conducted within a 90-minuteclass period for10 sessions, in one term. In the reading task, semester learners were instructed to read each sentence once and to focus on understanding it. The reading task involved three sentences containing the target word in three different syntactic functions: as a noun, as a verb, and as an adjective. They read 30 sentences in each session.

In the writing group, in each session, for the writing tasks, participants were instructed verbally to write sentences of 10 words, and to use a different type of sentence each time. In most cases, the participants wrote the word as a subject, a direst object and an indirect object, as was shown in class as an example prior to testing for the writing task, participants were to write three sentences per time, with each sentence containing the target L2 words. In each session, the participants have practiced 10 words, It means30 sentences in each session. The post-test took place five days after the treatment session. A vocabulary post-test in sentence reading and vocabulary post-test in sentence writing were administered.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Piloting procedure and estimating reliability statistics for Nelson proficiency test and vocabulary test

Test	Number of Students	Number of Items	Excluded (Low Reliability,	Number of Items after Piloting	Reliability Method	Reliability

		before Piloting	High and Low Item Facility)			
Nelson	30	50	0	50	KR-21	.88
Vocabulary	30	35	5	30	Cronbach's Alpha	.85

4.2. Descriptive statistics for Nelson proficiency test

N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
60	16	9	25	16.73	16.50	16	3.741

4.3. Descriptive statistics for vocabulary pre-test in the two groups

Group	N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Std. Error Mean
Sentence reading	20	18.00	18.00	18	1.522	.340
Sentence writing	21	17.71	18.00	17	1.419	.310

4.4. Independent samples test to compare the vocabulary pre-test in the two groups

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
F	Sig.	T	D f	Sig.(2Tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference		Lower	Upper
.028	.869	.622	39	.538	.286	.459		-.643	1.215

Independent Samples Test revealed that there is no significant difference in mean vocabulary scores between two groups on pretest(t =.62, p =.53),in which the t-observed was less than the t-critical, 2.02, and the Sig. was more than .05(p > a). Then, it can be concluded that the two mean

vocabulary scores are not far from each other on pretest. Then the vocabulary posttests of the two groups were compared.

4.5. Descriptive statistics for the two groups on vocabulary post-test

Group	N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Std. Error Mean
Sentence Reading	20	20.95	21.00	21	2.038	.456
Sentence Writing	21	23.14	23.00	23	2.242	.489

4.6. Independent sample t-test to compare the vocabulary Post test in the two groups

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference		Lower	Upper
.296	.590	3.271	39	.002	-2.193	.670		-3.549	-.837

Independent Samples Test found a statistically significant difference in mean vocabulary scores between the two groups on post-test(t=3.27,p=.002),in which the t-observed was larger than the t-critical, 2.02, and the Sig. was lower than .05 (p<a). For that reason, the null hypothesis of this study which predicted that "Sentence writing is not more effective than sentence reading on incidental vocabulary learning" was rejected. Therefore, with 95% confidence, it can be concluded that sentence writing is more effective than sentence reading on vocabulary acquisition.

5. Conclusion

This study helps in the building of a writing theory that takes into account the effect of writing on the retention of new lexical items used in the activity of writing. The researcher hypothesized that sentence writing would induce deeper processing than merely matching target words to context

regardless of the discourse level and hence would result in better retention. The researcher has concluded that the process of writing requires deeper processing than process of reading. Taking composition writing as an example, the researcher has demonstrated that there are numerous mental processes. Fill-in-the-blank, by contrast, is considered a reading process that requires little semantic and syntactic processing of the target words and the contexts in which they exist for finding clues for selecting the appropriate words.

We have seen composition writing was the most influential task in this study with regard to its enhancement of vocabulary retention and development of other language-related aspects and skills. It is interesting to note that writing and vocabulary are mutually influential in that writing enhances learning and retention of vocabulary while vocabulary improves the quality of writing. We have seen that vocabulary retention was enhanced when the learners engaged in activities that required them to deeply process the new lexical items, both semantically and syntactically. The deeper and more frequent the processing, the better the retention was. It has also demonstrated the importance of rich contexts for lexical acquisition. Tasks with richer contexts made it easier for learners to retain the new words. So, the writing is better than reading in vocabulary acquisition or vocabulary learning for English foreign language learners in a second language. It is hoped that this study, in addition to its contribution to building a comprehensive vocabulary acquisition theory, can contribute to the process of building a comprehensive writing theory that takes into consideration, among other important variables, the role of the activity of writing in acquiring recently/newly learned words.

5.1. Pedagogical Implications

In this study, we have seen how certain vocabulary learning tasks can contribute to vocabulary acquisition. The researcher argues that sentence writing is the most useful task with regard to vocabulary acquisition and language acquisition in general. Writing original sentences is apparently very effective in enhancing the retention of newly learned vocabulary, based on the results of this study. This was ascribed to the deep processing of the target words which this task requires. But one of the drawbacks of this task is that it does not develop the communicative skills of the learners as the composition writing does.

However, like composition writing, writing original sentences can push the learners to use the new language in new contexts, provide the learners with more opportunities to practice the language they have already acquired, and test their hypotheses about other linguistic issues. If

sentence writing is to be used in the classroom for practicing new words, L2 teachers need to ensure that students write more meaningful and longer sentences, as this would require the learners to deeply process the new words. This is another important advantage that can be added to the various benefits of writing which have been discussed throughout this study.

In addition, writing activities give the teacher the opportunity to monitor the progress of his/her students and remedy any linguistic problems(including vocabulary) they might have. Forcing the learners to use the words productively is important, as some students might know the words but they are un motivated to use them.(Nation, 2001) .

Composition writing, however, differs from sentence writing in that it requires students to connect their sentences to create a coherent text. This process, in addition to the improving learners' communicative skills, has two important advantages with respect to vocabulary retention. One is the fact that students will be forced to write longer sentences in order to find better ways for expressing the ideas they might have and to link them with the preceding and following ones. The second advantage of composition writing has to do with the interdependence of the ideas and sentences in the created text. This important aspect of text writing makes it easier for writers to associate the target words with the ideas being expressed, and hence enhance their memory of the target words used.

5.2. Suggestions for Further Research

Teaching vocabulary needs to take into account how words are learned (Carter,1988). Therefore, more research is needed in this important area to discover the studies could investigate.

- The present study could be replicated with ESL and/or EFL learners whose first language is closer to English than Persian (i.e. the first language the subjects of this study).

- This study could also be replicated with students varying in their levels of proficiency.

- It would be very helpful for researchers in vocabulary learning studies to test both recall and recognition of the target words. For recognition, the researcher could give the subjects the list of the target words with their meanings and ask them to match each word with its meaning. Another way to do this is through a multiple choice test. The results of these tests would give us better insights into how much learning has taken place. Words that are recalled would indicate that they are learned better than words that are only recognized.

-      Barcroft (2000) has suggested the effect of vocabulary learning tasks on short and long-term retention needs to be investigated. Further research *could investigate* the effect of these tasks for different time intervals.

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Title

The Investigation of Identity Construction: A Foucauldian Reading of Sam Shepard's *Buried Child*

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Abstract

Shepard is peculiarly powerful in his symbolic family problem plays: *True West, Buried Child* and *Curse of the Starving Class*. He allegorizes the American experience and undermines the myth of America as the New Eden. The present study explored Sam Shepard's *Buried Child* in terms of Foucauldian conception of identity construction. Shepard is depicting a dystopian world with its bewildered characters; however he has still got a romantic view of individuals trying to grapple with the society in order to get unity and order. This Shephardian attitude towards human beings is seemingly a free agent that overlaps the Foucauldian view which establishes a philosophy focusing on the relationship between the self and the society. The present essay attempts to demonstrate the complicated relationship between the self and the opposing forces.

Keywords: Family problem plays, Technologies of power, Power/knowledge, Subjet

1.Introduction

The researcher has emphasized the pervasiveness of normalizing judgment in American society that makes the people fixated with lists that rank order everything in any relations. Foucault's studies address themselves explicitly to the question of the problematization of sexual activity, government, body, etc. however in turn they reveal the processes and practices through which subjectivity has been constituted. Foucault believes that modern society is a disciplinary society based on the mechanisms of panopticon which is a metaphor for a new kind of social regulation. It is a type of prison which is designed by Bentham. In this panopticon, the prison building is structured in a way that makes the inmates think they are permanently under inspection and control; this belief of constant visibility leads to self-surveillance. According to Foucault, power is a network or a web of relations which spreads throughout the society. Power is not a one way practice, only from top to bottom. It does not just come from those in authority; instead it manifests itself in many different ways and from many different points. Foucault is critical of the notion of power possessed by some people or institutions and the belief that power is only connected with limiting and oppressing. He believes that power is in the hands of multiple forces and it works through discourse. There is power in all human relations and it penetrates through society. A subject does not exist as naturally self-contained but is contrived by the double work of power and knowledge in order to maximize the operation of both. In fact power and knowledge are so inter-related that Foucault joined them into a single term: Power/ Knowledge. Indeed it is impossible for one to be without the other; systems of power require some truth to be derived to justify what they seek to do. Disciplines of knowledge constantly divide the population into separate categories which are the prime instruments of power.

Discourse is a key word in Foucauldian terms which is introduced in *Madness and Civilization* (1967). Foucault defines it as a system which is constituted of structures made by institutions that determine what is true and what is false in a particular field. A discourse is basically a system of knowledge that makes certain statements possible. "Foucault believes that discourse should be seen as a system which organizes the way we understand reality, not the reality itself" (cf. Mills, 2003 p.35).

2.Method

In this essay, the researcher endeavors to have a Foucauldian reading of Sam Shepard's *Buried Child*. After providing a brief survey of some of Foucault's main essays which have been referred

to in this article, the drama is discussed according to those theories. His theories regarding the omnipresence of power and the potent for resistance in a panoptic-like society are mostly discussed in this essay.

3.Discussion

Before getting deep into the analytic practice, clarification of the elemental terms used in this study seems necessary. Throughout his work Foucault was concerned with the development and formation of the concept of power. He believes that power is in the hands of multiple forces and it works through discourse. There is power in all human relations and it penetrates through society. "It directs the circulation of knowledge and discourse and forms our self image" (cf. Mills, 2003 p.35). Foucault puts it in the following way in Power/Knowledge coinage:

Power must be analyzed as something which circulates, or as something which only functions in the form of a chain…Power is employed and exercised through a net like organization…individuals are the vehicles for power, not its points of application (Foucault,1980).

Foucault criticizes this view, arguing in *History of Sexuality*, the first volume (1978), that power is something which is performed, something more like a strategy than a possession. Power should be seen as a verb rather than a noun, something that does something rather than something which is or which can be held onto. He portrays power as a major force in all relations within society. In an interview entitled "Power and Sex", Foucault argues that the multiple power relations are not easy to observe:

The relations of power are perhaps among the best hidden things in the social body… [Our task is] to investigate what might be most hidden in the relations of power; to anchor them in the economic infrastructures, to trace them not only in their governmental forms, but also in the intra-governmental or para-governmental ones; to discover the in their material play (1988).

Resistance is another concept readers would come across in this study. It is defined as the possibility of contesting power, in other words, any given individual may resist his or her position as a subject. Resistance is a part of a power relationship and is not external to it. According to Foucault, power and resistance coexist and they are dependent upon each other, in fact as Foucault believes "resistance is written into power" cf. Smart, 2003 p.133). In Volume I of *History of Sexuality*, Foucault states that "Where there is power, there is resistance and yet, or rather

consequently, this résistance is never in position of exteriority in relation to power" (95). This is an important and problematic statement. In order to be a relation where power is exercised, there has to be someone who resists. Foucault expands it so far as to claim that where there is no resistance, there is no power relation.

According to Foucault, individual is complete but society puts the pressure on it from the outside, and as a result, the society alters the individual's dreams and restricts its ability to express itself. Foucault disputes a model of individuality:

The individual is not to be conceived as a sort of elementary nucleus, a primitive atom, a multiple and inert material on which power comes to fasten or against which it happens to strike, and in so doing subdues or crushes individuals...The individual is an effect of power and…it is the element of its circulation (Foucault, 1980).

Power comes first and the individual is an effect of power, designed for it rather than by it. Therefore the individual is the material of power, a vehicle for power, even though it sees itself as free of power but in fact occurring. This model lets power to conceal itself and to operate so effectively.

Buried Child is the story of a seemingly united family with Dodge as the father and Halie, the mother. The day that the play starts, his wife, Halie, descends from the stairs, dressed completely in black, a mother in mourning at a wake for the family and also for something more significant. Vince, the grandson intrudes the house with her girl friend, Shelly, who is an outsider. She thinks she is going to enter a family like a "Norman Rockwell Cover" (p.83), of " turkey dinners and apple pie and all that kinda stuff" (p.91), but Shepard takes the upper hand and shatters these sweet images. He undercuts the mysticizations of the American nuclear family as it is understood by common people by showing the disparity between the real and the imagined. Shepard shows this family as one in denial, inhabiting a fetid atmosphere.

The act of incest, sexuality turned in on itself. It is a circular replication, the play starts and finishes with Halie talking to Dodge. Vince wants to reconnect with family and is fascinated in seeing the unseen pictures of the upstairs walls. They are traces of the family's heritage. His reflected image later became his father's face. Same bones. Same eyes. Same nose. Same breath. And his father's face changed to his grandfather's face. And it went on like that…clear on back to faces I'd never seen before but still recognized (p.130).

The outside world is reported barren since the child was buried there; however the older son, Tilden returns home with a handful of carrots. Being angry with his son who is the first to be suspicious of doing the incestuous act with his wife, Dodge decides to inherit the house to his grandson, Vince, who in turn, comes back home like a mad boy, hallucinating, due to being under such a great pressure of losing his once loved ones.

Shepard combines realistic and nonrealistic worlds. He never gives either world precedence, but he juxtaposes them in multiple dramatic actions or in a series of scenes. He does not resolve his work into a totally representational whole. Shepard provides the cohesiveness by juxtaposing various elements, from realistic moments of characterization and setting, combined with nonrealistic speeches and stage images. He combines contradictory actions in some of his plays for instance his Pultizer prize–winning *Buried Child*. In this drama we see a series of found selves which are juxtaposed to build the characters. Shepard, in *Buried Child*, links contradictory lines of actions and dramatizes sudden and puzzling transformations of various sides of a character. As a result, the dramatist is not alone in creating a work of art but he is engaged in a joined workshop of various objects, words or characters, taken from life.

Buried Child is an inquiry into the power relations of the American community. Shepard relates in *Buried Child* the life story of three generations of a family each is almost unknown and totally incompassionate to the preceding or even the following one. In this way he attempts to destabilize and replace the joyful and desirable dreams of the American Dream to catastrophic, undesirable ones, though this resistance is never in a position of exteriority.

3.1. Destabilizing Patriarchal Power

Shepard, in his second family play to be discussed in this thesis, examines staging of masculinity and shapes it within father and son relationships in which the son cannot deny or ignore the father figure. He strongly believes that certain characteristics inevitably are inherited from one's parentage. He states it in an interview, "It's like the structure of our bones, the blood that runs through our veins" (Rosen 8). Shepard himself talks about his same experience in his youth, a "macho image" of masculinity: "I know what this thing is about because I was a victim of it, it was part of my life, my old man tried to force on me a notion of what it was to be a "man" (Cott, 1986). In both *Buried Child* and *Curse*, sons are the origins of confrontation of masculinities, they are in conflict with the father figure even though they owe their origins and beings to them and their fulfillment of desires. The relation between the fathers and sons are blurred because the sons try

to confirm their claims to identity in and out of their families even though they fail to set themselves apart from their patriarchal heritage. In spite of the fact that Vince and Wesley have been away from their families for years, they cannot break away from their fathers in order to have some experiences with other images of masculinity. Although both plays have a troubled portrait of the relationship between husbands and wives and of siblings as well, the sons are the keys to solve in these two plays. Wesley and Vince try to escape from their patriarchal patterns of identification which is designed for them by their fathers or grandfathers.

The family in this drama is consisted of three generations of male characters that one by one enliven and affect the future of the family. Dodge and Halie, the grandparents exhibit a typical Shepardian couple, a drunk and inactive father and a worldly mother. They are estranged and contemptuous of each other even though they say that they have common grounds in being worried about their children. Halie's taking refuge mostly upstairs and Dodge's being left helpless on a couch, exhibit that the parents inhabit quiet different worlds, Dodge drinks and Halie philanders. The play opens with Dodge and Halie, the former on the couch and the latter upstage, engage in a conversation concerning Halie's previous liaison. Immediately after recalling that memory, their dialogue highlights the condition of Dodge's manhood. It becomes evident that he is completely impotent in facing with Bradley who is supposed to come that day in order to cut his hair in spite of Dodge's resentment. In effect, he is no longer capable to control his wife's actions, much less the actions of his sons due to his physical frailty and addiction to drinks. He, the family patriarch, is a failure as a man in abandoning the dissolution of his family and the failings of his sons.

At the beginning of the play, Halie talks about Tilden and how he used to have a great promise as a young man and used to be an "All American" (Shepard, 2009 p.16). Being confined in a jail in New Mexico and now again "confined" in his parental house, not having the permission to go out backyard or leave Dodge alone, since he has to attend the old man, he is half-crazy, slow- witted and has come back and resides in his parental house. The second son, Bradley, is a harsh man who intends to terrorize everyone but his mother. He is an amputee, and according to Halie, "chopped his leg off with a chain saw" (Shepard, 2009   p.14). Only the youngest, Ansel, is referred to by Halie as a "real" man for whom she wants to build a statue. It is reported that he was killed in a motel in his honeymoon; however, his mother wishes that it would be more desiring if he was killed in the war. The only person that seems to be a whole is Vince whom is not recognized by his father and grandfather at first. Like Austin and Lee in *True West*, Vince fled his family's failures

in order to make a new life six years before his second visit to his grandparents' house. He enters the house, accompanied by his girl friend Shelly; however the family fails to recognize him. Dodge asserts, "You are no son of mine. I've had sons in my time and you are not one of'em" (Shepard, 2009 p.35). Tilden, his father, tells him "I had a son once but we buried him" (Shepard,2009 p.35). In this way, Vince is deprived of his birthright and is dismissed by both his father and grandfather. In effect, one of the themes in Shepard's family dramas is the question of recognition and identity. How do the people know who? Nick Mansfield in his book *Subjectivity: Theories of the Self from Freud to Haraway* elaborates on Foucault's theories regarding aesthetics of existence and states: "Since there is no authentic or natural self that we can simply recover or struggle to liberate, subjects should be geared towards a dynamic self-creation, an experimental expansion of possibilities of subjectivity in open defiance of the modes of being that are being laid down for us constantly in every moment of our day-to-day lives"(2000).

The prodigal grandson returns but no one knows him or every one pretends not to know him. Vince tries to make his "self" known to others by doing some funny actions that he used to do but all in vein, no body shows any interest or let him do the "expansion of possibilities of subjectivity". Finally the father recognizes "the face within the face" (Shepard, 2009 p.58) which refers to the child within the man, the past behind the present. Tilden thinks that in his son, he sees his own image.

Each character in *Buried Child* is searching for his heritage, as if it's something to be found in other characters' belongings or something that had been hidden somewhere in the backyard. Dodge, the grandfather traces his roots back to the grave and as the play reaches its end, he appears to be disintegrating into the dust. "The Symbol of this mordant clan, the American family gone to seed- is the buried child of the title, an infant who has mysteriously disappeared" (Bloom, 2003). The play concerns three lost generations of one family, none feels rightly fitted in its place. The grandfather is the first to take the throne, sofa; he has been replaced, lingers without purpose and resorts alcohol for a moment of relaxation. Tilden has misplaced his reason, unable to function in an adult society. The grandson is displaced because he cannot find his origin, the place to be belonged to. None can occupy the sofa long. "No power relation is "a five-thousand-year wonder", as Foucault states. That is "mysteriously and permanently constructed"; it is challenged and undermined from within. In fact "resistance is never in a position of exteriority in relation to power" (*Foucault* 1978). Dodge's power has been subverted by his grandson. Nevertheless

resisting any kind of power has its own consequences. During the play Dodge orders both Vince and Shelly. Even he shouts at Tilden to "leave that girl (Shelly) a lone" (Shepard, 2009 p.29). However in the last act, Vince comes back like a commander ordering his soldiers in complete force and power; he dethrones Dodge from his sofa, pulling him down, then lies down in his place. In effect, Vince resists Dodge's power in the house and upon coming back home behaves severely to destabilize the patriarch's power.

"To those unfamiliar with the work of Mr. Shepard, the play itself may seem to be coming from out of nowhere. Actually it has its roots firmly in America, and in our concept of the family as an ideal (Bloom 39). In *Buried Child*, the events are seen through the eyes of an outsider, a young girl who is the grandson's girl friend and accompanies him in his journey into his past. However what she finds is contrary to expectation. She expects to find "apple pie and turkey dinner." (Shepard, 2009, p.20) instead she faces brutality, cynicism and infantilism.

In his investigation of power relations, *Discipline and Punish* (1975), Foucault contends that "power and knowledge directly imply one another ... there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations", moreover he affirms that "the subject he knows, the object to be known and the modalities of knowledge" are the "fundamental implications of power-knowledge and their historical transformations" (27-28). Then they must be analyzed if one is to come to any understanding of "power relations". The notion that "power and knowledge directly imply one another" is vividly illustrated in the picture Shepard portrays of Dodge, the patriarch and how he is subverted by Halie, his wife, just because she knows the family heritage; "Halie is the one with the family album. She's the one you should talk to. She'll set you straight on the heritage if that's what you're interested in. She's traced it all the way back to the grave" (Shepard, 2009 p.61). It is evident that Halie has never been totally allegiant to her husband, even though as a maternal figure in the family, she is expected to keep the records intact and pure. However Halie, considering the act of incest, was a failure to do so, because in the play Dodge speaks of a child, Halie bore but he did not father. Her control over the "heritage" highlights the position of woman within the family; it is the woman's chastity, the female figure in the family who should keep the male line pure. Therefore, it is made apparent that "Halie is the one ultimately in control of the family line because the heritage of the father and son must pass though the body of a woman, out of paternal control and into maternal control, a fact that raises male fears and results in numerous

betrayals in this play" (Mc Donough, 1963). During the play, Halie is mostly kept off-stage, and is often ignored by Dodge whose fear of "maternal control" makes him subvert the audience's attention from what Halie does. Halie honors the heritage regarding Ansel, her "All-American son"; however it is denied by Dodge furiously. He does not want to pinpoint the past betrayals because they discredit the family heritage in addition to its negative reflection on his identity as the family patriarch; Dodge insists that his version of the story is truthful and Shelly should know that, if she is to know at all. He wants to be evaluated in terms of the present, saying "that isn't me! That never was me! This is me. Right here" (Shepard,2009 p.62). He tries to forget his past. Calling attention to his name he seems to be dodging any responsibility for past events.

Vince returns home in the hope of a warm welcome, however he is not recognized at all. His search of identity is a matter in past which is in question in this family; therefore his arrival which recalls past memories is not welcomed by Dodge. His being derived makes him crazy but instead of fighting to regain his identity, he leaves the house, pretending to go to buy a bottle of whiskey for Dodge. He leaves Shelly in the house. She wakes up in the morning thinking that she is the only one in the house. She tells Dodge, "the feeling that nobody lives here but me. I mean every body's gone. You're here but it doesn't seem like you're supposed to be" (Shepard, 2009 p.55). In fact this is the true situation in the house. She is as much a part of the house as other occupants. Dodge is solely concerned with his whiskey and keeping his blanket (It seems to be it's his infantile obsession). Tilden is a passerby in the play. He wonders off and on stage bringing in corns and carrots evidently from nowhere. His use of short sentences to answer other people's questions shows that he is not operating in the same level as other people in the play are doing. Bradley wants to terrorize the house, cutting Dodge's hair while he is asleep or putting his fingers in Shelly's mouth in a symbolically raping act, but once his wooden leg is taken from him, he ends up helplessly. Halie goes out for lunch however does not come back until the next day. Generally speaking, none of them consider the house as their home.

Even though Shelly feels at home when she wakes up the next morning, but she cannot have any claim over the house which is due to her being disconnected biologically with these people. However, within the short time after her arrival, she succeeds in uncovering the secret of this family, the secret which Dodge tries to hide or even deny, the family's curse concerning the child of Halie that Tilden loved and nursed (that may have been his own child) and that Dodge drowned and buried in the backyard. This knowledge of the secret, however, does not bring any power for

her in the family due to her lack of heritage. Because she is not a member of the family, she cannot control it but she can escape its confines. While she is the only one awake and in good health in the family, she prepares beef bouillon and offers it to Dodge. She drinks it herself when Dodge resists. His resistance, in Foucault's terms, is in fact not against drinking but against domination, he is afraid of being kept under her dominance. According to Foucault power and resistance coexist and yet they are dependent upon each other. In fact as Foucault believes, "resistance is written into power" (cf. Smart, 2003). In Volume I of *The History of Sexuality*, Foucault states that "where there is power, there is resistance and yet or rather consequently, this resistance is never in position of exteriority in relation to power" (1978). In turn, when Halie offers whisky to Shelly, while she (Shelly) has never been in position of power to tally in the family, she rejects the offer, symbolically subverting Halie's exertion of power on her. Given the family and its treatment of her, Shelly's assertion of control is clearly a temporary survival measure. At the end of the play she decides to leave the house because, as it was discussed she can but Vince cannot.

Unlike Shelly, Vince is not aware of the secret but he is bound to his family, therefore even though he is not wanted by his father and grandfather, he returns in Act III and recounts the story of his unsuccessful attempt to escape from the family: "I was gonna run last night. I was gonna run and keep right on running" (Shepard, 2009 p.59). But during this long drive, he could see his face in the windshield and face to face with himself, he studied the image "as though I was looking at another man" (Shepard,2009 p.59). What he sees is in fact his being bound to the family, his heritage from which he cannot escape.

"His face changes: His face became his father's face. Same bones. Same eyes. Same nose. Same breath. And his father's face charged to his grandfather's face. And it went on like that. Changing. Clear back to faces I'd never seen before but still recognized. Still recognized the bones underneath. The eyes. The breath. The mouth. I followed my family clear to Iowa. Every last one" (Shepard, 2009 p.65).

Dodge says his "last will and testament". Before this he speaks very short. Even though he has been the patriarchy in the family but he has to wait till his seeming monologue at the end of his life so that his sound is heard. He wills the house to the "grandson, Vincent" (Shepard 2009). Although the eldest son, Tilden is alive but his child-like behavior makes him unfit to inherit the patriarchy. Instead, he turns to the now powerful presence of Vince who acts a violent, military-style masculinity on his second return to the house, throwing beer bottles as if they are bombs.

The grown son engages in second powerful action which highlights Vince's sudden transformation from a prodigal son to a "Midnight Strangler [who]...devours whole families" (Cima, 1986) in his attempt to find himself. Ironically, Vince's ignorance of his own corpse and the curse reality hidden behind it condemn him to the same anaesthetized state that the grandfather had assumed at the beginning of the play. He eagerly takes the position of the family patriarch which is not a stance of stability and power. In the last scene while Vince lies on the couch that Dodge, now dead, used to lie, Tilden enters with the corpse and in this way the Oedipal secrets of Tilden, Halie and Dodge are uncovered; Vince is the "Child that remains buried in his family history" (Mc Donough, 1963). He decides to continue the family's path by announcing "I've got to carry on the line" (Shepard, 2009 p.65). Here there are two possible contrary consequences for the play. On one hand it is evident that Vince seems not to be able to confirm his claim to "carryon the line". On the other hand, he is the one who brings virility to the house by his acting like a soldier, taking back the house, but he settles into Dodge's former place on the couch, the seat of impotence and ultimate death.

Vince's return to the house directs Halie's attention to the vision of fertility that Tilden has discovered in the backyard. In the last scene, the two corpses, Dodge and the body are in the stage along with Tilden and the drunken Vince. From upstairs, Halie talks about what she sees outside in the backyard: "It's like a paradise out there, Dodge. You oughta' take a look. A miracle ... I've never seen a crop like this in my whole life. Maybe it's the sun" (Shepard,2009 p.54). Halie talks about fertility, life, however, the final scene portrays the visual image of death; in fact the visual image of death and the linguistic image of birth confront each other which this happens in all his three family plays. In *True West* and *Curse* the conflict of death and birth question the male identity; in *Buried Child*, the father of the son is still in question at the close of the play.

The patriarchal inheritance for the sons in *Buried Child* is inescapable. Even as Vince tries to free the secrets, he is made to accept his father's or grandfather's roles because the only way that he can recognize himself is through his father. However death accompanies each recognition. His identity is not born so much but it is to disappear into new and deadly roles.

4. Findings

No one denies that once there was a child, born, but later killed; however, like other plays of child murder, there is a symbolic suggestion of incest which should be defended or possibly rejected.

Fertility is one of the main focuses of Shepard in all his dramas and in fact in *Buried Child*, especially the myth of fertility and the link between bodily health and the health of the land are portrayed. The bareness of the field behind the house and the decline of the farm seem interrelated to Dodge's declining health: "You sit here day and night, festering away! Decomposing!" (Shepard, 2009 p.14).

Drawing on Foucault's theory of power, it has been discussed that three generations of a family live in a farm house in *Buried Child*. They resist the stabilized codes of behavior of their community, while none of them is ever punished or abandoned from the community. Shepard subverts the concept of human "self" as a rational, knowable entity by portraying the splintered "self" and irrational, unpredictable of the characters' conducts. Each character replaces the other one as each passes Dodge's sofa to the next one. Pretending to go out to buy drink for his grandfather, Vince leaves the house to find a way to cope with the new situation and come to some understanding; however he returns like a violent intruder and takes control of the house; in fact he destabilizes the patriarchal power.

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Title

The Study of the Relationship between Test method Factor and Advanced EFL Learners' Performance in Reading Comprehension Skill

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Abstract

Although reading is generally recognized as the most important academic language skill, a better understanding of the test method factors influencing measurement of reading comprehension may motivate teachers to study more about different test methods, their advantages and disadvantages and their application. The present study attempted to investigate the relationship between two test methods—multiple-choice and true/false tests—and advanced EFL learners' performance in reading comprehension skill. Eighty B.A students (47 females, 33 males) from Azad University-South Tehran branch who were between 20 and 24 years old took part in this study. The number of participants was reduced to 60 because of either being absent on exam sessions or leaving the test sessions very soon. This study was conducted in three test sessions. In the first session, the students answered a Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) which was necessary for assuring advanced level proficiency of them, and in the second session they took a multiple choice reading comprehension test; and finally in the last session, with an interval of two weeks, they took the same reading comprehension test, but in a true/false format. The data were analyzed using paired sample t-test, for measuring the same groups on both multiple choice and true/false tests. Results indicated that the students taking part in this study did a better job in doing true/false test rather than multiple choice test.

Keywords: Multiple choice tests, True / False tests, Reading comprehension

1. Introduction

Without passing a test, we cannot prove that we are competent for getting a driver᾽s license, applying for a job, or mastering in a specific skill. That is why if you go to IELTS classes and ask students why you spend lots of time, energy and money to come to IELTS class, they will answer you that they want to have evidence for their knowledge in each particular skill.

In addition, division of language skills into speaking, listening, reading and writing has not been changed for centuries. But, the emphasis on particular language skill in a particular period has been changing throughout centuries. For instance, with the development of printing and heavy reliance of both teachers and students on books in the middle of the 15th century, the need to develop reading skill was clearly obvious. Everybody came to the common conclusion that if an individual is interested to be an active participant in modern society, reading skill should be an integral part of his/her life. The ability to read provides academic success as well as success throughout life (Irlen, 1991).

So, reading is an important skill to help people learn from human knowledge and experience. Through reading, knowledge greatly contributes to the growth of mankind. It is by reading that we can show others that we are in a high academic level. Hung and Tzeng (2001) assert that reading is the fastest and simplest way to raise people᾽s educational level. Given this importance, reading ability is assessed in many high-stakes language exams, such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the Test of English as International Communication (TOEIC), and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). To construct the reading comprehension tests, test constructors can use different test formats, according to their interest, experience, time for scoring, and the purpose of reading comprehension test. But, multiple choice tests are the most common measure of reading comprehension in research and presented in standardized tests (Frith&Snowling, 1983; Jenkins & Fuchs, 2003; Lahey, McNess, & Brown, 1973; Nesi et al., 2006; Norbury& Bishop, 2002; O᾽Conner & Klein, 2004). This popularity of multiple choice tests has also been confirmed in Higgins and Tatham (2003) study by mentioning that multiple choice tests are in use for a variety of tests ranging from driving tests to standard attainment tests for schoolchildren.

In spite of the fact that multiple choice tests have some shortcomings such as difficulty of construction, not being able to measure accurately and fairly whether the students understand the concept of the specific subject or just by wiseguessing they could answer the tests correctly,

Johnston (1984) states that multiple choice items are "probably the most researched, most maligned, most difficult to construct, most abused, yet most functional of all items" (p. 59). Another type of tests, which will be the focus of this study are True-false tests .True/false tests are suited for evaluating students knowledge of specific facts and concepts. Like multiple choice tests, true/false tests are objective in that there is only one correct answer and students, especially impulsive ones, will not have any problem in answering these tests. In spite of this easiness of answering, teachers should not simply accept the right answer of students and ask them why the answer is correct or the wrong choices are not correct (ibid).

Furthermore, unequal proportions of true and false items are reported in recent answer key analysis of high -stakes examinations. In Addition to that, it is difficult to write true/false tests, because sometimes test constructors are in a big dilemma about considering an item as a true or false, because that item can be both true and false according to different perspectives (ibid).

Fort and Yalch (1982) suggested, among other things, that "a multiple choice quiz may have been a better alternative than their true/false quiz because it can be designed to discourage guessing and would assess alternative interpretations of the message that might be considered acceptable" (p. 30). Gates and Hoyer

(1986) study about comparison of alternate test methods show high rate of miscomprehension for both test formats. However, there was some indication that the true/false tests were more difficult for subjects to answer correctly.

1.1. Statement of the problem

When we want to choose between wide varieties of types of the same thing, we usually face a significant problem. The reason for this problem is that we cannot find a thing that has all the factors that we need .This is true also in testing; we have wide variety of testing methods that we cannot say which of test methods is the best and each of them has its advantages and disadvantages. The problem is that some scholars such as Simkin and Kuechler (2003) believe that there is no significant difference between multiple choice and true/false tests but the researcher thinks that there is a considerable difference between the nature of these two types of tests and their effects on learning language especially reading comprehension skill; Accordingly, the main purpose of this study is to take into consideration the differences between multiple choice and true/false tests and to see whether there is a difference in their impact on reading comprehension of Advanced EFL Learners.

1.2. Significance of the study

There is a gap in research about item formats and their influence on reading comprehension. This study focuses on both multiple choice and true/false tests but, even within an item format such as multiple choices, the quality and intensity of the reading comprehension process that test-takers engage in can vary considerably across items, with adding another test format such as true/false, this process will become more complicated. This study attempts to compare multiple choice tests with true/false tests and then to see whether there is a difference in their impact on reading comprehension.

Accordingly, the results of this study will be significant to a number of people. This study is going to help the teachers of English as a foreign language to improve the quality of multiple choice and true/false tests that they themselves construct for their students. Students would also benefit from the findings of this study since they will get familiar with strategies for responding to these types of tests.

1.3. Research question

Q1: Do multiple choice tests in contrast with true/false tests have any significant effect on EFL learner̓s reading comprehension skill?

1.4. Research hypothesis

Based on the above research test, the following null hypothesis is formulated:

H1: Multiple choice tests in contrast with true/false tests do not have any significant effect on EFL learner̓s reading comprehension skill.

1.5. Definition of Key Terms

The key terms of the present study are as follows:

1.6. Multiple choice tests:

Mandernach (2003) declared that multiple choice test is a type of assessment of student̓s knowledge in which they should select the best possible answer to the test out of the given choices. Multiple choice tests consist of a stem and a set of options. The stem may be written either as a test or as an incomplete statement. Both writing and fulfilling a good multiple-choice test requires serious thought, critical thinking, reasoning, comprehension, application, and good abilities of analysis and a range of skills and knowledge.

1.7. True/false tests:

True/false tests typically present a declarative statement that the student must mark as either true or false. Instructors generally use true- false items to measure the recall of factual knowledge such as names, events, dates, definitions, etc.

(Michael Tansey, 1989, p. 12)

1.8. Reading comprehension:

Heilman, Blair, and Rupley (1998) defined reading comprehension as the active process of constructing meaning from written text with regard to readers᾿ experiences, language, cultural framework.

2. Studies related to the present research

Many researchers have done a lot of studies on the effect of test formats on reading comprehension. These studies showed that reading comprehension of the examinees is affected by the characteristics of the test format and that constructed response types are generally more difficult than selected response types. But the results are not conclusive; some studies such as Liu (1998) showed there were significant differences among different test formats. Liu used multiple-choice tests, true or false tests and short answer tests in his reading comprehension test.

The results showed that "test methods affected the subjects᾿ performance on reading comprehension tests, and that high-proficient students were more easily affected than low-proficient students" (p. 145). However, using the same three test methods in a reading comprehension test, Sun (2001, p. 147) drew different conclusions.

In addition, Bachman (1990) prepared a framework for characterizing the facets of test methods that influence performance on language tests. These facets can be classified into five sets: (1) the testing environment, (2) the test rubric, (3) the nature of the input the test taker receives, (4) the nature of the expected response, and (5) the relationship between input and response. He believes that test performance is influenced by the characteristics of the method used to extract test performance, and that made response types are normally more difficult than chosen response types.

In fact, Shohamy (1984) discovered that test methods affected how readers performed on a test of reading comprehension, and that open questions were more difficult than multiple-choice questions, and the effect was greater on low proficient readers. Wolf (1993) conducted a similar experiment; he also found that open-ended questions were more difficult than multiple-choice questions. The comparison made between matching and T/F/NG had revealed that there is not a

significant difference between the performances of the participants on the test in these two groups, the probability level is .723. And the comparison made between matching and multiple-choice showed that the performance of the participants on the test is not significant too, the probability level is .063. The difference between the performance of the participants of the test, in T/F/NG and multiple-choice is significant i.e. .008.

As the results showed, task characteristics have a significant effect on the learners᾽ performance in the IELTS reading tests. All teachers and test developers ought to pay attention to test characteristics especially those which were utilized in this study, i.e. the degree of being communicative, and the difference in expected response. Teachers should be aware of task characteristics and try to use the test which best suit the students᾽ needs. The participants did better in T/F/NG then matching and multiple-choice. The participants on the T/F/NG and matching did better than the multiple-choice group. It can be inferred that multiple- choice task is a kind of traditional test that students need more practice in mastering the strategies to answer.

Robinson (1995) points to the need for understanding task difficulty or complexity when he says that research into one area, the relative difficulty or complexity of second language tasks, is essential as input to educational decisions concerning the grading and sequencing of tasks for the aims of syllabus design. Any issue that influences the grading and sequencing of language teaching is unavoidably related to the selection, grading, and sequencing of items on the related language tests. As a result, this task difficulty issue has become an important one in language performance testing, too. As a starting point, let᾽s once again mention Robinson (1995). He tries to understand the features involved in task complexity by inspecting what he calls:

1. Referential complexity
2. Structural complexity
3. Processing complexity

He also reflects on issues that he names lexical load and memory demands. He discovers that "…differences in measures of learner production are a consequence of differences in the cognitive load imposed by the tasks-a claim generalizable to tasks of many different kinds. The better the attentional memory and reasoning demands of tasks, the better the cognitive load they compel on the learner".

Robinson, Chi-chien, and Urwin (1996), explored the effects of three other factors on the difficulty of speaking, writing and listening tasks:

1. Cognitive load
2. Planning time
3. Prior information

Skehan (1996) offered a framework for the implementation of task-based instruction, which signifies that the following three features are important to sequencing and grading of tasks:

1. Accuracy
2. Complexity
3. Fluency

Skehan (1996) also proposed a framework of factors that influence the difficulty of a task:

1.Code complexity, that is, the "traditional areas of syntactic and lexical difficulty and range"

2. Cognitive complexity containing processing ("the amount of on-line computation that is needed while doing a task, and stresses the extent to which the learner has to actively think through task content") and familiarity ("the extent to which the task draws on ready-made or pre-packaged solutions")

3. Communicative stress, which contains time pressure, modalities, scale of relationships (number of participants and relationships),

stakes, and control (degree to which learners control the task)

Brindley and Slatyer (2002) explored the effects of task characteristics and conditions (speech rate, text type, number of hearings, live vs. audio-recorded input source, and item format) on students' performances on comprehension tasks. They found that: The complexities of the relations between task characteristics, item characteristics and candidate responses that they came across in this study propose that simply adjusting one task-level variable will not automatically make the task easier or harder. Given the complexities, they discovered that the rather simplistic notion of 'difficulty' as reproduced in item difficulty statistics is of limited usefulness in understanding what happens when an individual candidate communicates with an individual item.

Bachman (2002) considers the complexity subjects of task-based language performance evaluation. He demands the mixing of tasks and constructs (a sort of the traditional forms of evidence-based construct validity and content validity as best he can understand it) as a solution

to the problem, but presents no evidence that such integration will make any difference in disentangling the complexities engrossed in task-based testing.

Freedle and Fellbaum (1987) also found that lexical overlap assisted to justify multiple-choice item difficulty in the TOFEL test of single sentence comprehension such that item options that contain greater lexical overlap with the stimulus sentence tented to be related to the easier items. The cognitive demand of the questions in comprehension can also cause difficulty. Cognitive demand was defined afresh in terms of three levels, simple inference (inferring the meaning of words from the context), complex inference (requiring the interpretation of relationships between elements in the text not explicitly stated), and evaluative (making an evaluative assessment of the elements in the text). These three categories representing the demand level of the questions and the cognitive process involved formed a convenient "taxonomy" of cognitive skills in reading comprehension.

Enright et al. (2000) believe that the tests that are made to test reading skills can be made more or less difficult by various linguistic parameters like: vocabulary, syntactic complexity, transition markers, antecedent reference, modality, amount of text and time allocated, cohesion. The linguistic variable are related to difficulty, however, only insofar as the task makes them relevant, i.e., if a simple locating task is selected to test a question of fact, the possible impact of most of the linguistic variables is minimized.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study are BA students of Azad University, South Tehran branch. The researcher chose three classes of English translation major which consisted of 80 students. They were the sophomore undergraduate students. These 80 participants included 47 females and 33 males between the ages of 20 and 24 years of age.

3.2. Instrumentation

Instruments used for this study were three types of tests. The first, the TOEFL proficiency test, consisted of the one structure part and two reading passages which was selected from the Barroṅ s book how to prepare for the TOEFL test 10 TH edition. The second test consisted of four reading passages and it is worth mentioning that these multiple choice tests were chosen by the researcher from the book "Actual TOEFL test".

In view of the fact that the goal of this research was to compare the effect of multiple choice and true/false tests on reading comprehension of learners, the researcher for preparing the third test changed the same multiple choice tests into true/false tests.

Regarding the reliability of our test containing both multiple choice tests and true/false items, we used Cronbach Alpha which equaled 0.81 which is an acceptable index of reliability.

3.3. Procedures

The tests were administered within three sessions. In the first session, the researcher distributed the TOEFL test and answer sheets among the students. Although it was a place on top of the answer sheet for writing name, the researcher put numbers, as codes, for every answer sheet. The reason for putting number was the need to compare the scores of the same students in three aforementioned tests. Another reason was that if students forgot to write their names, the numbers would help the researcher because, the same number was given to the same person in these three sessions.

Actually students had 40 minutes to answer 45 tests of the model test 7 of Barroṅ s book, but as it was previously mentioned, just the structure part and two reading passages excluding the listening part. The researcher omitted the listening part because the students know that the test was for collecting data for research and so they were not interested to answer the listening part. Furthermore, the goal of TOEFL test in this study is to homogenize the students and the structure and reading comprehension part is enough for achieving this goal. Those students whose TOEFL score were more than the mean were selected as advanced EFL learners.

In the second session, the students answered 40 multiple choice reading comprehension tests in 45 minutes. However, the reading passages that the researcher had chosen for the second test session of this study were unequal in number, the researcher limited them to 10 tests for each passage by adding or eliminating tests. Finally, students also took part in the third session with a two -week interval after the second session and the time needed to answer true/false tests was the same as multiple choice ones. The researcher prepared true/false tests for this session by changing the same multiple choice tests of the second session into true/false.

Therefore, the researcher perceived two weeks interval as appropriate for keeping balance between the memory factor and change in the students' behavior. By memory factor, we mean the students may perform differently on the third session because either they have learned something from the test administered before, or they have memorized some of the items from the second

session. A two-week interval is necessary especially in this study that true/false tests are the same as multiple choice tests. If the interval was longer than two weeks, students' abilities may change from one administration to another.

However, 10 participants were removed from the data analysis because they were absent in one or two sessions of the test. Being absent was not acceptable in this study because the same students should take the proficiency test and the same reading comprehension test in two formats which will be explained in instruments part of this chapter. In addition to that the data for another 10 students were also eliminated because they did not answer all the tests or they left the exam session after 10 or 15 minutes which is impossible to answer TOEFL test in that much limited time. Finally, 37 females and 23 males or 60 was the total number of remaining participants.

3.4. Design

The independent variable of this research is test type (multiple choice and true/false tests) and the dependent variable is reading comprehension. Regarding the nature of the research question and hypothesis of this study, this study is descriptive in methodology. In addition, this study has ex post facto design since the researcher does not have control over the selection and manipulation of the independent variable.

4. Data analysis

Paired-Sample t-test was used to compare the multiple choice and true/false test scores. Paired-Sample t-test was utilized since the reading comprehension mean score of the same groups via two test method factors (multiple choice and true/false tests) were compared.

4.1. Research Question and its statistical analysis

In this study, we were concerned with advanced students; therefore, we need to assure that the participants stand at advanced level of proficiency. To ascertain this idea, we administered a TOEFL to a number of students, as was described in detail in the previous chapter, collecting data to classify participants on the basis of their proficiency. Table 4.1 illustrates the findings.

Table 4. 1. Descriptive Statistics of Students Scores on TOEFL

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TOEFL	60	8	40	18.08	7.34
Valid N (listwise)	60				

Table 4.1 shows that 60 students took the TEFL test. The minimum and maximum scores were 8 and 40 respectively and the average mean score was 18.08 with the standard deviation of 7.34.

Before sorting advanced students out of the other participants, we should look at the normality of our scores distribution. Running SPSS, we get the following pieces of information in this regard. First, some other descriptive statistics are obtained in which one output is of our concern, that is 5 percent trimmed mean; this piece of information tells us that if we remove extreme cases from our data, the mean should not change much. Table 4.2 shows this issue. As seen, the mean value we got from the previous analysis was 18.08, and the one obtained by removing extreme cases is 17.59 which is close in amount to the already obtained mean; therefore, there is no need for further investigation of the issue of data containing outliers or not.

Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics of TOEFL Scores in Full

			Statistic	Std. Error
TOEFL	Mean		18.08	0.948
	95% confidence interval for mean	Lower Bound	16.19	
		Upper Bound	19.98	
	5% trimmed mean		17.59	
	Median		15.50	
	Variance		53.87	
	Std. deviation		7.34	
	Minimum		8	
	Maximum		40	
	Range		32	
	Interquartile range		12	
	Skewness		0.990	0.309
	Kurtosis		0.273	.608

At the bottom of Table 4.2., there are two numbers relating to skewness and kurtosis. Skewness refers to symmetry of the distribution, while kurtosis refers to peakedness of the distribution. Usually, the value of kurtosis and skewness for a normal distribution ranges between -2 and +2, which applies here. Table 4.3 illustrates Test of Normality which is called Kolmogrov-Smirnov. This one evaluates the normality of the distribution of scores as well.

Table 4. 3. Result of Normality Test of Kolmogorov-Smirnov

	Kolmogrov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
TOEFL	0.192	60	0.06	0.892	60	0.06

Lillefors Significance Correlation

A non-significant result, that is Sig values more than 0.05, indicates normality. In our case, the Sig value is greater in amount than our set Sig value of 0.05, then we have not violated the assumption of normality here. Normality can also be inspected through normal probability plots, for example, Q-Q plots. In these plots, according to Pallant (2005), "the observed value for each score is plotted against the expected value from the normal distribution; a reasonably straight line suggests a normal distribution" (p. 58). As can be seen in Figure 4.1, we have an almost straight line and the reason for being a little curved is that we have not a large sample in our study.
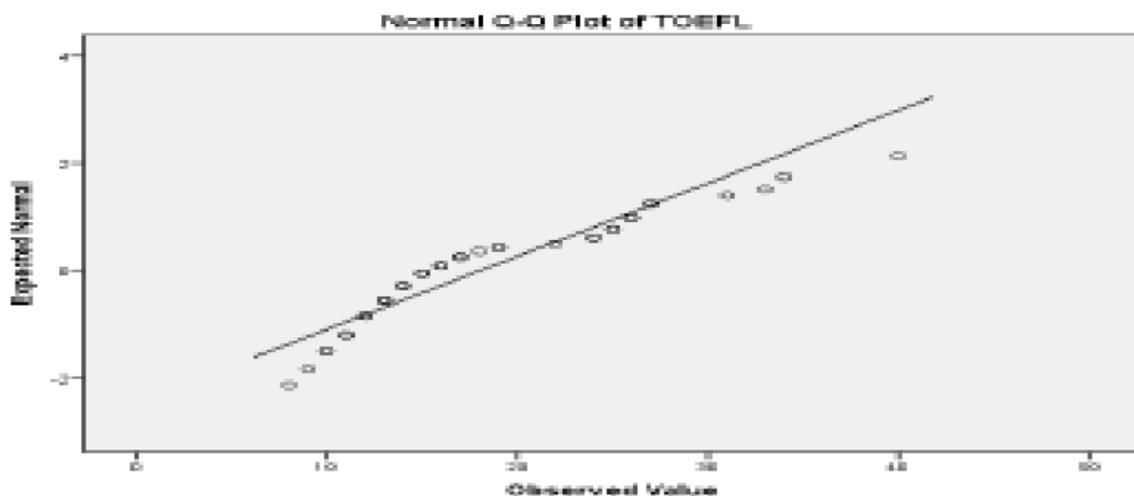
Figure 4.1. Normal Probability Plot of TOEFL Scores

Now that we have a normal distribution, then we take those who are above the mean as the advanced level participants. The number of participants above the mean comes to 24. Then we would like to investigate whether these participants have a different performance when exposed to multiple choice tests vs. true/false tests. In fact, their reading ability is tested through these two modes of testing.

In this study, we have one group of participants examined by two modes of tests: MC and True/False reading comprehension tests. The most appropriate statistical analysis is paired sample t-test and that is when you measure the same person on two measures. To run paired sample t-test, each participant should answer both types of reading comprehension tests: Multiple choice tests and true/false tests. The descriptive statistics for the scores obtained on these two types of tests are represented in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.4. Descriptive Statistics of MCQ and T/FQ

	Mean	N	Std. deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 MCQ	15.00	21	7.21	1.53
T/FQ	21.04	21	5.34	1.14

Table 4.5.illustrates that participants had a better performance on true/false reading comprehension tests with the mean score of 21.04 and standard deviation of 5.34 rather than multiple choice ones with the average mean score of 15.00 and standard deviation of 7.21. Figure 4.2.below graphically displays the results.
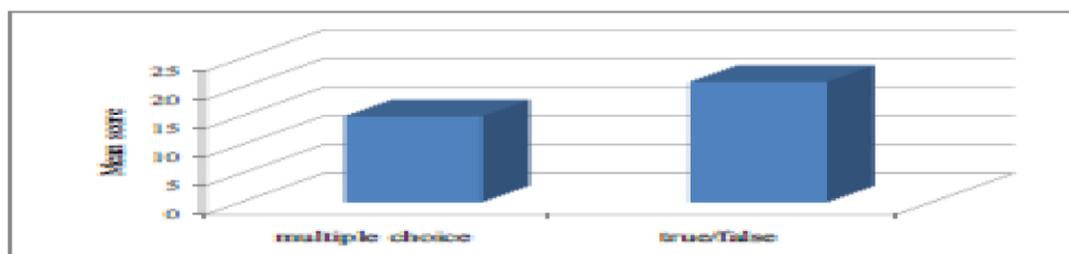
Figure 4.2. Mean Scores for Multiple-choice and True/False Tests

In order to determine the overall significance, let's take a look at Table 4.5. The last column is called Sig. and this is the probability value of the study. When this value is less than 0.05, then there is a significant statistical difference between two sets of scores.

Table 4.5. Result of Paired-Sample t-test of MC and True/False Scores

	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. Error mean	95% confidence interval of difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 MCQ T/FQ	-6.04	5.13	1.09	-8.32	-3.77	5.52	21	0.000

Another piece of information is to spot which set of scores stand higher.

Another output which provides valuable information when working with paired sample t-test, is the effect size. It is also known as strength of association.

According to Pallant (2005), it is "a set of statistics which indicates the relative magnitude of the differences between means" (p. 175). There is a formula by which we can obtain the effect size. Eta squared = $\frac{t^2}{t^2+N-1}$ Eta squared = 30.47/30.47+21= 0.59

Cohen (1988) interpreted the result of eta squared this way: 0.01= small effect, 0.06= moderate effect, and 0.14 = large effect; we have obtained 0.59 which is a large effect signifying that there is a substantial difference between set of scores obtained through true/false reading comprehension tests and multiple choice reading comprehension tests. So far, we have found out that students taking part in this study did a better job in doing true/false tests rather than multiple choice tests. The reason why this is the case comes in the following section when we first summarize the whole study then discuss the results, and finally try to put forward suggestions for future research in designing multiple choice and true/false tests for different groups of examinees.

5. Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to see whether the advanced students perform better on true/false tests than multiple choice tests after enhancing their knowledge on English. The discussion is about performing better on multiplechoice or true/false tests .The research data gathered in this study shows that advanced level students performed better on true/false tests. The justification for this better performance was that advanced level students usually deal with multiple choice tests and nottrue/false tests. We perceived that participants of this study obtained higher scores on true/false tests. Four options of the multiple choice tests might confuse the learner by the examples s/he has never thought about. That will definitely lead to frustration, and consequently to the false measure and another reason for this confusion is that in our everyday life we have to choose between two alternatives. Another reason that advanced learners performed better on true/false teststhan multiple choice one is that the multiple choice tests test only recognition knowledge and not inferential knowledge that advanced level students are good at this inferential knowledge. Finally, considering that participants of this study first answered multiple choice tests and then the same tests but in a true/false format, the familiarity of the participants with the reading passages may help them to perform better on true/false tests.

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Title

Narrative Techniques in E.L. Doctorow's *Ragtime*

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Abstract

The use of various narrative techniques in postmodern novels has always been a significant point of observation. After all how a story is rendered is more important than what is rendered. E. L. Doctorow has uniquely combined music, narrative and fiction in writing his novel *Ragtime.* In this research, Doctorow's objective for employing ragtime music in his novel is going to be explored. Furthermore, this study aims to observe how Doctorow has made the best use of this kind of music in the infrastructure of his text. The distinctive narrative technique and the rejection of any boundaries between fiction and non-fiction of postmodern era are the prominent characteristics of his writing that has made the novel an acclaimed success. The significance of this research paper lies in analyzing Doctorow's use of ragtime music in the novel. This method of narration adds more depth and delicacy to the story and depicts one of Doctorow's literary skills. This technique of Doctorow has led

the readers' minds to absorb the whole purpose and atmosphere of the novel better, given that Doctorow has intentionally used the music, language and narrative techniques in the most influential way to render such an effect.

Keywords: Fiction, Narrative, Non-fiction, Postmodern Novel, Ragtime Music

1. Introduction

The novel *Ragtime* is considered as one of the greatest works of E. L. Doctorow. It is his fourth book published in 1975. As a historical novel, it offers a point of controversy as to whether he has written a fiction or nonfiction masterpiece. In this paper, after a brief reference to the social and historical context of the novel, the relationship between the novel *Ragtime* and ragtime music is further analyzed.

Indeed, Doctorow seems to have surpassed the boundaries between fiction and history in *Ragtime*, as Bloom (2009) asserts, "rather than seeing history and fiction as separate entities that converge in his work, Doctorow has made the radical comment that there is really no fiction or nonfiction; there is only narrative" (p. 12). Therefore, the second objective of this paper is to scrutinize the importance of narrative in Doctorow's *Ragtime* and to observe how he has made it function effectively. The researchers attempt to depict the challenging postmodern method Doctorow uses in order to narrate the story.

2. Discussion

Ragtime is centered on several different people, from rich to poor and powerful to meager and it is set in the U.S. from 1902 to the entry of America into World War I. Because of a past affair, Evelyn Nesbit's crazed millionaire husband kills world-famous architect Stanford White, and is then incarcerated in a mental institution for the deed. Evelyn then cares for a poor Jewish street artist and his daughter until he leaves New York City. Tateh, the artist, eventually sells a flip book full of continuous motion pictures to the Franklin Novelty Company and this launches a movie directorial career for him. Father goes to the North Pole on the third expedition of Robert Peary, but he returns a changed man. Mother's Younger Brother has a brief fling with Evelyn Nesbit, but she then leaves him and runs off with a ragtime dancer. Mother's Younger Brother works on designing weapons for the Army for a time, but then becomes part of a sort of vigilante group of black people led by Coalhouse Walker, a pianist from Harlem who is a victim of a racial crime,

which is why he formed the group. This group firebombs two fire stations and takes over the library of the great financier J. P. Morgan. His colleagues are allowed to go free, but Coalhouse Walker is shot upon his surrender. By this time, Mother and Father have moved to Atlantic City where they meet Tateh, who has made a large sum of money making preparedness films. In 1915, Father is aboard the Lusitania when it is sunk by the Germans; Father is among those killed. Mother and Tateh then fall in love, marry, and move to California where they live together happily ever after. The point of view first seems to be first person because the main characters early in the novel are simply called Mother, Father, and Mother's Younger Brother, but actually the point of view is the third person narrative.

Ragtime is a type of jazz music popular at the turn of the last century. *The Columbia Encyclopedia*'s discussion of ragtime suggests why Doctorow picked it as the title of his novel. Basically a piano style, putting emphasis on "syncopation" and "polyrhythm", ragtime was widely celebrated as the earliest form of jazz. It was mostly popularized from about 1893 to the beginning of the First World War. It is noteworthy to point out that in the early 1970s it gained a popular revival (online).

From different aspects, ragtime music is the central metaphor in *Ragtime*. Firstly, "ragtime" gives a good view of the time setting of the novel since this music was popular during the early 1900s when the novel is set. The novel begins in 1902 and ends with the start of World War I. Since Doctorow tries to depict the real aspects of that time through showing how the cultural, economic, and political factors of the time influence people, whether insiders or outsiders, the time setting is one of the most important elements in understanding this novel. In his critical essay *E. L. Doctorow*, John G. Parks (1991) points out, "ragtime music suggests Doctorow's sense of the Progressive Era—repetition colliding with change, convention with innovation" (qtd in Turner, 2000, p. 108).

Furthermore, in agreement to many other critics, Parks pays attention to the syncopated rhythm of ragtime music. He describes the effect of ragtime music as "a consequence of the mixture of the formalized and the improvised". Parks (1991) compares ragtime music to the way Doctorow describes the era: "the nervous, driving energies of ragtime reflects an age never quite realizing itself, never quite gaining control of the many forces of change to which it gave birth" (p. 58). The syncopated rhythm of ragtime can also be compared to the narrative rhythm of the novel. Many critics praise Doctorow's stylish narrative in *Ragtime*. Among them, George Stade (1980)

in *The New York Times Book Review* compares the narrative effect of the novel to ragtime music and explains its relationship to history:

The rhythm of the sentences and events in the novel is the verbal equivalent of ragtime. The left hand pounds out the beat of historical change. It modulates from the WASP to the immigrant to the black families as through the tonic, dominant and subdominant chords upon which the right hand builds its syncopating improvisations. These are variations on themes provided by representative figures and events of the time. (qtd in Parks, 1991, p. 59)

Throughout the 19th and 20th centuries, especially, narratives of human progress have been increasingly presented in terms of acceleration in a phenomenon, testifying to what can be termed "the ecstasy of speed". In considering, unpacking, and interrogating such an ecstasy, we investigate the ways in which individuals and cultures seek to rush towards beyond of present realities. The points at which general societal themes and expressions of progress and change explode within texts oriented towards the "out of" of human history into especially ecstatic declarations of world-historical acceleration are certainly some of the most easily arrived at examples of this phenomenon. In turn, texts which challenge accepted narratives of speed and progress at precisely the points at which these narratives are most powerful emerge as a fascinating part of our study. Already a critically heralded, wildly popular, and twice-adapted cornerstone of 20th century American literature, E.L. Doctorow's novel *Ragtime* stands as a vivid example of precisely this sort of text (Volk, 2009, p. 1-2).

In another critical book, *E. L. Doctorow*, Carol C. Harter and James R. Thompson also assert that the simple sentences and short chapters make the narrative tempo fast, so these sentences and chapters seem to reflect ragtime music: "rhetorically simple and inevitably declarative, thus achieving a kind of staccato effect" (Harter & Thompson, 1990, p. 55). The following paragraph about Father's leaving for his expedition is a precise example of what the critics above mean about the narrative flow of *Ragtime*:

A while later the Roosevelt passed an incoming transatlantic vessel packed to the railings with immigrants. Her deck was packed with people. Thousands of male heads in derbies. Thousand[s] of female heads covered with shawls. It was a rag ship with a million dark eyes staring at him. Father, a normally resolute person, suddenly foundered in his soul. A weird despair seized him. (Doctorow, 1972, p. 11-12)

The sentences above, except for the first one, only have the basic components: a subject, a verb, an object and a complement, and often not longer than ten words. These short sentences and chapters, which consist of several pages, make the narrative speedy.

In identifying the way in which the novel and its methodology of narrating are neatly and precisely in relation with ragtime music, Parks (1991), in his work *E. L. Doctorow*, discusses the method in which ragtime music is played in order to comment upon the narrator's use of ragtime as a means to tell his story: "Ragtime music is characterized by its syncopated rhythm the treble hand on the piano accenting second and third beats of a measure, improvising as it were, and the bass hand playing a steady, precise, and regularly accented beat. The effect is a consequence of the mixture of the formalized and the improvised" (p. 58).

There is also a kind of repetition in ragtime music; these repetitions actually show the convention with innovation and the change in American history. In addition to the technique of playing ragtime music which gives the sense that why the name ragtime is given to the novel, David Emblidge (1977), in his article "Marching Backward Into the Future: Progress as Illusion in Doctorow's Novels" notes a central motif of history repeating itself in the novel *Ragtime*: "This motif is the idea of history as a repetitive process, almost a cyclical one, in which man is an unwilling, unknowing pawn, easily seduced into a belief in 'progress'" (p. 397). Parks (1991) suggests the effect of a narrative that shows the repetitiveness of history and what we might learn from this sort of forced looking backward: "In a real sense . . . the novel is a product of a warning read back into history after a terrible catastrophe—in this case, World War I, the ending of American innocence and the real entry of America into the twentieth century" (p. 60-61). According to some critics this also assembles a kind of line. In his article, "E. L. Doctorow and the Technology of Narrative", Geoffrey Harpham (1985) asserts: "*Ragtime* gives the appearance of having been produced by a narratological assembly line" (p. 89).

There are many aspects that make *Ragtime*'s narrative extraordinary-- such as the unplaceability of the book's narrative voice, its indefinable ontology, being at the same time journalism, diary, a realistic novel, and history. It seems like the narrator is filming the daily lives of the characters by putting the camera on his/her shoulder and recording the way things come up.

Ragtime is comparatively short, but its narrative is so complex that it is hard to fit it to the dimensions of dramatic literature. This was clearly observed in the 1981 film adaptation, a movie that is barely coherent and also is finely in relation with the style of music which it is compared

to. Vincent Canby (1998) in "Big and Beautiful, 'Ragtime' Never Quite Sings"states that: "Mr. Doctorow's novel is written in coolly compassionate declarative sentences that give it the manner of a fable, which the musical also has" (online).

Parks (1991) takes this discussion of the novel even further by claiming that *Ragtime*'s "aesthetically complex" blurring "of the lines between fact and fiction" is precisely how the novel manages to be political. Parks sees *Ragtime* as a work finely crafted in its narrative complexity to "disclose and challenge the hegemony of enshrined or institutionalized discursive practices" and to therefore "prevent the power of the regime from monopolizing the composition of truth" (p. 455). Parks identifies the same qualities of Doctorow's historical vision discussed earlier as the foundation of a "polyphonic fiction", capable of introducing a "heteroglossicdialogue" into an otherwise "monologic culture" (p. 455). *Ragtime*, therefore, exists to be "both disruptive or even subversive of regimes of power, and restorative of neglected…or unheard voices in the culture": in short, it is a novel which both deconstructs and reconstructs (p. 455). The challenges pertain to what the novel lays forth in its deconstruction of existing narratives of progress. Moreover, in order to further explore its reconstructive possibilities, the role of ragtime within the novel must be considered.

In the vogue of plural voiced novels, Bakhtin's carnival theory, the importance of narrative and the notion of truth, are observed in this novel. Catherine Walker Bergstrom (2010) in "Intuition of an Infinite Obligation" notes, "knowing the truth" is considered as a kind of gnosis, which for Doctorow is an imaginative truth that is made through the double (plural) voiced narrative of an implied author. In this case the implied author tries to refine past events through the "discourse(s)" of his own time while making them significant in a new way. It is the artist's prerogative to authorize "neglected narratives" and to subvert others. By doing this, the author gives a voice to previously silenced voices and takes it from those whose power need checking.

The postmodern era has appropriated the right to challenge "refereniality", which in a way has enabled the author to define a new role for the function of literature as a representative of truth and justice in the late 20th century. In fact, Doctorow has a nostalgic feeling for the past when fiction was important; alluding to Walter Benjamin's essay "The Storyteller", Doctorow (1983) in his essay "False Documents" notes that, in the days before the advent of the novel, stories were "honed by time and many tellers," inevitable ambivalent of the moral self, such a narrative constitutes the desire to strike a balance of power in a democracy of narrative perspectives (p. 21).

According to "E.L. Doctorow and the Technology of Narrative" by Geoffrey Galt Harpham (1985), *Ragtime* has no conventional angle of vision at all and no consistent or even possible narrative persona. The narration drifts in and out of characters' minds, recording private thoughts, conversations, actions, and historical generalizations (p. 8). This is the basic thing in postmodern way of narrating and reporting, as we can find it well in *Routledge Encyclopedia of Narrative Theory*: Everything about postmodernism is controversial, including the language game of narrative theory (Gibson, 1996, p. 146). A preliminary distinction needs to be drawn between theories of postmodern narrative and postmodern theories of narrative – that is, between theories that seek to account for the poetics of narratives identified as postmodern and general theories of narrative based on ideas native to the postmodern period (Gibson, 1996, p. 146). The theory which is related to the discussion of this paper is Lyotard's theory that postmodernism reflects incredulity toward the master narratives of progress, enlightenment, and human liberation that served to legitimate modern culture.

If we divide the contemporary American fiction into two groups, postmodernists and post-great traditionalists, we can conclude that Doctorow has identified with both groups by playing with the notions of fiction, narrative and identity and using them in a way which is compatible with both groups. Geoffrey Galt Harpham (1985) in the same articlediscusses that the contemporary American fiction is divided by readers to two contrasting groups: First, the unpredictable postmodernists like Nabokov, Pynchon, Barthelme, Barth, and Gaddis, and second, the realistic authors of post-Great Traditionalists such as Bellow, Styron, Malamud, and Roth. The unusual tendency of E.L. Doctorow rests in his identifying with both groups. He produces a work which "invokes both the real, in the radical form of historically verifiable fact, and the "experimental," chiefly through dislocations of identity and the breaking up of the narrative line" (p. 81).

Elsewhere, Doctorow chooses a mid-way and that is the path between fiction and reality. It is not possible to put the novel into one category as his writing is not a fiction neither a reality. As Doctorow (1983) in the essay "False Documents" asserts: "there is really no fiction or nonfiction; there is only narrative" (p. 26). Here again the importance of narrative to Doctorow is rendered as crucial. On this matter, Matthew A. Henry (2010) in "Problematized Narratives: History as Fiction in E. L. Doctorow's Billy Bathgate" explains that, Doctorow has been successful in writing historical fiction and specially in the novel *Ragtime,* he is distinguished for "examining" and also

"rewriting" the American past. This has become practicable due to Doctorow's idea that there is no fact or fiction, only narrative.

However, the "textualist" stance of Doctorow should not be considered a reason to assume him an anarchic. Henry (2010) quotes that, "He is neither a radical experimentalist nor a traditional social realist, though his works contain features of both" (p. 11). Of the greatest importance to Doctorow, as a historical novelist, are the cultural myths of the immediate past and their role in contemporary American culture. The border which separates Doctorow from traditional historical novelists and makes him observe history from a postmodern approach is "in the intentional confusion he sets up between documented historical events ("facts") and invented ones ("fictions"), thereby problematizing the process of historical writing (p. 1).

Doctorow understands history as a construct of the willful or unconscious imagination. He subordinates historical accuracy to accommodate the demands of his fiction. Thus, in postmodern historical narrative, the writer needs not adhere as strictly to the realm of plausibility. An event so audaciously invented as the trip of Freud and Jung through the Tunnel of Love in Doctorow's most celebrated novel, *Ragtime,* is clearly a violation of the canon of historical decorum, a blatant fiction that poses as history. But Doctorow utilizes the reader's knowledge that those historical figures existed to challenge the reader's preconceived notions about the validity of what has been too readily named historical "truth" (p. 2).

Being fiction or nonfiction was not the point then; what in effect mattered was narrative. All the nonfiction means of communication utilized narrative. Television news was packaged, using devices of drama and suspense and image. Newsmagazines packaged fact as fiction—in the sense of organizing and composing the material esthetically. Adding to this, the reader of a novel usually thinks that these things really happened to the author, but for legal or other reasons he's changed everybody's name. In *Ragtime,* Doctorow has just twisted that around and written about imaginary events in the lives of undisguised people (qtd in Bloom, 2004, p.61).

In a close comparison with the musical entertainment shows in for example 1930s, Frederick R. Karl (2009) in "On *Ragtime*'s Variations" makes the comparison as this:

Ragtime (1975) is like those musical comedy entertainments turned out by MGM and RKO in the 1930s, with Busby Berkeley settings, and perhaps held together by Fred Astaire or Gene Kelly a little later. Such entertainments had a story line that existed solely as cement for the musical numbers, dance sequence, or spectaculars. They had, in a sense, some linkage to circuses, to

Barnum & Bailey's three rings. Such entertainments catered to nearly all tastes, since if one number bombed, there was quickly another. *Ragtime* is of this kind, the narrative serving as a kind of glue for all the sideshows: Houdini, J.P. Morgan, Henry Ford, Evelyn Nesbit, Stanford White and Harry Thaw, Emma Goldman, Henry Clay Frick. (p. 64)

This shift of narrative from one to another character depicts not only different points of view but also different social and ethnic classes. Winifred Farrant Bevilacqua (1990) in "Narration and history in E. L. Doctorow's Welcome to Hard Times, The Book of Daniel, and Ragtime" scrutinizes and remarks that, by choosing "typical" protagonists who share the narrative focus with marginal characters, Doctorow actually alters tradition in *Ragtime*. As a result, together with a "white Anglo-Saxon Protestant upper-middle-class" family who go along with typical individual characteristics taken from standards of their era, Doctorow adds to his narrative two other families: First, Tateh's East European Jewish immigrant family and second, Sarah, ragtime pianist Coalhouse Walker and their infant son, who consist a black family. By dividing his narrative among these three groups, "he not only underscores the inadequacy of the WASP family as a fully representative microcosm but also stimulates readers to reconsider the relative emphasis given to the various social groups in standard versions of American history at the turn of the century (Bevilacqua, 1990, p. 102).

Brian Roberts (2004) believes that Doctorow's aim was to change Houdini from one "exploiting hybridized forms of Black culture" to a person who is able to experience real unity with African-Americans (qtd. in Volk, 2009, p. 8). "In the climactic scene within the Houdini storyline, Houdini hangs suspended above New York, is verbally abused by a man watching him from an apartment building, and experiences a moment of epiphany as he realizes he could have saved Archduke Franz Ferdinand from assassination" (Volk, 2009, p. 9). According to Roberts, this scene exposes Houdini to a mock execution and depicts future prospects of "anti-Semitism" and violence. Out of this complex racial tension, a necessity for unity between the oppressed arises, a unity that does not ignore significant differences "but rather one which is necessitated by the grim realities of shared violence" (Roberts, 2004, p. 255-256).

3. Conclusion

To conclude, Doctorow sets in a political consciousness within the novel and ragtime music serves to decipher such a radial consciousness. His special narrative technique serves as an instructor to

the reader's mind to help him absorb the whole purpose and atmosphere of the novel better as Doctorow has deliberately used the language, music and narrative techniques to render such an effect.

The comparisons between the language, the music, and the lifestyle of the characters lead us to have a thorough understanding of the new ways of narration and narrative techniques and have a new definition of fiction and non-fiction. Doctorow's use of music elements and the way he has written the whole novel lead us to better perceive what he had in mind.

Doctorow brings together the subjective and the objective perspectives in *Ragtime* by creating an unnamed narrative consciousness that goes beyond the restraints of a single human perspective, nevertheless at the same time, humanizes and improves his subject matter. In this way, he generates a new history--a "true" history that mingles real events with the fictional inventions and creations of the historical memory. Doctorow's *Ragtime* is a study of the artist and the historian as along with historical fact and historical fiction.

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Title

Teachers' Beliefs towards the Impact of Immediate and Negotiated Error Treatment on Learners' Writing Fluency

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Abstract

This study was conducted to investigate 'Teachers' Beliefs towards the Impact of Immediate and Negotiated Error Treatment on Learners' Writing Fluency'. In order to recognize these teachers' specific beliefs in a more systematic way, a research instrument, the questionnaire was developed. For the purpose of this study, the researcher distributed a teachers' beliefs questionnaire having alternative items, Likert- scale format and open-ended items, among the teachers in order to investigate teachers' preferences for error correction. Before administering the questionnaire in the main study, a pilot study was conducted to examine whether any item is problematic, and to estimate the time require to complete the questionnaire. A total of 90 teachers participated in filling the questionnaire. The results of this study gained through analyzing data in SPSS software. The findings showed that teachers generally have a marked preference for teacher feedback. The high

preference for teacher feedback was mainly the result of the respondents' positive attitudes towards written error correction.

1. Introduction

There is a strong agreement among researchers considering the significance of written feedback in promoting a better and proper learning in this process (Ferris, 2002). But the point is that there is little agreement among researchers and teachers about how teachers should respond to the compositions of their students. There are different corrective feedback methods on students oral and written output. Since teachers spend a great amount of time and effort on writing feedback, many researchers try to find the best and the most efficient way to improve students' writing and to save teachers' time.

Several studies have demonstrated that most students read and use teachers' written feedback on their compositions and find some kinds of corrective feedback more useful than others (Kepner,1991). But there are some doubt among the teachers and the researchers about the nature and efficiency of such responses.

Ample research (Nespor,1987; Pajares,1992) suggested that both the professional development of teachers and their classroom practices are influenced by educational beliefs. It was, however, not until the 1970s that research on teaching emphasized the significance of teachers' beliefs. From the mid 1970s to early 1980s, studies typically focused on teachers' decision making, concerning how teachers manage their classrooms, organize activities, allocate time, plan lessons, judge general student understandings and so on. Since the 1990s, research has focused on the exploration of the knowledge and beliefs that lay behind the practice of teaching.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

It is important to note that, however; there is additional awareness over the issue of error treatment in second language writing, recent researchers have focused on which type of error correction are more effective (Ferris & Robert, 2001). We need to know, what works in our research with learners, is better in the hopes to inform teachers which type of error treatment may be useful to them.

Debate about the value of providing corrective feedback on L2 writing has been prominent in recent years in our country. Most of teachers use traditional ways of corrective feedback by

underlining and circling the errors and write the correct form above or under the errors. And as you know, Learners' writing seems to lack features to coherent and cohesion, and this might be attributed to the teachers' lack of familiarity with to teach them. In addition, error treatment is another subject matter of a debate ever since which is an inseparable part of writing. So by investigating teachers' beliefs towards written error correction we may achieve some reason why most students lack of ability to write.

It is not the purpose in the present study to deny earlier research on written comments and correction; the goal is to know whether teacher feedback can guide students to think about what they have written and promote their long-term writing abilities. The purpose of the research is to identify and analyses how ESL teachers deal with various types of written errors produced by L2 learners. Moreover, the purpose of this study is to investigate ESL instructors' feedback techniques and the rationales behind these techniques, to explore ESL szehczet' beliefs about the relative effectiveness of various types of feedback.

1.2 Significance of the Study

In most EFL/ESL contexts, the main issue is on how to give error correction rather than whether to give feedback or not. In doing so, different mechanisms have been used. For example, the correction may be implicit or explicit, selective or comprehensive, direct or indirect error feedback. While there are considerable number of studies that focus on the issue of error correction and error analysis, relatively few studies have been carried out related to EFL learner's and teachers' attitude toward error correction methods during the class time (especially in Iran context). rev zwæ, it is believed that in order to have a successful learning and teaching process it is necessary to consider EFL learners' and teachers' perceptions.

Since previous studies have provided conflicting evidence regarding the effectiveness of written error correction in improving the writing accuracy of L2 students, this study may be utilized to add to the results of past studies as well as provide justifications for methods and approaches employed in future studies. The result of this study might entail a new perspective in the teaching of L2 writing, focusing more on teachers' self-reflection and self- evaluation of their strategies in providing written error correction.

Moreover, this study might be helpful to second language teachers, specially to inexperienced ones who have trouble in teaching of writing. The findings of this study may inform them to know what ways of error treatment will be beneficial to second language learners and they

might modify their strategies in teaching. In addition, this particular study will help learners in learning process because negotiation may provide students with opportunities to identify and detect their errors themselves. Hendrikcson (1978) believed negotiation not only is motivating but also is helping student to formulate concepts about the target language and help them to fix information in their long term memory.

Finally, the researcher herself, as a language teacher, has a great interest in discovering how other language teachers have been dealing with learner errors.

1.3 Research Questions

This study aims at answering the following questions:

1. What are the beliefs of L2 writing teachers regarding written error correction?

2. What types of written error correction do teachers think are most useful?

3. What types of errors do teachers think should be corrected?

4. What amount of written error correction do teachers think is most useful?

5. What types of written error correction do teachers think will improve writing and learners' writing fluency?

2. Review of the Related Literature

As a matter of fact, the main way of investigating the development of SLA is by analyzing diverse samples of learner language, focusing particularly on the errors made (Ellis, 1997). Errors or linguistic deviations constitute clear indicators of the developmental sequences of inter language systems that are constantly being restructured and modified when discovering the new language. So far the discussion has mainly focused on how learners´ errors help us gain a better understanding of L2 learning. The fact is that we can learn a lot from learners' errors by discovering the common learning difficulties and problems that most learners experience when discovering the new language as well as identifying the cognitive strategies or mechanisms employed when processing the new language data. Additionally, learners´ errors let us know how far these have progressed over time and what remains to be learned. Accordingly, learners errors and mistakes need to be carefully analyzed because they may provide us with some of the keys to the understanding of SLA, offering important clues or guiding evidence on how L2 is actually being processed or learned at a particular stage of language learning, what strategies or procedures L2

learners employ when discovering the new language and how effective language teaching methodology is. In short, the study of the inevitable existence of errors will be of great help.

2.1 Error Correction and Second Language Acquisition

It is inevitable for learners to make mistakes when they attempt to use the target language before they have mastered it. Teachers, therefore, should be prepared to handle the variety of errors that could occur in learners' speech (Burt, 1975). The role of corrective feedback in the process of learning a second language has been debated. As Krashen (1982) argued, corrective feedback may not benefit learners in acquiring the correct form if they are not ready to learn. Then the question is whether treating errors will facilitate speedy acquisition of the correct form or will simply be futile until the learners reach a stage of inter language development where they can make use of such feedback to modify their ill-formed utterances. However, if a teacher chooses not to treat an error in one learner's utterance, the other learners in the classroom may assume that the form is correct. Consequently, this assumption could lead some learners to internalize incorrect forms, fossilization.

The next question is whether teachers should deal with errors immediately or wait until learners finish with the messages they are trying to convey. Immediate error correction may inhibit a learner's willingness to speak in class at all because it can interrupt the learner in the middle of a sentence. On the other hand, although delayed feedback can allow the learner time to finish what the learner is trying to say, the feedback may become less effective as the time between the error and treatment increases.

Hendrickson's (1978) study investigated whether, when, which, and how student errors should be corrected and who should correct them. The findings are: correction promotes language learning; there is no general consensus as to when errors should be corrected; frequently occurring errors and errors that impair communication should be corrected; and various corrective feedback types are used by teachers.

Teachers use various strategies to help their learners notice errors, but they are not always efficient because sometimes such feedback is ambiguous. Chaudron (1977) conducted a study to provide teachers with a better understanding about when and how to correct learners' errors. In this study, Chaudron created a model that was designed to elicit correct performance in French immersion classrooms in Canada. The model described error treatment strategies regarding how teachers correct different errors simultaneously and select certain errors over others. The study

found that student errors included phonological, lexical, and content errors. The study findings indicated that the use of emphasis, repetition, and reduction in correcting the learners' errors increased the chances of students' successful self-correction.

Havranek's (2002) classroom-based experimental study investigated situational, linguistic, and personal factors that promote the effectiveness of corrective feedback in foreign language learning. He observed 207 German native speakers at different ages with different proficiency levels. Interestingly, the findings indicated that the learners who observed corrective feedback processes (observers) benefited more than the learners who received corrections (receivers). Both the receivers and observers were most likely to use the corrected structures successfully in the test when they received recasts combined with elicited self-correction. The study suggested that teachers can promote learning when they provide level-appropriate recasts combined with other feedback and allow their students to observe feedback processes in the classroom. Allwright and Bailey (1991) also pointed out that providing corrective feedback aimed at L2 learners' current level can guide them in moving ahead in their inter language development. Conversely, it may not be helpful if corrective feedback is beyond the learners' stage of inter language development.

2.2 Negative Perspectives of Error Correction

There are many viewpoints toward the effect of error treatment. However, despite the lack of a definite answer, many L2 teachers feel the need to provide written corrective feedback in order to assist learners' language learning (Brown, 2007). Truscott (1996) insisted that grammar correction has negative and harmful effects, because it discourages and demotivates learners. He also argued that the grammar correction should be abandoned. He supported this view with a review of past studies that demonstrated grammar correction to be in effected and unhelpful. Krashen made a similar statement in his earlier study conducted in 1982 (Ellis, 1994).

Ellis summarized Krashen's warning as "correction is both useless for acquisition and dangerous in that it may lead to a negative affective response". According to Krashen's Monitor Theory (Krashen, 1983) "an over emphasis on conscious grammar has the undesirable result of encouraging over-use of the Monitor". If a learner's Monitor is being over-used, they become hesitant and their learning will be excessively slow (McLaughlin, 1987). Truscott (1996) argued that learners neither like to have their mistake pointed out nor do they enjoy sighting the red ink all over their papers. Therefore, correction may lead them to have negative attitudes toward

writing. Truscott warned that learners may simplify and shorten their writing in order to avoid being corrected.

2.3 Positive Perspectives of Error Correction

Contrary to what some critics (Truscott, 1996) have stated, there are many theoretical assumptions and much research evidence that supports the potential benefits of error treatment. For example, Ferris (1999) questioned Truscotts' claims against the effectiveness of grammar correction. She evaluated and examined the studies he used to support his claims. She outlined two weaknesses in Truscotts' argument: 1.That there eez more and less effective ways to approach error correction in L2 writing; 2.That Truscott has under-over- stated the results and claims of previous studies to support his own research. Ferris' challenge led to further debate in the field over the effectiveness of error correction and studies were conducted to explore and provide evidence that either supported or opposed the use of error correction in L2writing (Truscott, 1996; Ferris, 2004). Taking all the theoretical and empirical evidence highlighted above into account, on balance, error correction should be continued unless its ineffectiveness and harmfulness have been conclusively proven as suggested by Ferris (1999).

2.4 Priority of Error Types for Error Treatment

One dilemma that confronts the writing teachers in treating errors is whether they should attend to all of the errors in students' compositions or just focus on certain types of errors. Although research shows that both teachers and students are generally opt for comprehensive error treatment, such a practice is actually very time-consuming and too overwhelming for students to undertake, particularly low proficiency students (Lee, 2004). In addition, research also suggested that different linguistic knowledge is acquired through different stages and therefore requires different rates of processing across error types. In other words, some errors have higher priorities for correction than others. As for what type of errors should be treated first, the answer probably lies in Ferris' (1999) distinction between treatable errors and untreatable errors, or between surface errors and meaning errors in the words of Lee. Errors in verb tense, word form, subject-verb agreement, article usage, noun endings, and spelling are treatable or surface errors, while errors in logic, word choice, word order, missing or unnecessary words, and idiomatic usage are untreatable or meaning errors (Ferris & Helt, 2000).

2.5 Beliefs about Teaching

Unfortunately, there is a lot of confusion in the literature regarding both the labels and definitions used to describe teacher beliefs. Pajares, in his (1992) review, labeled teacher beliefs a "messy construct," noting that "the difficulty in studying teachers' beliefs has been caused by definitional problems, poor conceptualizations, and differing understandings of beliefs and belief structures". According to Calderhead (1996), teacher beliefs, as well as teacher knowledge and teacher thinking, comprise the broader concept of teacher cognition.

Part of the difficulty in defining teacher beliefs centers on determining if, and how, they differ from knowledge. In this review, I accept the distinction suggested by Calderhead (1996): whereas beliefs generally refer to "suppositions, commitments, and ideologies," knowledge refers to "factual propositions and understandings". Therefore, after gaining knowledge of a proposition, we are still free to accept it as being either true or false (believe it or not). For example, a teacher may gain specific knowledge about how to create spreadsheets for student record keeping and may also know that other teachers have used them successfully, yet still not believe they offer an effective tool for her classroom use. This might be especially true if, based on previous experiences, she has negative beliefs about her own technical capabilities. Another distinction between knowledge and beliefs, illustrated by this example, is the stronger affective and evaluative components often associated with beliefs (Nespor, 1987). Given these distinctions, Nespor and others (Pajares, 1992) have concluded that beliefs are far more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organize and define tasks and problems. This, then, makes them stronger predictors of behavior.

Despite the difficulties related to sorting out this "messy construct", Pajares (1992) proposed that, "All teachers hold beliefs, however defined and labeled, about their work, their students, their subject matter, and their roles and responsibilities". Because "humans have beliefs about everything". Pajares recommended that researchers make a distinction between teachers' broader, general belief systems and their educational beliefs. In addition, he recommended that educational beliefs be narrowed further to specify what those beliefs are about, for example, educational beliefs about: the nature of knowledge, perceptions of self and feelings of self-worth, confidence to perform certain tasks, and so on. Following Pajares' recommendation, then, this review focuses specifically on teachers' educational beliefs about teaching and learning (referred to here as pedagogical beliefs) and the beliefs they have about how technology enables them to translate those beliefs into classroom practice. It is my hope that by establishing a clear understanding of

these concepts and the relationships among them, we will have accomplished an important first step in improving both future research and practice related to teacher change, in general, and teacher technology use, more specifically.

A great deal of empirical evidence has established the significance of beliefs for understanding teacher behavior (Calderhead,1996; Pajares,1992). In describing this Relationship, Pajares (1992) noted, "Few would argue that the beliefs teachers hold influence their perceptions and judgments, which in turn, affect their behavior in the classroom". Kagan (1992) cited significant evidence supporting this relationship: "Empirical studies have yielded quite consistent findings: A teacher's belief tend to be associated with a congruent style of teaching that is often evident across different classes and grade level". In fact, given that the knowledge base of teaching consists of few, if any, indisputable "truths," Kagan postulated, "most of a teacher's professional knowledge can be regarded more accurately as a belief".

Beliefs are often mistaken for attitudes, values, judgments, opinions, ideologies, and so on (Pajares,1992), and currently there is not a standard definition for what the term belief means. However, for the purposes of this study, beliefs are subjective ideas about what we think is true about our world and about ourselves and are formed through our interactions with the world. As Pajares (1992) reminded us, all teachers hold beliefs about their work, students, subject and roles, and responsibilities. For example, if a teacher believes that all students have an equal ability to learn, this belief will be reflected in methodology and teaching style. If a teacher believes that males are particularly suited for science and math, and females for language and reading, this becomes a part of teaching beliefs in that a teacher may teach males differently in subjects like language, and teach females differently in the sciences.

Kagan (1992) said that teacher beliefs are stable and resistant to change, even in the face of contradictory evidence such as reason, time, or experience. Pajares went further, belief change during adulthood is a relatively rare phenomenon, the most common cause being a conversion from one authority to another or a gestalt shift. Individuals tend to hold on to beliefs based on incorrect or incomplete knowledge, even after scientifically correct explanations are presented to them (Pajares,1992). Pajares believed that beliefs about teaching are well established by the time a student goes to college. What this essentially means is that teacher beliefs or beliefs about teaching are formed early, are difficult to change, and may not be based on rationality nor on the latest educational research.

2.6 Questionnaire Survey

One of the earliest survey studies of error correction was carried out by Cathcart and Olsen (1976), aiming to explore both teachers and students' preference for the correction of students' spoken errors of linguistic forms in the classroom. They distributed a questionnaire to 188 ESL students and 38 teachers at three community college centers and a university. They found that students wanted to be corrected more than teachers generally perceived to be necessary.Conducting a survey study on the teachers' and students' most popular and least popular learning activities in the Australian Adults Migrant Education Program, Nunan (1988) reported that teachers' preference for "error correction" was low, whereas students' preference for it was "very high". In contrast, teachers' preferences for "students self - discovery of errors" was "very high", whereas students' preference for it was "low". Sixty teachers took part in this survey, though the number of the participating students has not been reported. Teachers wanted to avoid correcting the students' errors and wanted to involve the students in self correction, whereas the students did not want to correct their own errors and wanted their teachers to do this. According to Nunan who observed that "in a learner-centered curriculum methodology as much as any other element in the curriculum, must be informed by the attitudes of the learners" (1988), this represented a dramatic mismatch between teachers' and students' views of error correction.

Another study, which focused on comparing the L2 students' and teachers' attitude towards explicit grammar instruction and error correction, is a large scale survey carried out by Schulz (1996). A total of 824 students and 92 teachers took part in this survey. The same multiple – choice type questionnaire was administered to both the teachers and students at a university in the U.S. Her results revealed that students hold generally favorable attitudes towards error correction in learning another language, confirming the findings reported by Cathcart and Olsen (1976), and Nunan (1988). However, the most striking findings of Schulz (1996), was mismatches between students' and teachers' attitudes towards error correction in L2 classrooms. As with the findings in Nunan (1988), Schulz (1996) reported that students gave error correction a higher rating than did the teachers.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

To accomplish the present study and in order to answer the research questions, all English language teachers (90) (male and female) who were teaching in Garmsar high schools were asked to take part in the study. The age and gender of the participants were not considered in this study.

3.2 Instrumentation

Here, in order to gather the data needed for answering the research questions of this research the main instrument was the questionnaire using for collecting teachers' beliefs. It contained close-ended items that required teachers to respond to statements on a five point scale or select one option among several alternatives, as well as open-ended items that invited teachers to describe or comment on an issue in detail. Content validity for this survey instrument was established through a pilot test. Explanations of some words using in the questionnaire were provided to make it easy for teachers to understand.

3.3 Procedure and Design

For the purpose of this study, the researcher distributed a teachers' beliefs questionnaire having alternative items, Likert- scale format and open-ended items, among the teachers in order to investigate teachers' preferences for error correction. The questionnaire consisted two sections. The first section was designed to collect participants' demographic information, including their genders, native languages, the period of English teaching/learning, and teachers' teaching experience.

The second section included a number of questions investigating teachers' perceptions of the necessity of error correction and frequency of error correction, preferences for timing of error correction, types of errors that need to be corrected, types of corrective feedback, and delivering agents of error correction. The questionnaire had five point scales in the Likert format and two to six options in alternative format in which the teachers were asked to choose one option or mark their beliefs by ticking one of the five boxes in each elicitation question. The data emerging from ticking one of the five point scales were numerical. To gain more in depth information about why teachers preferred a particular type or amount of feedback, qualitative data was also collected through open- ended questions. To do this, following some elicitation questions the teachers were also asked to explain their reasons for their choices. The data emerging from the teachers' explanations reflecting their reasons for their choices were analyzed qualitatively to complement formers.

To accomplish the objectives of the present study, a pilot study preceded the main study. (In the pilot stage, the adequacy of the instrument used in the study was examined.) In the main study, there was an attempt to collect appropriate pieces of data to answer the research questions formulated in this study. Moreover, the current study employed a mixed method design which included both descriptive and qualitative research methods.

Finally, in order to answer the research questions, frequency distributions were calculated to analyze the alternative items and Likert-scale responses for (1) general attitudes toward written error correction, (2) general preferences for correction of different types of errors (e.g., spelling and grammar), and (3) general preferences for particular types of correction methods of classroom written errors. In addition, open-ended questions were summarized, categorized and reported by the researcher herself.

4. Results and discussion

Descriptive statistics are a set of standards that can present general information of the gathered data for the researcher. It should be noted that we cannot generalize the results using descriptive investigations and just an overall attitude of the research can be inferred.

4.1 Research Question 1

What are the beliefs of L2 writing teachers regarding written error correction?

To answer research question1, there were two sections in the questionnaire. One section included 15questions, that the teachers were asked to rate each question with: Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree. Table 1 shows the responses of the teachers regarding the written error correction.

Majority of the teachers – 56.3% - (19.4% strongly agree + 36.9% agree) agree with the teachers' correcting their written errors. On the other hand 31.1 percent disagree or strongly disagree with their students' written errors be corrected by teachers and 12.5 percent are undecided on this issue.

Table 1 *Frequencies and Percentages; teachers' Beliefs towards Written Error Correction*

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	280	19.4
Agree	532	36.9
Undecided	180	12.5

Disagree	346	24.0
Strongly Disagree	102	7.1
Total	1440	100.0

The results of the chi-square ($\chi2$ (4) = 379.25, P < .05) indicate that the differences observed in Table 1 are statistically significant. That is to say the teachers significantly believe that their students' written errors should be corrected.

Table 2 *Analysis of Chi-Square; Students' Beliefs towards Written Error Correction*

	Error Correction
Chi-Square	379.250a
Df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 288.	

The respondents were further asked which way will help their students most to understand the reason why they have made the mistake and, consequently, to avoid it in the future? Majority of the teachers (65.6%) believed combination of explanations and examples can help students to understand the reason why they have made the mistake and, consequently, to avoid it in the future. This is followed by explanations (1.1%) examples (2.2%) mere correction (15.6%) eliciting (15.6%).

Table3 *Frequencies, Percentages which way will help their students most to understand the reason why they have made the mistake and, consequently, to avoid it in the future.*

	Frequency	Percent
explanations	1	1.1
examples	2	2.2
combination of both	59	65.6
mere correction without any explanation	14	15.6
eliciting students to self correct	14	15.6
Total	90	100.0

We now turn to the qualitative data of the questionnaire related to which way will help their students most to understand the reason why they have made the mistake and, consequently, to avoid it in the future. To analyze the qualitative data of the study related to this issue, teachers were required to explain their reason for their answer.

As you see in Table 4, majority of teachers (32.6%) explained a combination of examples and explanations is easy way to stick in students' mind.19.6% of teachers believe that without examples and explanations students cannot understand their mistakes and why they should write that sentence in another way.15.2% of them express our approach will depend on the level of students.13.0% explain just by explaining or examples students will forget it, so a combination of examples and explanations will help students to memorize and retain the errors.13.0% believe a combination of examples and explanations help students to learn better, and a teacher as a model needs to set examples for a better learning. Finally, 6.5% of teachers to explain their reason for their answers said eliciting students to self correct is time-consuming and boring to them, but by more explanations and bringing different examples then making the students to say some examples, they would solve the problem.

Table 4 *Frequencies, Percentages of Qualitative Data related to which Way will Help Their Students Most to Understand the Reason Why They have Made the Mistake and, Consequently, to Avoid it in the Future.*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A combination of examples and explanations help students to retain and memorize it	6	13.0	13.0	13.0
	Eliciting students to self correct is time-consuming.	3	6.5	6.5	19.6
	A combination of examples and explanations is easy way to stick in students' mind	15	32.6	32.6	52.2
	It depends on the level of students	7	15.2	15.2	67.4
	A combination of examples and explanations help students to learn better	6	13.0	13.0	80.4
	without examples and explanations students can not understand their mistakes	9	19.6	19.6	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Research Question 2

What types of written error correction do teachers think are most useful?

To answer research question 2, questionnaire included six questions that teachers were asked to select one option among four alternatives: A. Correction B. Underline and Describe, C. Describe, D. Underline

According to Table 5 majority of the teachers (70%) believe that underlining and describing is the most useful method for the correction of their students' errors. This is followed by simple correction (17%), underlining (10.7%) and describing (2.2%).

Table 5 *Most Useful Methods of Error Correction*

	Frequency	Percent
Correction	92	17.0
Underline & Describe	378	70.0
Describe	12	2.2

Underline	58	10.7
Total	540	100.0

The results of the chi-square (χ^2 (3) = 607.08, P < .05) indicate that the differences observed in Table 5 are statistically significant. That is to say the teachers significantly believe that underlying and describing is the most useful method of error correction.

Table 6 *Analysis of Chi-Square; Most Useful Methods of Error Correction*

	Methods
Chi-Square	607.081a
Df	3
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 135.	

To answer research question 2, teachers were also asked "Do you mark errors selectively or comprehensively? Why?"

By taking a look at table 7, It is noticeable that 43.8%of teachers chose comprehensively, 37.5% chose selectively and 18.8% said sometimes selectively and sometimes comprehensively.

Table 7 *Most Useful Methods of Error Correction*

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	**selectively**	18	37.5
	comprehensively	21	43.8
	sometimes selectively and sometimes comprehensively	9	18.8
	Total	48	100.0

We now turn to explore teachers' stated reasons for what types of written error correction do teachers think are most useful and why. In fact, in this part we will answer, qualitative part of this question. Based on the results of the table 8, majority of the teachers (25.0%) who select comprehensively, expressed by comprehensively, students learn more about their errors, so students should know all of their errors in their writing and focus on each one separately. 20.8 percent of who select comprehensively, expressed comprehensively correction have better results in comparison with selectively way. However, 14.6% of subjects who select selectively said focusing with so many description in red, students may feel disappointed and lose their self-confidence.12.5% of them believed comprehensively correction in writing is time consuming and

it doesn't increase students' motivation. Moreover, 12.5% of subjects expressed by selectively correction, teachers will not able to recognize students' problem and they cannot explain for details but in comprehensively teachers can pay attention to all of the errors and mistakes. While 8.3% of teachers believed selectively correction is more practical in writing and it makes students get the points. 6.2% said students need both of them.

Table 8 *Frequencies, Percentage of Qualitative Data related to Most Useful Methods of Error Correction*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	by selectively ,teachers will not able to recognize students' problem	6	12.5	12.5	12.5
	comprehensively have better result	10	20.8	20.8	33.3
	By comprehensively, students learn more about errors	12	25.0	25.0	58.3
	selectively is more practical	4	8.3	8.3	66.7
	comprehensively makes students disappointed	7	14.6	14.6	81.2
	comprehensively is time-consuming	6	12.5	12.5	93.8
	students need both of them	3	6.2	6.2	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	100.0	

4.3 Research Question 3

What type of errors do teachers think should be corrected?

The category consists of six types of errors: Organization Errors, Grammatical Errors , Content or Ideas Errors , Punctuation Errors , Spelling Errors , Vocabulary Errors .The teachers were asked to rate each question with not useful at all, not useful , doesn't matter, quite useful, very useful. Very useful was worth 5 points, and not useful at all was worth 1 point.

Table 9 displays the frequencies, percentages and Std. Residuals for the different types of errors respondents have identified to be corrected or not. The former two indices are descriptive and should be interpreted horizontally, i.e. within each group; while the latter – Std. Residual – is an

inferential index based on which conclusions as to the significance of the differences can be made. This index should be interpreted vertically for comparing the selection of each of the choices by the two groups. Std. Residuals beyond +/- 1.96 (Filed 2009) indicate that the selection of the choice is not random; hence beyond expectation. Majority of the respondents (83.3%, Std. Residual = 5.7) significantly believe that correcting content errors is not useful at. Another 36.4 percent (Std. Residual = 3.2) significantly believe that is not useful to correct spelling errors.

Table 9 *Frequencies, Percentages and Std. Residuals; Different Parts and Need for Correction*

			Type						Total
			Organization	Grammar	Content	Punctuation	Spelling	Vocabulary	
Choices	Not useful at all	Count	0	0	10	2	0	0	12
		% within Choices	0.0%	0.0%	83.3%	16.7%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		Std. Residual	-1.4	-1.4	5.7	.0	-1.4	-1.4	
	Not useful	Count	10	4	4	4	16	6	44
		% within Choices	22.7%	9.1%	9.1%	9.1%	36.4%	13.6%	100.0%
		Std. Residual	1.0	-1.2	-1.2	-1.2	3.2	-.5	
	Does not matter	Count	4	2	26	20	18	10	80
		% within Choices	5.0%	2.5%	32.5%	25.0%	22.5%	12.5%	100.0%
		Std. Residual	-2.6	-3.1	3.5	1.8	1.3	-.9	
	quite useful	Count	40	20	26	30	28	36	180
		% within Choices	22.2%	11.1%	14.4%	16.7%	15.6%	20.0%	100.0%
		Std. Residual	1.8	-1.8	-.7	.0	-.4	1.1	
	Very useful	Count	36	64	24	34	28	38	224
		% within Choices	16.1%	28.6%	10.7%	15.2%	12.5%	17.0%	100.0%
		Std. Residual	-.2	4.4	-2.2	-.5	-1.5	.1	
Total		Count	90	90	90	90	90	90	540
		% within Choices	16.7%	16.7%	16.7%	16.7%	16.7%	16.7%	100.0%

About 32.5 percent (Std. Residual = 3.5) significantly believe correcting or leaving content errors does not matter. The correction of no type of error is identified as quite useful. 28.6 percent of the respondents significantly believe that correction of grammatical errors is very useful.

4.4 Research Question 4

What amount of written error correction do teachers think is most useful?

To answer research question 4, teachers were asked when there are many errors in their students' writing, what do they think is most useful to do. And teachers were asked to choose one option :

a) Mark all errors , b) Mark all major errors but not minor ones , c) Mark most major errors, but

not necessarily all of them, d) Mark only a few of the major errors, e) Mark only errors that interfere with communicating ideas, f) Mark no errors; respond only to ideas and content

As Table 10 shows majority of the teachers (44.4%) believe that all errors should be marked. Another 28.9 percent believe that all major errors should only be marked and minor errors should be ignored. 17.8 percent believe that there is no need to mark all major errors. They believe that only some of the major errors should be corrected and finally 8.9 percent believe that the teachers should mark only those errors which interfere with communication.

Table 10 *Most Useful Error Corrections*

	Frequency	Percent
Mark All Errors	40	44.4
Mark All Major Errors	26	28.9
Mark Most Major Errors	16	17.8
Mark Interfering Errors	8	8.9
Total	90	100.0

The respondents were further asked if repeated errors should be marked. As Table 11 shows 64.4 percent of the respondents believe that repeated errors should also be marked for the students and only 35.6 % do not hold such a view.

Table 11 *Repeated Errors*

	Frequency	Percent
Yes Mark Repeated Errors	58	64.4
No Don't Mark Repeated Errors	32	35.6
Total	90	100.0

4.5 Research Question 5

What types of written error correction do teachers think will improve writing and learners' writing fluency? The questionnaire included six questions to answer research question 5. This category asked teachers about their preferences for types of corrective feedback. The category consisted of three methods of corrective feedback, including: Immediate error correction, Negotiated error correction and Rcast. The teachers were asked to rate each item on a 5-point scale, from "Highly effective" to "Highly inappropriate".

According to Table 12 majority of the respondents (64.1 percent = 25.2 + 38.9) chose only highly effective and somewhat effective, It means that the majority of the respondents believe three type of error corrections can improve writing and learners' writing fluency.

Table 12 *Frequencies and Percentages; Error Correction and Improvement of Writing*

	Frequency	Percent
Highly Effective	136	25.2
Somewhat Effective	210	38.9
I don't know	100	18.5
Somewhat inappropriate	64	11.9
Highly inappropriate	30	5.6
Total	540	100.0

5. Conclusions and Implications

According to the results, the majority of teachers participated in this study have extremely positive attitude toward the correction of errors by teacher and they want teacher to correct all errors that students make during writing not just those which interfere with communication. They also prefer underlining and describing of errors in comparison to other ways of error treatment. Considering the third research question, teachers of this study prefer correction of their students' errors in grammar. It becomes clear that they find this part of errors more important than the others. They also have some tendency toward correction of all errors, however, some of them expressed teachers should correct errors based on the students' level. And the results of last section which deals with methods of correction and is related to the last research question suggests that negotiated error correction is useful to improve writing generally. However, the immediate error correction is inappropriate to improve writing fluency. The teachers somehow prefer explanation of errors and, repetition of treatment. But they do not prefer with the methods in which teachers ignore the error, present the correct response and repeat the original question.

To sum up, the findings of this study and studies like this can be useful for language teachers and learners so that they can take it for granted in their language teaching and learning procedures. It can be concluded that EFL teachers' attitude toward the error correction is of outmost importance and it can facilitate the language learning process.

5.1 Suggestions for Further Study

Research is cyclical; it is a recurring sequence of events. The nature of research is such that the more answers are obtained, the more questions arise. Therefore, conducting a research again is a way of conducting research for purpose of confirming and verifying the research results. Here the cycle of this research is not finish and it can be done for the second time in order to reach a better answer or results. The following suggestion can be taken into consideration and any of them which are found interesting could be a topic for further research.

- Since the present study focused on writing skill, replicated research project can support the result of this study for the other skills.

- The present study focused on immediate and negotiated error treatment, another study can be done focusing on other types of error correction.

- Gender as one variable was not included in this study. Another study could be done controlling this variable.

- Age as one variable was not included in this study. Another study could be done controlling this variable.

- The setting that was chosen for this study was high schools .The same could be used in other settings for example, institutes and universities.

- This study was performed on Iranian EFL teachers. It is possible to do it on the teachers of other countries.

- Since the present study focused on writing fluency, another research project can be done focusing on writing accuracy.

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Title

Colonial Subjects in Achebe's *Things Fall Apart*, *No Longer at Ease*, and *Arrow of God*

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Biodata

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Abstract

Chinua Achebe in his novels *Things Fall Apart, No Longer at Ease,* and *Arrow of God* gives us a unique picture of life in Africa before the arrival of Christianity and colonization and afterwards. He shows how African people lost their traditional culture and values, replacing them with foreign beliefs. In this article, the way black people lived before the arrival of white people, how they encountered and reacted to white colonizers, in addition to how they converted to Christianity and subsequently to White culture, as portrayed in these novels, will be analyzed. The purpose of this study is to trace the roots of this rapid pace of colonialism back to when colonial subjects lost their original culture to the new-coming people and to what extent those colonized people were affectively actualizing their inferiority and subordination to the white society.

Keywords: Post-colonial Studies, Colonialism, Colonial Subjects, Self-inferiorizing, Mimicry, Feeling of Unhomeliness, Lost Identity

1. Introduction

Postcolonial criticism defines formerly colonized people as any nation which has been subjugated to the political domination of another nation and colonialism or political, economic, and cultural subjugation of vulnerable nations would occur in any time and any part of the world at the hands of international corporations from world powers such as the United States, Germany, and Japan.

Postcolonial critics use literary works of African Americans, aboriginal Australians and the formerly colonized Indians to compare and contrast this global issue among various peoples. This differentiation means that it is up to the nation of a specific colonized country to develop their own literature, criticism on history and traditions. Their literary texts are different from each other because their reaction to the colonization and colonizers domination was different. During the nineteenth century British was known as the most powerful imperial all over the world and it was by the turn of the twentieth century that the British Empire ruled over almost one quarter of the world, including countries such as India, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, Ireland, and some parts of Africa, the West Indies, South America, the Middle East, and Southeast Asia.

Colonialism or the extension of civilization justified the racial and cultural superiority of the European Western World over the non-Western world which Joseph-Ernest Renan supported in *La Reforme intellectual et morale* (1871). Colonialism was an important factor in cultural production and many of the cultural constructs operating all over the world have been the products of colonial contexts. To understand how much the colonizer and the colonized were influential in the process of the colonization it is worth defining two types of colonization: military colonization and cultural colonization. In military colonization the colonizer uses military forces to subordinate the colonized and usurp their natural resources and manpower. But in cultural colonization there is no military force and the colonizer, through representation, acts in a way to convince the colonized people that it is for their benefit to imitate and follow White attitudes.

In the late nineteenth century when the British assumed control of Nigeria they believed that they brought history, civilization, enlightenment and progress to a nation which had no civilization, social and political system and religious traditions of their own. It is obvious that there had been a religion among indigenous people but the British called those religious beliefs as superstitious or fetishism; and of course they had a political system because there wouldn't exist any nation without social system, but the differences in political and social structure the colonizer called chaos. In 1900, the British chose a system of direct rule over the Ibos by dividing their region into areas governed by "District Commissioners" (Innes, 1979, p.3) and used the Ibos as "warrant chiefs" in order to help them. In 1918 Lord Lugard introduced "indirect rule" as a new policy to replace direct rule. Based on this new policy the District Commissioners were removed and the responsibility was on the warrant chiefs' shoulder.

Colonization was always defined by west colonizers in a way to accelerate their domination of subordinated nation. V.Y. Mundimbe in *The Invention of Africa* describes that colonial rule was established and used by the colonizers to dominate the physical space, reform nations' minds, and integrate local economic histories into the western perspective. Western colonizer tried to make the colonized people feel inferior in front of the colonizers' superiority and internalize their values into their life and by this made them accept the newcomers and their beliefs. It seems that they were successful because as we look at the formerly colonized people we find out that most of them speak and write in English, use this language in their political and educational environment and even at home. As the language brings the culture with it, so acceptance of a new language means acceptance of a new culture and lifestyle. Thus, colonialist ideology was extremely successful and resulted in the creation of colonial subjects, colonized persons who did not resist colonial subjugation because they were taught to believe in British superiority and , therefore, in their own inferiority (Tyson, 2006, p.421). Chinua Achebe in his novels gives a description of the life of African people in their actual life during colonization and how they come to identify themselves. One reason behind this sudden rush to accept Western civilization is that Igbo people find and understand the importance of Western education in the progress of their life, a hundred years ago, Igbo people could hardly read or write but today we can see Igbo professors, Igbo medical practitioner and lawyer etc. who occupy important positions in different parts of the globe. The second reason is that these indigenous people were willing to accept change because they knew that that change would bring benefit and material progress to their life. As the ties that bound the communities disintegrated, people found new values in Christianity and Western education and the result was a community of Christian and Western-educated Africans. To know to what extent Achebe blames Colonial Subjects for the realization of colonization different aspects of colonial subjects portrayed in Achebe's works are going to be discussed.

2. Discussion

Achebe's novels can be seen as a tetralogy, recording documentary evidence of Nigerian history between 1890 and 1965. Achebe had in mind to write the story of Okonkwo and his grandson, Obi Okonkwo, in one novel, but the result was the emergence of two novels, *Things Fall Apart* (1985) and *No Longer at Ease* (1960). The first set at the turn of the century when the British colonizers came to the Ibo land and the second portrayed the events in the fifties when the British

administration prepared to surrender the control of the bureaucratic institutions it had once established. *Arrow of God* (1964) returned back to the time when the Ibo and British cultures had first interacted. C.L. Innes in his *Critical Perspectives on Chinua Achebe* analyzed different approaches to and perspectives on various aspects of Achebe's novels. Kalu Ogabaa's *God, Oracles and Divination; Folkways in Chinua Achebe's Novels* is another brilliant source of authentic materials on how Africans come to identify themselves with the focus on the traces of West colonizers' influence on the change of culture of African colony. The other important work in postcolonial criticism is Victor Uchendu's *The Ego of Southeast Nigeria* which is also a good source of information on the life of Achebe's subjects in his works. Significance of this paper which makes it distinct from other works mentioned is to analyze different aspects of colonial subjects' life and their personal and communal characteristics to come to this result that colonialism was not done merely by the colonizer but both the colonizer and the colonized were effective in the colonization process. This article is going to analyze colonized people in Achebe's three novels to find out their faults in confronting colonizers which led to their subjugation to the Western power.

2.1.Communal Spirit

One of the important aspects of the Igbo life is the communal spirit that in an Igbo community all the people are aware of their dependence on their kin group and community and contribute to the group to which they owe so much. It seldom happens that a person detaches form the group to which he belongs. They care for their community and everyone knows it his duty to be conformist to the rituals and customs of his community, otherwise he would confront the results. In the case of *Things Fall Apart*, we can claim that their communal spirit is a weak point which leads to the destruction of their tradition and figures like Okonkwo. If we consider the pre-colonial situation and compare it to the situation when West colonizers dominated this community and changed it to a new one, we would expect these Igbo people to follow their new community which is now in the hand of white people. Achebe portrays the same phenomenon and as we see in Things Fall Apart, little by little most of the people turned to new culture abjured their traditional customs in order to be conformist and act according to the taste if majority. Nonconformity had been considered illegal and those nonconformist figures, like Okonkwo, would be punished. If Igbo people had not been so dependant to their community, they would have confronted colonialism better but their simple-mindedness and intolerance to differences made them destroy most of their traditional cultures as

well as figures like Okonkwo. The same theme is presented in *No Longer at Ease* in which people believed in conformity because they thought that the strength of a society lies in its unity: "If all snakes lived together in one place, who would approach them?" (Achebe, 2010, p.61). In "Argument of Phalanx" (1933) by Steinbeck a broad description of relationship between the individual and the group is given. Steinbeck makes different between the individual on his own and as a part of a group. This group or the community which Steinbeck entitles "greater beasts" controls unit-men with a strict discipline. Steinbeck discusses man's behavior both as an individual and as part of a group which is represented in characters of Achebe's *No Longer at Ease* and *Arrow of God*. According to Steinbeck ideal group formation is one in which people act as individuals and at the same time as a member of an integrated community. But when it comes to *No Longer at Ease* and *Arrow of God* there was no such balance between personal and social life of Obi Okonkwo and Ezeulu and this matter led to the breakdown of the sense of solidarity in them. Obi Okonkwo expressed his individualistic attitude in his saying that "Ours is ours, but mine in mine" (Achebe, 2010, p.26) and differentiated personal matters from communal matters, but the community put great importance on kinship ties and used many proverbs about the obligations of individuals toward community and other kinsmen: "… a kinsman in trouble had to be saved, not blamed; anger against a brother was felt in the flesh, not in the bone" (Achebe, 2010, p.7). The community itself once helped Obi Okonkwo to study in England and now expects him to pay back and sacrifice his life to serve his clan, but Obi Okonkwo didn't believe in this communal spirit and his personal interest was his priority. Unlike his clan's plan for him to study law, he decided to study English. Opposed to their custom he became engaged with Clara and even refused to return home for his mother's funeral. His individualistic has alienated him from his family and tribe and it reminds us of his grandfather Okonkwo who had been alienated from his fellow villages in Umuofia. But the differences between them is that Obi Okonkwo has been educated in Western milieu and hasn't been in touch with his tradition and his rejection of these traditional customs made him alienated but his grandfather had been fed up with tribal customs and his commitment to traditional lifestyle made him alone and weak. Like Okonkwo and his grandson, Ezeulu in *Arrow of God* had the same social and personal conflict and could not reconcile his communal responsibilities with his personal lie. We can classify Ezeulu's conflict into three kinds: on the first hand, there was a conflict between the local British administration and the native authority represented by the Chief Priest. On the second hand, there were internal politics of Umoaro and

the conflict between the supporters of Ezeulu and those of his rival, Idemili. The last kind of conflict happened within this chief priest himself, an interior conflict, between personal power and the necessities of public responsibility. When he sent one of his sons to the school, he has been accused by others, even his best friend and kinsmen, of threatening the old social order. Akuebue could not accept the Chief Priest's traditional role as protector of communal tradition when found that he sent his son to join the Christians: "when you spoke against the war with Okperi, you were not alone, I too was against it and so were many others. But if you send your son to join strangers in desecrating the land you will be alone". (Achebe, 1974, p.134)

2.2.People's Lack of Experience

One of the important factors in the colonized people's defeat in front of colonizers was their lack of experience. Before the arrival of colonizers indigenous people lived in ignorance and none of their belief systems, religious codes and practices had been challenged. Black people's life and their maturity was measured by their adaptation to society_ the society of Negroes_ all of them black with the same culture and beliefs which have come to them from past. But the first encounter with the white men makes them out of ignorance and oppresses them with the whole weight of their blackness. Arrival of west colonizers along with colonized people's disability to confront new beliefs led to the reversal of norms and falling apart of things they had honored for centuries. In *Things Fall Apart* in the first part of the novel at a betrothal ceremony people were discussing the strange habits of their neighbors, where West culture entered and changed everything. Obierika says, "It is like the story of the white men who, they say, are white like this piece of chalk and who have no toes" (Achebe, 2002, p.67). None of them at that time were aware of a day when they would act like those they were deriding. Their ignorance caused their weakness and inability in confrontation of new rules and led to the reversal of beliefs. Everything which had been norms and unchallenged for centuries now are challenged and things considered forbidden now become common. What happens for that sacred python proves that no one ever thought that their sacredness would ever be challenged; the evil forest is no longer evil and outcasts become no longer outcasts. This ignorance and lack of experience in Umuofian society is represented also in *No Longer at Ease* in which people have been ignorant of modern situation in cities and Achebe shows it in this passage which shows the differences between the urban life and the tribal and traditional life and that how people in villages were ignorant of new inventions which brought new rules.

Mr. Ikedi had come to Umuofia from a township, and was able to tell the gathering how wedding feasts had been steadily declining in the towns since the invention of invitation cards. Many of his hearers whistled in unbelief when he told them that a man could not go to his neighbor's wedding unless he was given one of those papers on which they wrote R.S.V.P_ Rice and Stew Very Plenty_ which was invariably an over-statement. (Achebe, 2010, p.10)

Roderick Wilson in his essay *Eliot and Achebe: An Analysis of some Formal and Philosophical Qualities of "No Longer at Ease"* describes Umuofian society in the best way: All those around him are divided or fragmentary begins in one way or another: his friend Christopher, an economist, has his religion of sex… and a specious line of reasoning about corruption; Joseph, Obi's "countryman", is both urbanized in his employment and sufficiently to warn both Obi's parents and the U.P.U. about Obi's involvement with Clara; the divided commitment of Isaac, Obi's father, has already been noticed; Mr. Green, Obi's boss, is a man born out of his time, in power yet powerless, totally unable to see that it is the civilization of which he is a member that has been responsible, in large part, for the historical element on Obi's fate; finally, Clara too is divided, an "osu" and a modern nurse, a "been-to" who is yet unable to escape from her traditional role, and divided in another way between a real relationship and cinema fantasies. (Innes, 1979, p.164-165) Achebe presents all these fragmentations in his novel and it is similar to Eliot's The Waste Land in presentation of a society devoid of a unified and unreconciled traditions and commitment. Obi, when returned to his society, couldn't find wholeness by which he could stand firm in a society which itself lacked a core. In his third novel, Achebe shows in the historical process the inadequacies and limitations with which man confronts the world he claims to rule. In this novel he uses the definitions and insights which the two earlier novels have provided and presents the theme of destruction of the tribal world in a more complex way than the previous novels. Ezeulu and his sons are all bound within the limitations of their vision. Ezeulu was unaware of the limitation of his power and the most important factor in his downfall was his failing to recognize his own limitations. Like Okonkwo, he was ignorant of his shortcomings and took some inappropriate actions to adjust to the changing times which later ked him go too far and plunged himself and his people into trouble. The title of the novel is drawn from Ezeulu's situation after he returned to his village that he thought he was an "avenging arrow in the bow of his god" (Innes, 1979, p.57) and should punish his people in favour of his god, but his decision ended up in the destruction of himself, his place in the society and his religious beliefs.

2.3. Lost Identity

After the arrival of colonizers and the creation of Colonial Subjects many of these individuals tried to imitate their colonizers in dress, speech, behavior, and as a whole in their lifestyle. This phenomenon is called *mimicry* and reflects colonized people's desire to be accepted by the colonizer and the shame they experienced concerning their own culture. Postcolonial theorists believe that colonial subjects have a *double consciousness* or *double vision*; a consciousness which is caught and divided between two antagonistic cultures: the indigenous one and that of the colonizer. Homi Bhabha refers to this feeling of being caught between two cultures and of belonging to neither rather than to both as *unhomeliness*. These black people felt to be unhomed even in their own home because they were not at home in themselves and this unhomeliness is interior, from their inside.

In *Things Fall Apart* this unhomeliness is vivid in Okonkwo's life who after his return to Umuofia decided to start a fight against the Christians to regain his last place and popularity in the village but he couldn't because his closest ones, particularly his own son, were among those Christians and he felt to be unhomed because he was not at home even in his own home. He couldn't endure this feeling and decided to take avenge and killed the messenger of the colonial administration but his final defeat is an indication of the utter futility of his action. His son Nwoye had the same feeling but unlike his father he decided to change his lifestyle and accept new foreign values. Like Nwoye, other villagers were convinced to their inferiority and searched for a way to get out of this inferiority and turned to the western education. That educated Negro would certainly feel that his people can no longer understand him as he can no longer understand them. Nwoye could not tolerate his father and all his strict discipline. Obi Okonkwo had the same feeling toward his people and this lack of understanding came from the differences between this educated Negro and his people. Such a person is pleased of his separation and congratulates himself of this, and rarely does he want to belong to his people. Nwoye "was happy to leave his father. He would return later to his mother and his brothers and sisters and convert them to the new faith" (Achebe, 2002, p.139). The Nigerian poet and playwright John Pepper Clark explains the tension between traditional and modern in the educated West African:

The great complication, perhaps, for the West African elite brought up in a system not quite British is that he swims in a stream of double currents, one traditional, the other modern. Both currents do not completely run parallel; in fact, they are often in conflict. Accordingly, you are

likely to find him at church or mosque in the morning and in the evening taking a title at home that carries with it sacrifice of some sort to his ancestors and community gods. In the same manner, a man however 'detribalized' and successful in his city career and profession, will not outgrow the most backward member of his family. (Innes, 1979, p.151)

His explanation fits completely Obi Okonkwo's condition in his society in which he confronted with a stream of double currents and he was what Clark calls 'a citizen of two worlds'. He was caught between two forces or better to say two worlds, the old Africa of his Umuofia village and the Westernized milieu of urban Africa. He could not identify himself with either traditional or the modern way of life and all his misfortunes originated from his lack of a sense of identity. His decision to take bribes was also a confirmation of his loss of a sense of identity of which he himself was aware. This feeling of lost identity in characters of Achebe's novels leads to the destruction of the Negros' unity; their personality would be scattered and they can no longer claim solidity.

3. Conclusion

Considering how race is constructed and reproduced within colonialism under the shadow of Marxian concept of alienation, one may say that alienated colonial subjects and their productive abilities are organized by others and this matter makes them incapable of expressing their humanity. Frantz Fanon extends Marx's concept of alienation in his social theory and asserts that race, like class, denies our species-being. According to him, human being existence depends on recognition of that by other being and man is human only after he tries to impose his existence on another man in order to be recognized by him. When it comes to the colonized people, they are denied the opportunity to know themselves and instead, it is the colonizer who claims to know and define the colonized. We cannot ignore the role of white colonizers in the destruction of the solid identity of Black people. They define colonized people as lazy and unproductive, thereby justifying low wages and coercive system of labor. They define them as uncivilized, stupid, savage, and dangerous; thereby justifying the imposition of colonial culture and compelling forms of social control. This process leads to the death and burial of colonized people's cultural originality and creation of their inferiority complex. This inferiority complex makes black schoolboys to identify themselves with explorers, in search of truth, which is an all-white truth and which can be gained only among white people who are the bringer of civilization. Such a young Negro will subjectively adopt everything brought by white men and one can see in the young Blacks the formation of an

attitude and a way of thinking which are basically and totally white. What a Negro strives to do and the outcome he wished to gain is to conduct himself like a white man, but there will remain an everlasting feeling of fear or anxiety in him because the fact is that he is a Negro and will remain a Negro.

It is a widespread notion that the Negro in made inferior meaning that the colonizer comes and by means of force makes them inferior. This is a wrong notion because this statement has two meanings; on the one hand, it means that Negroes, before the arrival of white men, were ranked in a higher place and had a very sophisticated life and by the arrival of white people and their interference in Black's life they lost that splendid life. On the other hand, it ignores colonized people's role in the process of colonization. On the contrary, as it is shown in this article, the Negroes play an important role in making themselves inferior.

The evidences, theories and examples presented in this article about the role of colonized people in the progress of the process of colonization were used to explain to what extent colonial subjects are effective in their becoming inferior or the "Other". It doesn't mean that they have wished for their being colonized and now that they are colonized they are happy and pleased with the newly made condition. Of course they didn't want to be under the control and domination of outsiders and certainly scared of their subordination, but the question comes here is that didn't this fear of colonization itself cry for colonization?

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Title

The Investigation of the Relationship between Type A & Type B Personalities and Quality of Translation

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Abstract

In the present study the researcher would endeavor to investigate the relationship between the translator's personality types under study (Type A personality -ambitious, aggressive, controlling, highly competitive, impatient and Type B- patient, relaxed, easy-going,) and the quality of translation. To this end, a production test of translation and type A&B personality questionnaire were administered among 100 students of English translation, studying at Bahonar University of Kerman (city in Iran). Determining personality types of students (type A or B) and accordingly rating students' translations based on the Translation Quality Assessment model presented in this study, it is concluded that translators of Type A personality are better than the translators of Type B personality in terms of their translation quality.

Keywords: Translation, Translation Quality, Personality, Personality Types, Type A&B Personalities

1. Introduction

Human fascination with the concept of personality reached its peak in the 21st century (Pennock & Moyers, 2012). Employers are using personality tests and suggestive interview questionnaires more often now than ever before in an attempt to hire employees that are competent, authorized, and emotionally suited for work environment cohesion and profitability. No field or discipline is more intent on the study of personality than the field of education. In an educational setting,

personality can directly affect the standpoints, perspectives and behaviors of both educators and students, in terms of success and effectiveness. According to Soufi (2012) personality type is a model to assess the real person and each type is a product of specific interaction between multiple personal and cultural forces such as peer groups, hereditary and genetic factors, parental social class, culture and physical environment. In other words, in order to overcome the environmental problems and tasks, each type has special reserves of attitudes and skills. Without doubt, personality characteristic is one of the fundamental issues in psychology. Since these characteristics form the foundation of behavior system, considering this issue can clarify certain aspects of the actions of people in various fields.

Translator training of some kind has almost certainly existed at key moments during history (Pym, 2012). It is evident that academic translator training by applying scientific approaches, is one of the most noteworthy manifestation of the success of translation studies. Translation is specialist skill. In most cases, specialist training and qualifications are needed to work at a professional level. However, the questions which come to mind are about the success of some translators and failure of some others despite the same academic background and knowledge. According to Munday(2001) translation" by its nature is multilingual and also interdisciplinary" .Since translation is multidisciplinary, translator training programs must instil not only proficient language command in both source and target languages, but also, equally important, must bring together knowledge and skills that belong to different disciplines and fields such as documentation, terminology, desktop publishing, linguistics, communication studies, philosophy and psychology as well as some knowledge of specialized texts (Olvera Lobo, 2005). Psychology is an academic and applied discipline that involves the scientific study of mental functions and behaviors. Without doubt, personality characteristic is one of the fundamental issues in psychology. Personality psychology was a latecomer among the various disciplines within psychology. Personality psychology is a branch of psychology that studies personality and individual differences. Translation functions as a link between different languages to inform people of different cultures and nationalities and this task is done by individuals, so there can be a close relationship between translation and psychology and its sub-category, personality psychology. There are many factors that relate to the process of translating a text that directly influence the product of translation.

In line with what has been discussed so far, the main purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a significant difference between translation students' personality types (A&B) in terms of their translation quality. Therefore, this study was conducted to emphasize the role of the translator as an active subject and to improve his/her awareness of personality type and to examine the dynamic interaction between the text and the translator's personality types. In keeping with the purpose of the study the following research question was raised:

RQ: Is there any significant difference between translators with type A and B personality in terms of their quality of translation?

2. Review of literature

2.1. Translation

Translation is a phenomenon that has a huge effect on everyday life. (Munday & Hatim, 2004).Throughout history, translation has played crucial role in different aspects of human's life. Translation in general sense is the communication of the meaning of a source-language text by means of an equivalent target language text.). According to Catford (1965, p. 20), "Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)". Translation over centuries from old epoch to modern period has been the bridge between different emperors, politicians, scientists, cultures, races and people with different languages. However, considering translation as an academic subject and field has really begun in the second half of the twentieth century. This new field received the name "**Translation Studies**" by the help of the Netherland -based scholar James S. Holmes in his paper "the Name and Nature of Translation studies".

In general translation studies is interdisciplinary discipline including components of social science and the humanities, dealing with the systematic study of the theory, the description and the application of translation, interpreting, or both("Translation Studies" n.d.). These days Translation Studies is viewed as a growing field as an academic discipline (Munday, 2001).

2.2. Translation Quality and Translation Quality Assessment (TQA)

Evaluating translation quality is among the most addressed research areas in translation studies and among different groups, from researchers and translation associations to practitioners and translation trainers. This important issue is usually known as Translation Quality Assessment

(TQA) among different scholars. Translation quality as an integral and integrated part of translation studies particularly when it comes to translation education can be considered.

In defining translation quality we are faced with so many definitions by different scholars. In the pre-linguistic era of translation studies, translation quality referred to such vague concepts as the spirit and flavor of ST as opposed to the natural flow of TT (AL-Qinai, 2010). This traditional paradox can best be summed up in the words of Cicero, "a translation should be free … a translation should be literal" (House 1981, p. 2).

Nida (1964, Nida &Taber, 1969) was among the first pioneers amongst translation studies theoreticians who addressed translation quality more systematically. Evaluating the translated text is only possible by its relation to the ST, conventionally called the relation of equivalence. He discriminates between two sorts of equivalence: formal and dynamic.

For Reiss (1971) determining function and type of source text has priority of any quality evaluation. Reiss's functional methodology to translation studies was another influential approach to the analysis of translation and its quality. Some other leading scholars have been connected with this general approach are House (1997) and Nord (1997). They considered translation quality in considering function, Skopos or purpose of translation.

Generally speaking all these prescriptive approaches and models of translation quality have strived at perfection and nothing less. According to Hatim and Mason (1997),"the assessment of translator performance is an activity which, despite being widespread, is under-researched and under-discussed" (p. 199).

2.3. Personality Psychology

Personality psychology is a branch of psychology that studies personality and its individual differences. According to McAdams (2006), "Personality psychology is the scientific study of the whole person…psychology is about many things: perception and attention, cognition and memory, neurons and brain circuitry…We try to understand the individual human being as a complex whole…[and] to construct a scientifically credible account of human individuality" (p. 2). Personality psychology attempts to describe the whole person and considers both universal traits and individual differences and examines the ways in which people are unique (Borghans, Golsteyn, Heckman, Humphries, 2011).

2.4.Personality

There is still no clear and satisfactory definition for the elusive term 'personality'. Although it is not easy to define personality, this term has been defined in different ways. Kline (as cited in Hubscher-Davidson, 2007) defined personality as an individual's trait determining all behavior. In other words, personality refers to the complex of all the behavioral, temperamental, emotional and mental activities that characterizes a certain individual. The study of personality has a long history. For instance, Plato, Aristotle, Descartes, and Machiavelli, among several other philosophers and writers, have mentioned human personality in their works. Recently in defining the concept of personality some individuals, groups or organizations have proposed some definitions:

- The collective perceptions, emotions, cognitions, motivations, and actions of the individual that interact with various environmental situations(Patrick & Léon Carrión, 2001).
- The psychological forces that make people uniquely themselves. (Friedman & Schustack, 2006).

2.4.1 Personality Types

The concept of **type** emerged due to the work of Swiss psychologist Carl Jung and two American women, Briggs and Myers (Karimnia & Mahjubi, 2013). Jung as a psychologist states that an individual's behavior seems unpredictable. However, it can be anticipated through realizing one's underlying mental functions and attitudes (Tiger & Barron-Tiger as cited in Wilz, 2000). In general Personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of individuals. Types are sometimes said to involve qualitative differences between people, whereas traits might be construed as quantitative differences (Bernstein et al. 2008). According to type theories, for example, introverts and extraverts are two fundamentally different categories of people. According to trait theories, introversion and extraversion are part of a continuous dimension, with many people in the middle.

2.4.2 Type A &B Personalities

Originally published in the 1950s, the Type A and Type B personality theory is a theory which describes two common, contrasting personality types—the high-strung Type A and the easy-going Type B—as patterns of behavior that could either raise or lower, respectively, one's chances of developing coronary heart disease. The theory describes a Type A individual as ambitious, aggressive, business-like, controlling, highly competitive, impatient, preoccupied with his or her status, time-conscious, and tightly-wound. The theory describes Type B individuals as perfect

contrast to those with Type A personalities. People with Type B personalities are generally patient, relaxed, easy-going, and at times lacking an overriding sense of urgency.

2.5. Personality and Translation Studies

In a recent conference paper, Tymoczko (2007) underlined the need for Translation Studies to open up to ideas from other cultural traditions, and to enlarge translation by developing new concepts and new ways of thinking about this field of study, as it would give translation new validity and models for practice (Hubscher-Davidson, 2009). Numerous theories and notions from sociology, cultural studies and linguistics have been introduced to Translation Studies by several intellectuals in the field. As an example, some scholars such as Seleskovitch and Lederer (1989) studied certain translating and interpreting mental processes using a cognitive approach after the early work of Jean Piaget's in cognitive psychology in 1967. Taking into consideration the interdisciplinary nature of Translation Studies, Munday (2004) mentions two fields of study, psychology and cognitive sciences, as playing an important role in the study of translation and Wills' (1998) definition of translation also verifies this (Karimnia & Mahjubi, 2013). In his view, translator replicates a source language implication in a target language through a psycholinguistic formulation process. In other words, the process of translating involves psycholinguistic factors. Karimnia and Mahjubi (2013) explained that the psycholinguistic analysis of translation by several scholars also supports the interdependency of translation and psychology (Hai, 2009; Hatzidaki, 2007; Lorscher, 1996; Maier, 2009; Malakoff & Hakuta, 1999; Zasyekin, 2009). The Compact Oxford English Dictionary also shapes up the link between the two fields, by defining Psychology as: the scientific study of the human mind and its functions, the mental characteristics or attitude of a person, and the mental factors governing a situation or activity, so studying translators and how they function is an activity in which people are involved, the insights and benefits to be gained by adopting a psychological approach are therefore clear (Hubscher-Davidson, 2009).

Personality, a matter explored by psychology, reveals itself in almost every part of our life. As we talk about someone's personality, in fact we mean that something which makes a person different from other people. This aspect of personality is called individual differences (Boeree, 2006). The study of individual differences is a branch of personality psychology.

Translation Studies has focused on determining the differences between translators in the translation process (Iida, 2008). From a general perspective, the translation process varies due to the individual differences of the translators (Coba, 2007). In other words, each translator has his

or her own individual traits or types that uniquely affect his or her behavior in the act of translating, so When translators translate the same source text from the source language (SL) to the target language (TL), their produced translations differ from one another (Karimnia & Mahjubi, 2013). In addition, the participation of human beings as translators being involved, the person variable in this process is inevitable (Daisy, 2009). All translators are individuals in their own right whose behavior patterns are not identical (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). So it is acceptable to declare that translators' personalities and approaches have an impression on their performance and lead the course of translation. Therefore, to understand fully what translators do in the task of translation, it is necessary to study their personalities (Barboni as cited in Hubscher-Davidson, 2009).

Two scholars have tried to investigate translators' personalities in a psychological framework in TS. The pioneer is Katharina Reiss (2000) who talks about translator personality types, and the second is Thilde Barboni (1999) whose research merges translation with psychoanalysis.

A pioneer in the analysis of translator personalities, Reiss (2000) refers to the individuality of the translator in the broader context of translation criticism. Although no examples are given illustrating links between personality types and translator behaviour, or backing up statements such as 'the esthetic type is unquestionably the best translator' (2000, p. 111), Reiss' claim that the personality of the translator is a separate entity to that of the author's, and that the translator's temperament is as important a factor in the translating process as the author's, is still somewhat novel (Hubscher-Davidson, 2009).

Analysis of translators' performance by Barboni is unique as well. Her knowledge and competence in psychoanalysis allows her to present a number of remarkable comments on translator behaviors and viewpoints. Despite her observations are not confirmed by tentative proof, they obviously verify the potential importance of applying psychological approaches and concepts to the study of translation. Like Reiss, Barboni supposes that certain personality types are more at ease in translating specific texts.

Besides so many theories, approaches and models for personality and personality types, several researches also have been done in this area. In one study Dehbandi (2013) examined the impact of translator's personality on translation quality of narrative texts. 60 BA senior students were selected. Two stories were submitted to them in two separate sessions. Immediately after translating the second story, the personality test was given to the students to show whether they

were thinking or feeling. The data analysis of both two groups showed that translator's personality had no impact on translation quality of narrative texts.

In another study Khazaie and Vahid Dastjerdi (2013) examined the translators' personality effect on translation quality. The five big personality traits investigated in this research were 'neuroticism', 'extraversion', 'openness to experience', 'agreeableness' and 'conscientiousness'. The results revealed that although the correlation between 'neuroticism' and 'openness to experience' types of personality and the quality of the translations of narrative texts was significant, it was not exactly the case for other personality traits; however, Tailoring translation to informal setting via mobile media exploited the effects of some traits in favor of translation quality.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The subjects taking part in the study were undergraduate translation students of Bahnoar university of Kerman. They were chosen from senior students because these students have an acceptable knowledge of translation theories as a result of their academic instructions and some basic experience in translation practice because they passed the related courses of simple and practical translation. The total number of participants was 110, but 10 subjects were excluded due to their unsuitability. The final sample size was 100 participants. Two groups of subjects were needed for the study; one group consisted of English translation students with type A personality and the second group was made up of students with type B. The criterion used to make this distinction and place subjects in the appropriate group according to their personality types was a questionnaire of type A&B personalities. Details of the test format and the way it was administered will be provided later in this subsection. It must be noted that the subjects taking the test were not controlled in terms of such variables as age and gender. It is important to note that these students do not belong to any single age group. The participants in the study were at different ages. Both men and women were included in the study, but women were in the majority; approximately, ⅔ of the subjects were female and ⅓ of them were male

3.2 Instrumentation

Two instruments were used in the present study. 1: A production of translation test and 2: A questionnaire of type A&B personality. Subjects were instructed to fill out the questionnaires and afterward do the translations test.

3.3 Rendering and transferring test.

An English passage of two paragraphs of about 300 words which was extracted from a short story was given to the participants to translate into Farsi. The main rationale for using a short story as a translation test was the fact that it has the capacity to assess translators at various levels of proficiency. The difficulty of the given text was measured by the researcher according to the Farahzad model (2003, cited in Translation Studies 2003, p. 42).

3.4 Type A & B personality questionnaire

The second instrument used in the study was type A&B personality questionnaire which was originally developed by Rathus in 2007(translated into Persian by Ganji and et al, (1381). In majority of evaluations the reliability of this test has been reported more than 70% and 80%.(Ganji,1381). It is made up of 25 questions. Each question has 3 options to choose from, (*YES* , *NO* , *?*).A value of 1 point is assigned to YES, and 0 point to NO .If the testees were not sure about each statement they would choose (?) which is not calculated in scoring process. Naturally, by adding up the scores gained on each item, the total score of each part could be calculated. The results will be interpreted according to below table:

Table 3.1.Guidance for interpreting Type A&B Questionnaire Results

Less than 13:Tendency to Type B	More than 13: Tendency to Type A
Less than 5: Severe tendency to Type B	More than 20: Severe tendency to Type A

Average score: 13

3.5 Procedure

3.5.1 Distribution of questionnaires and translation text

Before the subject is asked to perform the task, it is important to provide all necessary information about the experiment and how it should be carried out. Therefore, the researcher should spend some time explaining what the general purpose of the study is and possible implications its result may have for the field of translation studies and university students' of English translation and in general for translator training. Then a test of translation test and a type A&B personality

questionnaire were administered in this study. While the type A&B personality questionnaire had a fixed scoring rubric provided by its designer (that the researcher employed in the process), the Waddington model of translation assessment (2001) (Method C, a holistic method of assessment) was used to rate the translations.

3.6 Data Analysis

Different statistical procedures were performed on the raw data by the researcher. The main statistical technique applied to the data was independent t-test between the two sets of scores to investigate the possibility of any significant difference between them. The scores of the students on both batteries (the type A&B personality questionnaire and the translation test) underwent descriptive statistics. As three raters were involved in this study, the inter-rater reliability of the three in pairs was also measured.

4. Analysis of results

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

4.1.1 Type A&B personality Questionnaire

As discussed in full detail in the Methodology, the type A&B personality questionnaire was administered among the 100 participants; the descriptive statistics of this administration appears below in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Obtained Scores on the personality Questionnaire

	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Questionnaire scores type A	50	6	14	20	15.78	.246	1.741	3.032	.884	.337
Questionnaire scores type B	50	6	6	12	9.34	.288	2.037	4.147	-.091	.337
Valid N (listwise)	50									

As discussed in Methodology, the following scores are the mean values given by three raters, the inter-rater reliability. The following tables represent significant correlation among the three raters of translation scores of type A and B translators.

Table 4.5 Inter-Rater Reliability of the Three Raters(Type A)

		Type A Rater 1	Type A Rater 2	Type A Rater 3
Type A Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.918**	.876**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	50	50	50
Type A Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.918**	1	.879**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	50	50	50
Type A Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.876**	.879**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	50	50	50

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

As it is depicted in Table 4.5, the correlation coefficient between the scores of Rater 1 and 2 was 0.91, Rater 1 and 3 was 0.876, and finally Rater 2 and 3 was 0.879which were all significant at 0.01 levels in a two-tailed test.

Table 4.6 Inter-Rater Reliability of the Three Raters (Type B)

		Type B Rater 1	Type B Rater 2	Type B Rater 3
Type B Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.941**	.920**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	50	50	50
Type B Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.941**	1	.907**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	50	50	50
Type B Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.920**	.907**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	50	50	50

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

As it is depicted in Table 4.6, the correlation coefficient between the scores of Rater 1 and 2 was 0.94, Rater 1 and 3 was 0.92, and finally Rater 2 and 3 was 0.90which were all significant at 0.01 levels in a two-tailed test.

As is manifested from the table above, all three raters enjoyed a significant inter-rater reliability. Hence, the researcher could rest assured that all three could be used in the process of marking 100 translation papers while maintaining the validity of the results.

In order to answer the research question i.e. whether a significant difference existed between the translators with type A personality and type B personality in terms of their English to Farsi translation performance, the independent T-test had to be run. Prior to this of course, the assumptions for running this parametric test had to be checked i.e. normality, and equality of variances of the two sets of scores.

To inspect the first parameter (normality), the researcher used Shapiro-Wilk test and Q-Q plot of the two sets of scores. (Table 4.7) (Figure 4.3) (Figure 4.4) (Figure 4.5) (Figure 4.6)

Table 4.7 Test of Normality of Distribution

	Personality Types	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Translation Score	1	.088	50	.200	.982	50	.640
	2	.117	50	.084	.966	50	.165

As it is clear, the translation scores for each type of personality were normally distributed, as assessed by Shaprio-Wilk test (p>.05). For type A is (0.640) and for type B is (0.16).

The remaining assumption which had to be checked was equality of variances, to this end; the researcher examined the test of homogeneity of variances. (Table 4.8)

Table 4.8 Equality of Variances of Two Sets of Score

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Translation Score	Based on Mean	2.038	1	98	.157
	Based on Median	1.946	1	98	.166
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.946	1	92.999	.166
	Based on trimmed mean	1.925	1	98	.168

As demonstrated by Table 4.8, the significance score (0.157) shows the variance is homogeneous, so with the two assumptions of independent T-test having been met, the researcher could run the independent sample T-test to test the hypothesis of the study (Table 4.9

Table 4.9 Independent Sample t-test for Type A&B Translation Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Translation Score	Equal variances assumed	2.038	.157	4.490	98	.000	1.69840	.37824	.94780	2.44900
	Equal variances not assumed			4.490	93.303	.000	1.69840	.37824	.94733	2.44947

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare translators with type A personality and translators with type B personality in terms of their quality of translations. There was a significant difference in the scores for type A personality (M=12.70, SD=2.09) and type B personality (M=11.00, SD=1.66) conditions; t(98)=4.49 , p=.00

These results suggest that translators of type A are better than translators of type B personality in their translation performance.

5. Conclusion and discussion

This research wanted to observe whether there is a considerable difference between translators with type A & B personality in terms of their quality of translation. In this regard, approximately, 110 English translation students of Bahonar university of Kerman, from senior level were chosen to take part in this study. The researcher used two instruments: a text to translate as a translation test, the type A&B personality questionnaire First, the students were asked to answer the questionnaires and then translate the text provided to them into Farsi; they were permitted to use any kind of dictionaries in the process. The above tests were administered in classroom environments and in the presence of university instructors. After these tests were administered, 100 subjects were divided into 2 categories of equal size and placed in two types of personality groups: type A and type B personalities.

Based on the results of this study there was a significant difference between the production or performance of translators with type A personality and translators with type B personality. In simple terms, translators with type A personality are better than the translators with type B

personality in their translation performance. The significance of this difference indicated that students with type A personality could be better translators.

The result of this study can be justified by paying attention to the features of type A and B personalities. As mentioned earlier, During the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and his co-workers defined what they called Type A and Type B behavior patterns. They theorized that intense, hard-driving Type A personalities had a higher risk of coronary disease because they are "stress junkies." Type B people, on the other hand, tended to be relaxed, less competitive, and lower in risk. There was also a Type AB mixed profile. In short, the following are the characteristics of the type A and B personalities:

5.1 Type A Personality

- Type A's has got a severe sense of time urgency. They are always running and can hardly relax. If they sat without doing something useful they may end up feeling guilty
- Type A's are over achievers, they usually get themselves involved in many different unrelated activities and perform well in them all.
- Type A is usually competitive and has a high challenging spirit.

5.2 Type B Personality

- Type B personality is almost the opposite of Type A. This type of person is relaxed by nature and has no sense of time urgency
- Type Bs have got no problems relaxing or sitting without doing anything
- Type Bs may delay the work they have to the last moment and they usually don't get stressed that easily.

Taking into consideration different personality types, Translators come close to a text from different perspectives by reason of their individual differences. Hubscher-Davidson (2007) believes that specific personality characteristics pressurize translators into employing successful behavioral patterns in the course of the translation process. So, the best justification for better performance of translators of type A personality can be the features of this type. They are achievers, aggressive, rigidly organized, controlling, highly competitive, status conscious, arrogant, proactive and obsessed with time management. The Type A is an ordinary normal person operating at his maximum possible speed. He wants to achieve a big goal but he thinks that time is very limited. Since the type A thinks that time is running out and since his goals are too big he always races with time. The type A is a very competitive person; he considers everything to be a

challenge. He is challenging the circumstances that led to his insecurities and he will challenge everything else that stands in his way. These characteristics could help them to consider translation as a serious task and do their best to reach high levels of quality in their translations.

In cognitive psychology's point of view, translating texts from one language into another is a task involving collecting, processing and storing of information. Such a task also encompasses advanced problem-solving needing a high degree of flexibility and the ability to make decisions which, in turn, link to successful translation (Schmidt, 2005). Since, translation is a challenge for almost all translators, so translators with type A personality due to having challenging sprit could be better than translators with type B.

As maintained by Lynch (2003), psychological types can be regarded as another facet of diversity, and type theory is practical in advancing the intentions of higher education to help students recognize themselves and appreciate their individual differences (pp.7, 12). Chang and Chang (2000, p. 3) also propose that individuals' opportunities for self-awareness and possibilities for progress and development could be provided by analyzing results of personality tests and also permit them to know their strengths.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

The abovementioned findings of this study have demonstrated that Translation Students of Bahonar University of Kerman with type A personality were more successful in their translation procedure. With regards to the findings of the present study, the researcher recommends the subsequent pedagogical principles:

First of all, the personality's impression on the quality of translation should not be disregarded, so psychological courses at universities should be offered for translation students in order to better understanding of their own personality and self-awareness. Afterward they will be able to know their own fortes and weaknesses, leading to their success and helping them develop their potential capacities. For this reason, the concentration of syllabus designers of translation courses is crucial here.

Secondly, personality test should be taken upon the arrival of students at universities, in order that their individual peculiarities can be disclosed and the translation educational system can encounter the needs of students through supplying them with suitable training in both theory and practice in connection with their personality types. It is believed that personality inventories should not be ignored in university circles in view of the fact that individual differences in personality

and higher learning programs are interconnected. Furthermore, translation educators should not discount the principal role of their students' personality types in the performance of translation. Bearing the students' personalities in mind, different methodologies should be offered in translator training. It is also suggested that the translation educational system develops an inclusive set of courses for the profit of all students respecting their personality types. So it is essential to notify instructors and teachers about the advantages of personality in their translation work. It is also necessary to reform the curriculum with the intention of supporting all students and improve their output. Besides respecting this factor in teacher training courses, it can also be incorporated in teachers' guidebooks for the learners' textbooks. To this end, a group of syllabus designers and material developers can collaborate with teachers and learners themselves, to get ideas from them in the process of producing the requisite materials.

It is expected that the result of the present study will introduce new perspectives for translation trainees and translation trainers, leading to a better insight into the role of personality types in the act of translating. Furthermore, individuals must be considered as an invaluable asset in the educational system. Finally, as Kolesina and Nikolae (2008)(as cited in Karimnia &Mahjubi, 2013) declare, ensuring individuals' personal sovereignty and cultivating their choice-making abilities should be of crucial importance in education. This trend will help students' talents to flourish.

Needless to say, since translation studies is to some extent new discipline, particularly in Iran, there is the growing need for such researches which could elucidate the discipline and help other researchers to find the answer of their questions regarding different features affecting the process of translation. Such studies can encourage different scholars and instructors to look at this discipline more scientifically to supply their students with more comprehensive knowledge about translation and consequently become better translators as well. These factors certainly would affect the educational procedures of translation studies as a field.

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Title

Iranian EFL Students' Motivation Orientation, Self-efficacy and Their Use of Oral Communication Strategies

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Abstract

In order to motivate effective spoken communication, teachers should assist students to improve their language development by using communication strategies. Some of these strategies might be connected to negotiation of meaning or the adjustment of the message. Some others may be related to body language or even with giving up the message that is being created. This article sets out to investigate Iranian EFL learners' motivation orientation and their self-efficacy in relation to their use of oral communication strategies. To do so, three questionnaires were selected to measure and analyze the Iranian EFL students' motivation orientation, self-efficacy and their use of oral communication strategy. 153 EFL learners (49 males and 104 females) participated in this study. The data of the study were analyzed through Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis. The results from data analysis showed that there is a statistically significant and direct relationship between these two variables—EFL learners' motivation orientation and their use of oral communication strategies. There is not significant relationship between self-efficacy and communication strategies for the listening skill but there is a direct and significant relationship between speaking strategies and self-efficacy.

Keywords: Motivation Orientation, Self-efficacy, Oral Communication Strategy

1. Introduction

Some studies have described communication strategies in different ways, generating the notion of problematicity in the field of linguistics and language learning (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997). For many people, communication is assumed as the major goal of learning a foreign language. It is believed that people send and receive messages and negotiate meaning through communication (Rubin &Thompson, 1994). Additionally, it is thought that learners' communicative skills can be improved by expanding strategies for communication. Cohen, Weaver and Li (1998) declared that the use of strategies in communication enhances learners' language awareness and solves the interlocutors' potential communication problems. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) mentioned that oral communication is an interactive process in which a person interchangeably takes the roles of speaker and listener. In order to overcome the difficulties in listening and speaking skills, they require to expand on their communicative competence, particularly strategic competence. One of the basic requirements of language learners is having a high level of confidence in successfully performing a task. Students' confidence in their academic skills entails successful performance on related exams. Conversely, students who do not believe in their academic ability see a low grade on their papers even before they start their exams. This would cause one to conclude that research on attainment, on why students achieve or fail to achieve, or on why they do things they do in school must naturally concentrate on students' self-efficacy beliefs (Chamot, 1993). The self-efficacy beliefs effectively entail other factors of success like motivation and self-regulation through cognitive functions (Bandura, 1986; Bandura & Locke, 2003). The stronger the people's sense of efficacy, the higher their goals setting and responsibilities (Bandura, 1986; Bandura & Jouden, 1991). Motivation and attitude are also of great significance in the field of second language learning (SLL). By understanding learner motivation and attitudes, teachers can plan and, appropriately, carry out lessons that nourish and emphasize the motivation of each student to learn English. The role of emotions has not been yet well investigated in second language acquisition (SLA) and, consequently, there is an increasing interest to involve the role of feelings as a new source of students' individual differences (IDs) in the research agenda. MacIntyre (2002) claimed that emotion "just might be the fundamental basis of motivation, one deserving far greater attention in the language learning domain" (p. 45).

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1. Motivation in Second Language Acquisition

Dörnyei (2005) has identified three phases of study of motivation: (a) the social psychological period; (b) the cognitive-situated period; and (c) the process-oriented period. The first one is the psychological period (1959-1990). Gardner & Lambert (1972) suggested that learning a FL is not similar to other school subjects because it is influenced by a variety of sociocultural factors like the attitudes towards the FL or the stereotypes about the speakers of that language. Gardner believed that motivation was a new factor related to L2 achievement, aside from linguistic aptitude. The second phase is the cognitive-situated period expanded during the 1990s. The major feature of this period was the eagerness to develop the motivation research and the identification of other motivations separate from the canonical integrative/instrumental split. The third phase is the process-oriented period expanded within the past five years. Researchers embodied dynamic character and temporal variation within the study of motivation (Dörnyei, 2003; Dörnyei, 2005; Scizér & Dörnyei, 2005b).

2.2. Self-efficacy and Motivation

High self-efficacy can influence motivation in both positive and negative ways. As usual, people with high self-efficacy are more likely to try to complete a task, and to continue longer in those efforts, than those with low self-efficacy. The stronger the self-efficacy or mastery beliefs, the more active the attempts (Bandura, 1977). Teachers should make their students aware of the fact that motivation is a factor that presents an incomplete explanation about academic achievement. Motivation might not always be beneficial unless it is accompanied by the use of self-regulatory skills. Therefore, a successful academic performance does not only need a high motivation from the part of the students to study but it requires also strong desire to control their learning from all potential distractions. Increasing student self-regulation would prepare students to be more efficient in organizing, describing and encoding information and more successful in managing their motivation, setting up a rich work environment and using social resources (Kerlin, 1992).

2.3. Self-efficacy and Language Learning Strategy

To examine the links between self-efficacy beliefs and language learning strategies, Magogwe and Oliver (2007) carried out a study on 480 students from primary schools, secondary schools, and a tertiary institution. Findings of the research showed that there is an important and positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and overall use of language learning strategies for the

students with the three proficiency levels mentioned. Chen and Deborah (2007) investigated the link between EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and English listening achievement. The results of this study also displayed that in the area of listening, students' self-efficacy beliefs were much stronger predicators of language performance than students' anxiety and perceived value

2.4. Communication Strategies and Second Language Acquisition

The study of CSs has got quite lots of attention in the field of SLA and, consequently, a noticeable amount of both theoretical and empirical research has been gathered in this area. There are two major theoretical perspectives here: the psycholinguistic and the interactional. Psycholinguistic researchers have explained CSs as internal and individual mental plans, and attempted to explain CSs use by focusing on cognitive models of speech production (Bialystok 1990; Færch & Kasper 1980, 1983, 1984; Kellerman & Bialystok 1997; Poulisse et al., 1993, 1997). Interactionist scholars, however, following Váradi (1973), Tarone (1977, 1981) and Corder (1978), have considered CSs as elements of discourse and emphasized on the linguistic realization of CSs. Researchers from both approaches have concentrated on the language created by the learner. They have considered CSs as independent and separated units of analysis, paying little or no attention at all to the interactional setting in which they are utilized or to the possible collaboration of the interlocutor in the strategic communication of the meaning process. Therefore, CSs have been generally examined as part of the learner's use of the language and not as the product of the interaction happening between a learner and, at least, one other interlocutor. Selinker (1972) determined the use of CS as one of the processes influencing SLA.Since then, there have been many important contributions that have broaden the area of this field. One may emphasize two major approaches to the study of CS. The first can be stated to have a linguistic basis and is to be found in the works of Tarone (1977, 1980), Faerch and Kasper (1980, 1983, 1984), Harding (1983) or Paribakht (1985). The second tries to present a cognitive or processing basis to the study and can be found in the works of Bialystok (1990) and Poulisse (1990).

3. Research Questions

The aim of this study is to investigate Iranian EFL students' motivation and their self-efficscy in relation to oral communication strategies.The following research questions guided the present study.

1) Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' motivation orientation and their use of oral communication strategies, both as a composite score and in each of components of the construct?

2) Is there any significant relationship between learners' level of self-efficacy (both as a composite score and in each of components of the construct) and their use of oral communication strategies, both as a composite score and in each of components of the construct?

4. Method

4.1. Participants

This study involved 153 BA and MA, EFL students majoring in English literature and teaching courses studying at university of Birjand, Iran. They were randomly selected. These participants included both male and female (49 males and 104 females). Their age range was between 19 to 27 years.

4.2. Instrumentation

The following instruments were used in this study:

4.2.1. Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (Nakatani, 2006)

To assess the participant learners' employment of oral communication strategies, Nakatani's (2006) Oral Communication Strategies Inventory was used. The inventory includes two measures one of which consists of 32 items measuring strategies for coping with speaking problems rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never or almost never true of me*) to 5 (*always or almost always true of me*). The reliability of the 32 items addressing strategies for coping with speaking problems was examined by Cronbach's alpha. Alpha for these 32 items was .80, which indicates a highly acceptable internal consistency. An additional related measure of the inventory assesses strategies for coping with listening problems which includes 26 items also rated along a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never or almost never true of me*) to 5 (*always or almost always true of me*). The reliability, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, of the listening part of the questionnaire was .75, which also indicates a highly acceptable internal consistency. The first measure assesses eight factors including a) Social Affective Strategies, b) Fluency Oriented Strategies, C) Negotiation for Meaning While Speaking, D) Accuracy Oriented Strategies, E) Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies, F) Non-Verbal Strategies While Speaking, G) Message Abandonment Strategies and H) Attempt to Think in English Strategies. The second

measure assesses seven factors including A) Negotiation for Meaning While Speaking, B) Fluency Maintaining Strategies, C) Scanning Strategies, D) Getting the Gist Strategies, E) Non-verbal Strategies While Listening, F) Less Active Listener Strategies, and G) Word Oriented Strategies.

4.2.2. The Integrative and Instrumental Orientation Scale

To assess the participants' motivation orientations, the Integrative and Instrumental Orientation scales of the original 5-point Likert Scale format of Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner, 1985) were used. The items on the scale are rated on a 5-point scale, ranging from *'Strongly Agree'* to *'Strongly Disagree'*. The reliability, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, with the sample in the present study was calculated to be .62.

4.2.3. Self-efficacy Scale

To assess the student participants' self-efficacy, the Perceived Efficacy Scale for self-regulated learning was administered. It consists of 24 items measuring students' self-efficacy to organize their academic work (e.g., "How well do you succeed in finishing all your homework every day?"), motivate them to study ("How well can you study when there are other interesting things to do?"), and focus their attention on their studies ("How well can you pay attention during every class?"). A 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very well*) was used. The reliability of the instrument with the sample in the present study, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was calculated to be.80.

4.3. Data Collection Procedure

After studying some articles and scholars' points of view about oral communication strategy, motivation and learners' self-efficacy, the questionnaires were selected. The validity and the reliability of the questionnaires were carried out successfully.

After selecting the questionnaires, the researcher contacted the head of English department of university in Birjand to have the permission for doing the study. Whenever the participants needed explanations, the researcher provided them.

4.4. Data Analysis Procedure

Three questionnaires on communication strategy, motivation and self-efficacy were selected and administered. The reliability of the questionnaires was estimated through Cronbach's alpha and the three questionnaires employed by the researcher enjoyed relatively high reliability indices. All collected questionnaires were carefully classified and their results were analyzed through SPSS software. The data of the study were analyzed through running descriptive and inferential statistics.

Descriptive statistics includes the reliability of the instruments, the mean, and standard deviations of each person on all dimensions of the instrument. The inferential statistics includes Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1. Participants' Demographic Information

Participants' demographic information is presented in tables below. Table 1 shows data related to the participants' gender and major.

Table 1 *Results of participants' gender*

	Number	Total
Male	49	153
Female	104	

As Table 1 shows, 153 participants have completed the instruments. Based on data in Table 1, 49 participants were male and 104 participants were female.

Table 2 shows the participants' age.

Table 2 *Results of participants' age*

Age					
	Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	10	6.5	6.5	6.5
	19	25	16.3	16.3	22.9
	20	38	24.8	24.8	47.7
	21	11	7.2	7.2	54.9
	22	28	18.3	18.3	73.2
	23	13	8.5	8.5	81.7
	24	20	13.1	13.1	94.8
	25	5	3.3	3.3	98.0
	+25	3	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	153	100.0	100.0	

As Table 2 shows, the participants' age ranges from 18 to over 25 years old. The majority of these participants aged 19, 20 and 22. Only three participants aged older than 25. Table 3 below shows information regarding the participants' years of study.

Table 3 *Results of participants' year of study*

P.Y.S					
	year of study	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	56	36.6	36.6	36.6
	2	36	23.5	23.5	60.1
	3	29	19.0	19.0	79.1
	4	25	16.3	16.3	95.4
	5	6	3.9	3.9	99.3
	7	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	153	100.0	100.0	

Based on data in Table 3 this period of time ranged from 1 to 7 years among these participants. The highest frequency is related to 1 year. However, only 1 participant had studied English for 7 years.

5.2. Questionnaires' Reliability Indices

To ensure that the instruments employed by the researcher were reliable, an analysis was done employing Cronbach's Alpha to estimate reliability indices. Data are shown in Table 4.

Table 4 *Results of Reliability of Questionnaire*

Questionnaire	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
SCSP	32	.80
SCLP	26	.75
Self-efficacy	24	.80
Motivation	8	.62

* Note: SCSP is strategies for coping with speaking problems; SCLP is strategies for coping with listening problems

As Table 4 shows, the instruments, SCSP (α=.809), SCLP (α= .755), Self-efficacy (α=.80), and Motivation (α=.62) employed by the researcher enjoyed relatively high reliability indices.

Table 5 also shows data related to maximum, minimum, mean, and standard deviation of the scores in every questionnaire.

Table 5 *Descriptive statistics of the questionnaires*

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
SCSP	153	77.00	135.00	115.37	11.39

SCLP	153	69	128.00	91.62	10.40
efficacy	153	62	94	80.65	10.172
motivation	153	22	37	30	3.87977
Valid(listwise)	153				

As Table 5 shows, minimum and maximum scores of SCSP are 77.00 and 135.00, respectively. Mean score and standard deviation are, also, 115.37 and 11.39, respectively. Regarding SCLP, minimum and maximum scores are 69 and 128, respectively. Mean score and standard deviation are 91.62 and 10.40, respectively. Considering self-efficacy, minimum and maximum are 62, and 94, respectively. Mean and standard deviation are also 80.65 and 10.172, respectively. Finally, with respect to motivation, Table 5 shows that minimum and maximum are 22 and 37, respectively. Mean score and standard deviation are 30 and 3.84, respectively.

5.3. Research Question One

"Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' motivation orientation and their use of oral communication strategies, both as a composite score and in each of components of the construct?"

In order to determine whether a relationship exists between EFL learners' motivation orientation and their use of oral communication strategies, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was first performed (Table 6).

Table 6 *Results of motivation and oral strategies*

Correlations			
		oral	motivation
oral	Pearson Correlation	1	.509[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	153	153
motivation	Pearson Correlation	.509[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	153	153
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Table 6 shows that there is a statistically significant and direct relationship between these two variables—EFL learners' motivation orientation and their use of oral communication strategies

(r=.509; sig=.000<.01). It is significant because p-value is less than .01 and it is direct because the correlation coefficient value is positive. Therefore, the first null-hypothesis is rejected and it can be concluded that EFL learners' motivation orientation is directly and significantly related to their use of oral communication strategies.

In order to address the second part of the question, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was conducted for every two components. First, the correlation between speaking strategies and integrative motivation was calculated (Table 7).

Table 7 *Results of correlation between speaking strategies and integrative motivation*

		SCSP	integrative
SCSP	Pearson Correlation	1	.477**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	153	153
integrative	Pearson Correlation	.477**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	153	153
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

As Table 7 shows, there is a statistically significant and direct correlation (r=.477, sig=.000) between integrative motivation and SCSP. The correlation is significant at the .01 level.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was also conducted to investigate the correlation between speaking strategies and instrumental motivation (Table 8).

Table 8 *Results of correlation between speaking strategies and instrumental motivation*

		SCSP	instrumental
SCSP	Pearson Correlation	1	.337**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	153	153
instrumental	Pearson Correlation	.337**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	153	153
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

As Table 8 displays, correlation between speaking strategies and instrumental motivation is statistically significant as well as direct (r=.337, sig=.000). Also, Pearson Product Moment

Correlation Coefficient was conducted to investigate the correlation between listening strategies and integrative motivation (Table 9).

Table 9 *Results of correlation between listening strategies and integrative motivation*

		SCLP	integrative
SCLP	Pearson Correlation	1	.453**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	153	153
integrative	Pearson Correlation	.453**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	153	153
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

As Table 9 shows, there is a statistically significant correlation (r=.543, sig=.000) between listening strategies and integrative motivation. Finally, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was conducted to investigate the correlation between listening strategies and instrumental motivation (Table 10).

Table 10 *Results of correlation between listening strategies and instrumental motivation*

		SCLP	instrumental
SCLP	Pearson Correlation	1	.392**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	153	153
instrumental	Pearson Correlation	.392**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	153	153
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

As Table 10 displays, listening strategies are significantly and directly correlated with instrumental motivation (r=.392, sig=.000).

5.4. Research Question Two

"Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' level of self-efficacy and their use of oral communication strategies, both as a composite score and in each of components of the construct?"

To check whether EFL learners' level of self-efficacy and their use of oral communication strategies is related to each other or not, the following null-hypothesis was proposed:

H0.2) There is no significant relationship between EFL learners' level of self-efficacy (both as a composite score and in each of components of the construct) and their use of oral communication strategies, both as a composite score and in each of components of the construct. Similar to the former null-hypothesis, Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis was employed. Data are shown in Table 11.

Table 11 *Results of efficacy and oral strategies*

Correlations			
		oral	efficacy
oral	Pearson Correlation	1	.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.224
	N	153	153
efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.099	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.224	
	N	153	153

Table 11 shows that there is not nay significant relationship between these two variables − EFL learners' level of self-efficacy and their use of oral communication strategies (r=.099; sig=.224>.05). Therefore, the second null-hypothesis is supported and the researcher concludes that EFL learners' level of self-efficacy is not significantly related to their use of oral communication strategies.

To address the second part of the research question, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was conducted to investigate the correlation between speaking strategies and self-efficacy (Table 12).

Table 12 *Results of correlation between speaking strategies and self-efficacy*

		SCSP	efficacy
SCSP	Pearson Correlation	1	.160*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.048
	N	153	153
efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.160*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048	
	N	153	153
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

As Table 12 shows, there is a statistically significant (r=.16, sig=.048<.05) correlation between speaking strategies and self-efficacy. The correlation is significant at the .05 level. Also, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was conducted to investigate the correlation between listening strategies and self-efficacy (Table 13).

Table 13 *Results of correlation between listening strategies and self-efficacy*

		efficacy	SCLP
efficacy	Pearson Correlation	1	-.107
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.186
	N	153	153
SCLP	Pearson Correlation	-.107	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.186	
	N	153	153

As Table 13 shows, there is not any statistically significant (r=-.107, sig= .186>.05) correlation between listening strategies and self-efficacy.

6. Conclusions

Based on the present findings in this study, it can be concluded that EFL learners' motivation orientation is directly and significantly related to their use of oral communication strategies. Therefore, it can be concluded that motivation is one of the significant affective factors that affect language learning. There is also a significant correlation between integrative motivation and listening and speaking strategies. The relationship between instrumental motivation with speaking and listening strategies is significant and they are directly correlated to each other. The results obtained in this study demonstrate that there is not any significant relationship between self-efficacy and communication strategies for the listening skill but there is a direct and significant relationship between speaking strategies and self-efficacy.

6.1. Findings

In contrast to the results of findings in this study, Huang (2010) discovered no differences in CS use across high and low proficiency groups but instead realized that self-perceived oral proficiency, frequency of speaking English outside the classroom and motivation related with CS use significantly.

Dörnyei (2005) also cited that motivation "provides the primary impetus to initiate FL learning and later the driving force to sustain language and often tedious learning process" (p. 65). According to Finegan(1999),when somebody becomes a member in a new community that uses the target language in its social interactions, integrative motivation is a key component in helping the learner to expand some level of proficiency in the language. It becomes a requisite, in order to function socially effectively in the community and become one of its members. It is also explained that "integrative motivation typically underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a native like pronunciation" (p. 568). With instrumental motivation the goal of language acquisition is more practical, such as meeting the needs for school or university graduation, applying for a job, asking for higher pays based on language capability, reading technical material, translation work or attaining higher social position. Instrumental motivation is often a feature of second language acquisition, where little or no social incorporation of the learner into a community using the target language happens, or in some examples is even desired(Hudson, 2000). Magogwe and Oliver (2007) found that there is an important and positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and overall use of language learning strategies for the students.

Chen and Deborah (2007) also investigated the link between EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and English listening achievement. The results of their study also showed that in the area of listening, students' self-efficacy beliefs were much stronger predicators of language performance than students' anxiety and perceived value were.

As an overall look at the results of the study, Iranian EFL learners' motivation orientation is significantly related with oral communication strategies. The results of the study also demonstrates that there is not a significant relationship between self-efficacy and communication strategies for the listening skill but there is a direct and significant relationship between speaking strategies and self-efficacy.

6.2. Implications

As with any research in applied linguistics, it is necessary to view results in light of how they can inform the practitioners with insightful suggestions for improving the quality of their profession and students' language learning. Thus, the researcher has listed the possible implications of the study based on the findings of this research. These implications are offered under the two broad categories: those related to teaching and those concerning learning.

6.2.1. Pedagogical Implications for Teaching

In light of the findings of this study, the following implications can be suggested for teachers. Teachers should know that language motivation is highly correlated to FL achievement. Thus, exploring the relationship between motivation and EFL achievement will help language teachers and instructors to clarify the role of motivation in language pedagogy. Teachers can design and carry out lessons that emphasize the motivation of each student to learn English. According to Hargis (1989), Ames (1992), and Long (1997), students are the most logical assessors of courses and teacher performance. Dörnyei (1995) argues that teachers should enhance students' awareness, motivate them to take risks, and supply them with models and chances to use communication strategies.

Finally, the results of this research may help language teachers improve their teaching and curriculum design with a hope to enhance students' language proficiency by creating classroom atmosphere which motivates students to use target language for communication.

6.2.2. Pedagogical Implications for Learning

As with teachers, learners can benefit from the results of this research. Communication strategies have a significant impact on communication and play an important role in foreign language learning. FL students are expected to utilize communication strategies in a meaningful way. In order to attain communicative aims, and to be able to send the right message, learners are also expected to be strongly encouraged for starting oral communication. Thus, motivating foreign language learners to take risks in communication and use communication strategies is of great importance. Learners should use strategies in their listening and speaking activities. They should also use available resources without being afraid of making mistakes in communication.

6.3. Suggestions for Further Research

This study was an attempt to investigate Iranian EFL students' motivation orientation, self-efficacy and their use of oral communication strategies.

As mentioned earlier, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no previous study has investigated Iranian EFL students' motivation orientation, self-efficacy and their use of oral communication strategies; therefore, there is still room for further studies. Below it has been tried to offer some suggestions for future researches.

First, since only English major university students were investigated in the study, it is hard to strongly generalize the findings obtained by the researcher to other students. Therefore, further research is needed to examine students in private institutes.

Second, in this study the researcher just investigated the result of the study at the upper-intermediate level in order to make a more homogeneous comparison. However, more research can be conducted to investigate students at different levels that consequently result in obtaining more precise information.

Third, the focus of this research was only to examine students' motivation, self-efficacy and their use of oral communication strategies. Other studies can be done qualitatively to investigate the attitudes of both EFL teachers and learners towards communication strategies.

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Title

The Impact of Decision-making Tasks and Production Tasks on the Performance of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners in Different Parts of a Collocation Test

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Abstract

The present study is an attempt to investigate the impact of decision-making (identifying, selecting and matching) tasks and production (creation of sentences, question-answering and fill-gap) tasks on the performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners in different parts of a collocation test. For this study, sixty intermediate EFL learners were divided into two experimental (decision-making and production) groups. To determine the effects of the tasks, the participants in the two groups were given the collocation pre-test aiming at examining their existing knowledge of collocation. After being exposed to the treatment, they were given the collocation post-test to measure the impact of these tasks on the performance of the learners in different parts of the collocation test. The results of the independent-samples t-test revealed that there was no significant difference between the performance of the two groups in multiple choice items and fill-gap items with Persian translation, but the production group outperformed in fill-gap items.

Keywords: Lexical chunk, Collocate, Collocational competence

1. Introduction

There are various techniques to teach vocabulary, such as physical demonstration, verbal explanation, providing synonyms and antonyms, translating, using visual aids, asking learners to check the meaning in the dictionary, exemplification and presenting a word in the context. Synonyms are used to explain unknown words but as Gairns and Redman (1986) say: "it is rarely the case that two words will be synonymous on every occasion – if they were, there would be little need to have both words in the language" (p. 23). They exemplify that the verb *commit* may be defined as *do* or *make* in the examples *to commit a crime* or *to commit an error*, but *commit* only collocates with certain nouns and is not generally synonymous with *do* or *make*. Corpus linguistic investigations (e.g. Carter and McCarthy 1997; Sinclair 1991: as cited in Boers and Lindstromberg, 2008) found overwhelming evidence that in L1 discourse particular words tend to co-occur with others e.g. in collocations and other lexical phrases. Among approches to language teaching, Lexical Approach places more emphasis on presenting the words in language chunks rather than in isolation since language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary, but often of multiword chunks. According to Lewis (1997: as cited in Rahimi and Momeni, 2012), chunks include collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions and idioms, and occupy a crucial role in facilitating language production, being the key to fluency. Also Boers and Lindstromberg (2009) exemplify that may know that *naked* and *nude* are closely synomymous but not realize that *stark naked* is idiomatic whereas *stark nude* is not. Willis (2006: as cited in Rahimi and Momeni, 2012) suggests that native speakers' fluency is related to the fact that their vocabulary is not stored only as individual words, but also as parts of phrases and larger chunks, which can be retrieved from the memory as a whole and, thus reduce processing difficulties. As Randall (1946) states, native speakers are able to take in and chunk more information at one time through their knowledge of the language structure. He says that one way this chunking and information load reduction is realized is through the knowledge of syntactic structure of the language, but another related way is through the knowledge of the associations between words, their collocations and colligations. Brown (1974) said that most learners who want to expand their vocabulary, have been taught using a book based on syntactic principles. After such a course, the students can produce all kinds of sentences that are grammatically correct but as their vocabulary begins to increase, the sentences contain mistakes by the misuse or unacceptable use of content words. She stated that exercises based on collocation, the study of lexical patterns, can give enough freedom to let learners learn

from their own and others` mistakes. According to McIntosh (1963: as cited in Brown, 1974), an observance of the conventions of grammar is only half the battle; the major use of language involves due observance of the equally important conventions of lexis. Davies and Elder (2004) stated that a problem for even advanced language learners is that they may speak grammatically, yet their language use does not sound native-like, because it deviates from native speaker collocational norms.

This study aimed at examining the impact of decision-making tasks and production tasks on the performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners in different parts of a collocation test.

2. Review of the Related Literature

The study of collocation started in the 1950s and the term was coined by Firth (Schiebert, 2009). Collocation is a word with a number of definitions. Partington (1998, cited in Hoey, 2005) groups these into textual, statistical and psychological definitions. As a textual definition Sinclair (1991, p. 170, cited in Walker, 2008, p. 292) defined collocation as this:"collocation is the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text. The usual measure of proximity is a maximum of four words intervening". Hoey (2005) says that this definition is not useful and can result in a confusion of single instances of co-occurrence with repeated patterns of co-occurrence. The statistical definition of collocation is that it is "the relationship a lexical item has with items that appear with greater than random probability in its (textual) context" (Hoey, 1991, p. 6-7, cited in Hoey, 2005, p. 3). Thornbury (1988) says:

Two words are collocates if they occur together with more than chance frequency, such that, when we see one, we can make a fairly safe bet that the other is in the neighbourhood. Collocation, then, is best seen as part of a continuum of strength of association: continuum that moves from compound words *(second-hand, record player)*, through multi-word units or lexical chunks *(bits and pieces)*, including idioms *(out of the blue)* and phrasal verbs *(do up)*, to collocations of more or less fixedness *(set the record straight, set a new world record)*. (p. 7)

Partington`s third type of definition is psychological or associative definition. There are two well-known psychological definitions. The first is that provided by Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 287, cited in Hoey, 2005, p. 4) who refer to collocation as a cohesive device and describe it as "a cover term for the kind of cohesion that results from the co-occurrence of lexical items that are in some way or other typically associated with one another, because they tend to occur in similar

environments". As Johnson and Johnson (1999) state, "collocation is one of the binding forces in language, organizing LEXIS according to which words typically occur together and showing networks of word association" (p. 57). Hoey (2005) says that the association they refer to must be a psychological one, in which words are regularly associated in the mind because of the way they are regularly encountered in similar textual contexts. Based on this definition, collocation is a property of the mental lexicon. According to Schmitt and McCarthy (1996), the mental lexicon refers to all of the lexical items stored in a persons mind, including their organization.

Several studies have explored the collocational competence of second language learners. Levenston (cited in Schmitt, 2000) found that native speakers relied on collocational criteria to a large extent when they responded to a completion task. On the other hand, even advanced L2 were much less likely to respond with collocational based answers. Granger (1998, cited in Schmitt, 2000) found that French learners of English used some collocational combinations far more than did native English speakers, in particular amplifiers such as *very*, *completely*, *highly*, *dazzlingly*, and *strongly*. The nonnatives tended to overuse the words that collocated most freely with a wide variety of other words. She suggests that this liberal use of "all-rounders," especially *very*, is a "safe bet" strategy to minimize error. She also found that in identifying the most common collocates, the natives were much more confident and the most appropriate collocational combinations are often not very salient for nonnatives.

Another study by Fan (2008) tried to have a deeper understanding of collocational use by adopting a task-based approach and using two highly comparable corpora based on the writing of Hong Kong ESL learners and native-speaker British students. Results of the study indicated that the performance of the Hong Kong students in collocational use might be adversely affected by their L1 and L2 as well as their inadequacy in the lexis and grammar of the target language. Hong Kong learners` collocational use was severely restricted by their deficiency in the knowledge of vocabulary and grammar of English language. Also some deviant collocational use was as a result of the learners` confusion with English language e.g. confusion with the loose synonyms in English. Granger (1998, cited in Schmitt, 2000) found that most of the English collocations used by the French learners of English were congruent with collocations in their L1, and so might have transferred. Bahns (1993, cited in Schmitt, 2000) suggests that this is exactly what happens. He also suggests that learners are able to transfer directly translatable collocations from their native language to the target language. Also Bahns (1997, cited in Mehburger, 2009) says that even

advanced learners who had good knowledge of English and knew grammar rules very well, had problems producing text that sounds idiomatic, especially regarding collocations. The collocation mistakes they made were often the result of the influence of their mother tongue on their English texts.

Also there are some studies on the teaching and learning of collocation. Hausmann (2004, p. 310, cited in Mehburger, 2009, p. 3) suggests that after learning some basic vocabulary, particularly nouns, students of English need to learn which adjectives or verbs can be used together with the nouns. Herbst, Stoll, Westermayr (1991, cited in Mehburger, 2009) say that it might take German learners of English quite some time to learn that you can say *blond hair* but not *blond car* or that a good-looking woman is not a *handsome woman*, like a man would be called, but a *beautiful* or *pretty woman*. A study by Daskalovska (2011) investigated the degree to which intermediate EFL learners can acquire knowledge of spelling, meaning and collocation of target words with different frequency from reading an authentic novel. The study showed that there was improvement in all three aspects of word knowledge. An important contribution of this study was the insight into gaining knowledge of collocations. The results showed that the participants learned the collocates of 26.44% of the target words. She concluded that having in mind that collocation and some other aspects of word knowledge are better learned from context (Krashen, 1989; Nation, 2001, as cited in Daskalovska, 2011), in order to enable learners to gain deeper knowledge of the words, language learning programs need to include an extensive reading component. A study by Tekingul (2013) tried to investigate whether explicit collocation teaching has a positive effect on reading comprehension compared to explicit single-item vocabulary instruction followed by a reading passage among 3rd year ELT department students. According to the test results, there were no significant differences between single-item vocabulary instruction treatment and collocation teaching treatment. The researcher stated one plausible explanation according to Carrell, Gajdusek and Wise (1998) that at advanced level EFL learners have already mastered quite a few metacognitive strategies for reading comprehension. Another conclusion for lack of significance of the results could be due to a single reading passage.

3. Method

3.1 Design

This research is quasi-experimental in nature, for it was not possible for the researcher to select the participants for this study in random. Since this study is quasi-experimental, the conclusions should be cautiously interpreted. Sixty intermediate EFL learners in Chabahar Maritime University were selected via Nelson Proficiency Test. The participants, whose scores, according to the point scale of the Nelson proficiency test indicated the intermediate level, entered the experiment. To establish the homogeneity of the two groups in the case of collocational knowledge, the participants took a collocation test. Based on their scores, the participants were divided into two homogeneous groups. Then, the two experimental groups received collocation instruction. One of the experimental groups practiced decision-making tasks and the other group received production tasks. At the end of the instruction period, the participants took the collocation post-test, which was applied to determine their collocational knowledge after the treatment.

3.2 Materials

The content of collocation materials used for this study was the same for both groups. The difference was in the case of task type. One group practiced decision-making tasks and the other group received production tasks. The content of some tasks were selected from these two books: *English Collocations in Use (intermediate level)* by McCarthy and O`Dell (2005) and *English Collocations in Use (advanced level)* by O`Dell and McCarthy (2008). The content for the other tasks were created by the researcher. The sentences for these tasks were selected from the above two mentioned books and also from *Key Words for Fluency (Intermediate Collocation Practice)* by Woolard (2005), *Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary*, *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*. In addition to these books, the researcher used these two internet sources too: *The British National Corpus (BNC)* and *The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)*.

3.3 Pre-test of Collocation

A pre-test of collocation was used as the other required instrument in this study. In order to answer the research questions, a test of collocation was administered to determine the participants` collocational knowledge homogeneity in each group, due to the fact that language proficiency is composed of different abilities, one of which is knowledge of vocabulary (here knowledge of collocation), which may be dissimilar even in the learners who are at the same level of language proficiency. All the participants were given this main pre-test prior to the treatment to ensure the comparability of the two groups` collocational knowledge at the beginning of the study. This test consisted of two subtests: lexical collocations and grammatical collocations each consisting of 45

items. Each subtest had three subsections which presented a different test task: 15 multiple-choice items, 15 fill-gap items and 15 fill-gap items accompanied by Persian translation. This test was developed by Salimi, Tavakoli, and Ketabi (2011) in a Ph.D thesis. This test is the same as the post-test.

Example: Lexical collocations

Smoking can ----------------- **damage** your health.

a. alternatively   b. frequently   c. seriously   d. adequately

I'm **tr**---------------- **sympathetic** to what happened to your brother's best friend.

The school is **in** --------------- **need of** some new computers. (ضروری) فوری از (نیاز)

Example 4: Grammatical collocations

Teachers who use drama are working **in partnership** ---------------- pupils.

a. with   b. to   c. for   d. by

Yates is struggling to **recover** --------------- a serious knee injury.

It must be difficult to **cope** --------------- three small children and a job. (از عهده بر آمدن)

3.4 Treatment for the Decision-making Group

In the treatment for the decision-making group, the participants were given decision-making tasks. Among different types of decision-making tasks, this group practiced only identifying, selecting and matching tasks.

Example

She had a *blank / clear / empty* expression on her face.

He was always impressed by the *salient / stunning / striking* resemblance between his Uncle Julian and his father.

I didn`t want to *take/ pass up/get* the opportunity of seeing Hong Kong.

Match words to form collocations. Then match them to the definitions.

blank   the opportunity

striking   expression

pass up   resemblance

a) two things or people which look very similar

b) a person`s face which shows no emotion

c) fail to take advantage of

3.5 Treatment for the Production Group

In the treatment for the production group, the participants were given production tasks. Among different types of production tasks, this group practiced only creation of sentences, question-answering and fill-gap exercises

Example

She had a b…………… expression on her face.

He was always impressed by the s…………… resemblance between his Uncle Julian and his father.

I didn`t want to p……….. the opportunity of seeing Hong Kong.

Write an appropriate collocation for each definition.

a. two things or people which look very similar

b. a person`s face which shows no emotion

c. fail to take advantage of

3.6 Post-test of Collocation

A test of collocational competence was administered as a post-test to determine the participants` knowledge of English collocations after the treatment. This test was the same as the pre-test.

4. Results and Discussion

In order to answer the research question, a description of the processes used for the statistical analyses was provided and the results, data and information provided in the charts and statistical tables were interpreted.

4.1 Performance of the Participants on the Pre-test of Collocation

After administering Nelson proficiency test and based on their scores on the pre-test of collocation, the participants were divided into two homogeneous groups. The researcher tried to divide the participants in a way that the two groups were homogeneous. An independent-samples t-test was run for the results of the two groups to determine if they are homogeneous or not.

Table 1

Results of the Collocation Pre-test of the Two Groups

Group Statistics					
	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	Decision-making Group	30	19.13	3.674	.671
	Production Group	30	19.40	3.663	.669

In this table, N stands for the number of the participants in each group. Each group consisted of 30 participants. As this table illustrates, in the decision-making group, the mean is 19.13 out of 90, and the average variability of all scores around the mean i.e. standard deviation is 3.674, (*Mean* = 19.13, *SD* = 3.674). In the production group, the mean is 19.4 out of 90, and the standard deviation is 3.663, (*Mean* = 19.4, *SD* = 3.663).

Table 2

Independent-samples T-test Results of the Collocation Pre-test of the Two Groups

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-test Equal variances assumed	.011	.919	-.282	58	.779	-.267	.947	-2.163	1.629
Equal variances not assumed			-.282	58.000	.779	-.267	.947	-2.163	1.629

In the column of 95% confidence interval of the differences, zero is included, -2.163 and 1.629. If the 95% confidence interval contains zero, then the effect will not be significant at the .05 level. Since the confidence interval includes zero, it can be said that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups at the given level of confidence. The positive form of *t* i.e. .282 is not equal or greater than 2, so the differences are not meaningful. The significance level is .779 which is bigger than .05, *p* > .05. In other words, the two groups proved to be homogeneous at the beginning of the study.

4.2 Performance of the Two Groups in Different Parts of the Collocation Test

The post-test consisted of 30 multiple choice items, 15 items related to lexical collocations and 15 items related to grammatical collocations. The mean values for the decision-making group and the production group were 22.33 and 23.2 respectively. The significance level was .309 which is not smaller than .05. So these results showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of their performance on the multiple choice items. The test consisted of 30 fill-gap items. Like the multiple choice items, 15 items were related to lexical collocations and 15 items were related to grammatical collocations. The mean values for the decision-making group and the production group were 14.3 and 21.8 respectively. The significance level was .000 which is smaller than .05. So these results showed that there was significant difference between the two groups in terms of their performance on the sentence completion items. Also the post-test consisted of 30 fill-gap items with Persian translation, 15 items related to lexical collocations and 15 items related to grammatical collocations. The mean values for the decision-making group and the production group were 14.03 and 15.8 respectively. The significance level was .098 which is not smaller than .05. So these results showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of their performance on the items with Persian translation. Table 3 and Table 4 show the independent-samples test results.

Table 3

Results of the Performance of the Two Groups on Different Parts of the Collocation

Group Statistics

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Multiple-Choice Items	Decision-making Group	30	22.33	2.264	.413
	Production Group	30	23.20	4.038	.737
Fill-gap Items	Decision-making Group	30	14.30	4.268	.779
	Production Group	30	21.80	5.549	1.013
Fill-gap Items with Persian Translation	Decision-making Group	30	14.03	5.249	.958
	Production Group	30	15.80	2.355	.430

Table 4

Independent Samples Test Results of the Performance of the Two Groups in Different Parts of the Collocation Test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Multiple-Choice Items	Equal variances assumed	3.599	.063	-1.025	58	.309	-.867	.845	-2.558	.825
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.025	45.597	.311	-.867	.845	-2.568	.835
Fill-gap Items	Equal variances assumed	2.569	.114	-5.868	58	.000	-7.500	1.278	-10.058	-4.942
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.868	54.420	.000	-7.500	1.278	-10.062	-4.938
Fill-gap Items with Persian Translation	Equal variances assumed	24.958	.000	-1.682	58	.098	-1.767	1.050	-3.869	.336
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.682	40.219	.100	-1.767	1.050	-3.889	.356

As it was stated before, this study examined the impact of decision-making tasks and production tasks on the performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners in different parts of a collocation test. The researcher used two types of tasks i.e. decision-making tasks and production tasks. Richards and Rodgers (2001) suggested that activities should draw student`s attention to lexical collocations and seek to enhance their retention and use of collocations. According to Woolard (2000, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), teachers should reexamine their course books for collocations and add exercises that focus explicitly on lexical phrases. The decision-making tasks included in this study were: identifying, selecting and matching. Thornbury (1988) stated that selecting tasks are cognitively more complex than identification tasks, since they involve both

recognizing words and making choices among them. He said that the decision-making tasks are principally receptive and learners make judgement about the words, but don`t necessarily produce them. Also he said: "because of the two-part nature of collocations, any matching activities lend themselves to work on them" (p. 121). The production tasks included in this study were: creation of sentences, question-answering and gap-fill tasks. Ellis (2003) stated that samples elicited by means of blank-filling exercises are likely to reflect the learners` attention to accuracy whereas samples elicited by means of some kind of communicative activity are more likely to reflect how learners use the L2 for message conveyance. Levenston (cited in Schmitt, 2000) found that native speakers relied on collocational criteria to a large extent when they responded to a completion task.

Participants` level of language proficiency was determined via Nelson Proficiency Test. Prior to the experiment, the participants took a pre-test of collocation. This test consisted of 30 multiple-choice items, 30 fill-gap items and 30 fill-gap items accompanied by Persian translation. The results showed the participants` weak performance on the pre-test. These results of the collocation pre-test in this study revealed that Iranian EFL learners are in lack of necessary knowledge of collocations, and this is in line with the results of previous studies conducted on EFL learners` knowledge of collocations in Iran and the other countries. Levenston (cited in Schmitt, 2000) stated that even advanced L2 were much less likely to respond with collocational based answers. Granger (1998, cited in Schmitt, 2000) found that in identifying the most common collocates, the natives were much more confident and the most appropriate collocational combinations are often not very salient for nonnatives.

This research aimed at investigating the impact of decision-making tasks and production tasks on the performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners in different parts of a collocation test. The findings of this study revealed that both treatments (decision-making tasks and production tasks) proved to be considerably effective methods of learning collocations. Dramatic changes in the participants` scores in the post-test in comparison with the pre-test point to the fact that decision-making tasks and production tasks can be used as effective explicit methods of teaching collocations in English classrooms. Boers and Lindstromberg (2008) said that lexis is likely to remain inadequately learned in the absence of explicitly form-focused instruction. They said that there is empirical evidence that explicit form-focused instruction can facilitate the learning of L2 collocations, an outcome which seems especially likely in cases where the L1 sets up wrong expectations. The results showed that although both task types had a significant effect on the

collocational knowledge of the participants, the production group had a better performance in fill-gap items. The significance level for the performance of the two groups in multiple-choice items and fill-gap items accompanied with Persian translation was .309 and .098 respectively which is bigger than .05. These results showed that there was no significant difference in the performance of the two groups in these items. The significance level for the performance of the two groups in fill-gap items was .000 which is smaller than .05. These results revealed that there was significance difference in the performance of the two groups in these items. Based on these results, participants who practiced production tasks outperformed in fill-gap items. In other words, production tasks more effective on the performance of the participants in fill-gap items.

5. Conclusion

The present study was an attempt to investigate the impact of decision-making tasks and production tasks on the performance of Iranian EFL learners in different parts of a collocation test. Participants in this study were divided into two groups. The participants in the decision-making group were given decision-making tasks including identifying, selecting and matching tasks, and participants in the production group received production tasks i.e. creation of sentences, fill-gap and question-answering.

The findings of this study indicated the significant effect of both task types on the collocational knowledge of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. The results provided evidence that both task types were effective on the participants` performance in different parts of the test, but production tasks were more effective on the performance of the participants in fill-gap items and the significance level of .000 showed significantly different effect of production tasks. Since language production consists of piecing together the ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation and comprehension relies on knowing which of these patterns to predict in these situations, teaching collocations through production tasks would center on these patterns and the ways they can be pieced together.

5.1 Applications and Implications

The current study has proved that collocations can be taught explicitly in EFL contexts. Considering the role of collocations in improving language learners` fluency and accuracy, teachers should take into account explicitly teaching collocations. In an EFL context, learners are mostly deprived of having enough exposure to English language so teachers should encourage the

learners to be aware of collocations. This study recommends some courses of action for EFL teachers, material designers, and methodologists that enable them to choose the best method to teach collocation. Considering the role of collocations in improving language learners` fluency and accuracy, teachers need to take into account explicitly teaching collocations. In the case of EFL teachers, this study encourages them to teach collocation via employing appropriate task types. A combination of decision-making tasks and production tasks is supposed to be more efficient in facilitating collocation teaching and learning. In this case, students are required to practice what is taught through doing some tasks and activities. The findings of this study have useful implications for ELT material designers as they design textbooks for EFL learners. It is suggested that authentic materials should be provided for EFL learners to involve them in every day and real life topics. The exercises should be designed using both decision-making and production task types. Therefore, it is necessary to include authentic and tangible materials and appropriate tasks in the textbooks for collocation teaching and learning.

5.2 Suggestions for Further Research

Learning collocations improves learners` oral fluency, listening comprehension and reading speed. Also it enables learners gradually to realize language chunks used by native speakers in speech and writing. The future researches can focus how these two task types in teaching collocation can affect each of these skills. One can investigate how learning collocation improves learners` listening comprehension, reading, oral fluency and accuracy, and also writing. This study showed the learners` collocational knowledge just by focusing on single collocates. It is recommended that other studies try to analyze the learners` collocational knowledge through comparing their writing tasks with those of native speakers of English, thereby giving the learners the opportunity to produce multi-word collocations of different kinds.

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Title

Critical Discourse Analysis and the Translation of Idiomatic Expressions:
A Case Study of *The Catcher in the Rye*

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Abstract

This article is a critical discourse analysis (CDA) of the translation of idiomatic expressions in a novel entitled, *The Catcher in the Rye* written by Salinger and its three Persian translations. Toury's (1995) descriptive Translation theory along with Fairclough's (1989) model of CDA were employed to analyse and to examine the translation of idiomatic expressions related to three different periods in Iran, before and after the Islamic Revolution in 1979, the reformist era (1998) as well conservatives period (2013), by focusing on macro level. The strategies which were used by the three Persian translators and their justification behind their use of these terms were investigated. The data were interpreted according to experiential, relational, and expressive values at the vocabulary level. The results of the study show that each period had a great influence on translation and translating the idiomatic expressions. The first translator before the Islamic Revolution attempts to translate the nuances and details of the novel to make it more understandable culturally. During the post-revolutionary eras, the other two translators tried to use words

for the same vocabulary being outdated and replaced them with terms which were culturally more acceptable for each era.

1. Introduction

Speaking about translation studies requires many considerations. One of the most important issues in translation is found in the differences between SL culture and TL culture (Larson, 1998). In literary translation, finding proper equivalence of idioms causes serious problems because idioms are culture bound and never occur in simple or denotative meanings. In order to deal with this kind of problems, different strategies are used by translators, so it is useful to discuss and categorize these strategies in order to help translators to make the best and appropriate decisions while translating.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Translation is known as a process by which a chain of signifiers constituting the Source Language (SL) text is replaced by a chain of signifiers in the Target Language (TL) text which are the translator's choices (Venuti, 1995; Derrida, 1982). Venuti (1995) focuses on cultural differences and defines translation as a forcible replacement for the linguistic and cultural differences of the foreign text with a text that is intelligible to the target reader (Nida, 1964; Toury, 1978; Newmark, 1988; Baker 1992; Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997).

Meanwhile, Lamberts (1998) claims that the aim of literary translation, among other types of translation, is to meet a need in the literary culture of the target language; therefore, to deal with them the translation strategies are applied to discuss that is useful for explaining the literary relationships and convention. Moreover, Lamberts (1998) emphasizes the impact of translated literary works in creating the dynamics of discourse and culture, mentioning that the nature of literary translation makes scholars consider and investigate the conditions under which translation is produced; therefore, it is not easy to study state of translated literary works. In line with this, culture remains a key issue which should be considered in translation of literary texts. Snell-Hornby (1990) introduces a new concept called 'the cultural turn' and states that this is a viewpoint

that regards translation as a cultural and political issue not merely as a textual one. Bassnett and Lefevere (1990) explain that cultural turn emphasizes on the relationships between language and culture and show that how culture influences and constrains translation and contains other areas such as history and conventions. Other scholars believe that translating cultural words and expressions in literary works is difficult due to cultural implications in translation (Newmark, 1988; Nida, 1964; Bassnett, 1991).

Concerning the conception of culture and translation, Toury (1978) believes that translation involves both language and culture. Thus, the way of treating the cultural aspects of a SL and finding the most appropriate technique for a successful conveying of these aspects in the TL is one of the most problems of translators. Baker (1992) states that sometimes in translation, a SL word express a social or religious concept which is not known in target culture, and it usually occurs due to cultural differences in languages which this cause problems in translation from SL into TL. Venuti (1995) notes that because of differences between SL and TL, linguistic and cultural similarities should be found. In addition, he believes that translation should emphasize on cultural differences. On the other hand, Shuttleworth & Cowie (1997) argue that cultural approach in translation is used for anthropological studies. IN a novel, language plays a very important role. It introduces the character, his or her social class, and the culture of the speaker. It also reflects the atmosphere of the novel. Language is one of the most important devices applied by the author in presenting the characters. In fact, authors communicate to their readers through the tongue of their characters, and they state their ideas, thoughts, and intentions through these characters. Furthermore, the language of characters leads the readers to their identity, social class, their level of literacy, and so on. In this regard, Landers (2001), states that in any language, every utterance and even a word in isolation convey a set of associations that go beyond the literal denotation of words. In fact, Landers believes that human beings, consciously or unconsciously, equate words, expressions, grammatical construction, and even intonation patterns with non-linguistic characteristic such as class, status, and educational level, which are defined socially(2001).

Thus, translating with the same level of formality is of great importance in translation, especially when the author uses the languages as his or her stylistic tool (Saffari & Hashemian, 2012). As a result, the first and the most crucial responsibility of the translator is the recognition of the language and the style that has been used in a novel and render them with the same level in order to produce the same feeling on the target reader.

Considering the formality of language, idiomatic language is one of the language levels that might be used by the author for an effective characterization and making the atmosphere of the story and they should be reflected in translation thoroughly. According to Nopper (2010), a proper assessment of the nonstandard language like idiomatic language, youth language, and so forth of the source text is necessary in order to create the same effect of the nonstandard language in the target text. A translator should keep in mind that such an effect is not an incidental consequence, but an intentional one (Saffari & Hashemian, 2012); therefore, the proper translation of this language and finding correct equivalences by the translator in order to achieve the author's intended goals and to provoke the same impact from the target readers and to preserve cultural and local coloring of the original text are of great importance.

3. Statement of the Problem

One of the most difficult problems in translation is found in the differences between SL culture and TL culture (Larson, 1998). In literary, translation of idioms causes serious problems because idiom is language and culture bound and never occurs in simple or denotative meanings (Stolt, 2010; Eriksen 2010). Particularly, when translating literary works that belong to two wholly culturally different countries may be indispensably and instantly recognized. In order to deal with this kind of problems in translation, different strategies are used by translators; therefore, it is useful to discuss and categorize these strategies in order to help translators to make the best and appropriate decisions while translating. Although translating idioms in *The Cather in the Rye* may present challenges, it may be one of the most important aspects of preserving the flavor of the presented idiolect and effect it has on readers (O'Mara, 2007). Since no two languages are alike, target languages cannot always provide correspondences in both form/structure and meaning (O'Mara, 2007) and scrutinizing the translations meant for this study will yield invaluable information about the idiomatic expressions and the strategies used by the authors through time. In fact, it is admitted that in the above- word level, the main problem is the lack of appropriated equivalence. It is perfect if a translator could find an idiom in the target language which is same in its form and meaning as the source language. Since each language has its idioms that are context and culture bound, it is hard to find the exact equivalence. Also, they are problematic for translators because of their unpredictable meaning and grammar. In order to deal with the problems that arise in the process of translation, different translators use various strategies to achieve the equivalent

above-word level. As a result, translators leave out some parts of the story, add some extra information to it, exaggerate some parts of the story or underestimate some others, and choose different equivalents for specific parts, in order to make it compatible with their strategies.The main purpose of this investigation is to determine how the three translatorshave translated the idiomatic expressions at the macro levels according to translation strategies within the CDA model of translation criticism during three different eras before and after the revolution of Iran? What are the similarities and differences between their applied strategies?

4. Method

4.1. Corpus of the Study

The corpus of this study is a body of idioms presented in dialogues of Salinger's *The Catcher in the Rye* and its three Persian translations, by A. Karimi (first edition in 1966), Najafi (first edition in 1998 and the eighth edition in 2010) and the third one is translated by M. Karimi (2014).

4.2. Procedure

The main procedure of this study is based on Fairclough (1989) model of CDA. He proposes text, interaction, and social context as three elements of a discourse, presents a procedure for critical discourse analysis, and poses ten main questions (and some sub. questions) in vocabulary, grammar and textual structure levels which can be asked of a text. These questions are discussed mainly at the vocabulary level in three parts namely experiential, relational, and expressive values. The extracted strategies to be discussed are as follows:

- Rewording/omission
- Addition/ Over-wording
- Alternation (Synonymy, Hyponymy, antonym)
- Euphemism
- formal vs. informal words
- Positive expressive value vs. negative expressive values of words
- Metaphorical representation

4.3. Theoretical Framework

This research is a descriptive one conducted in the form of "case study". It discusses idiom translation in dialogues both in English and Persian languages, on the basis of Toury's (1995) coupled-pairs model. Toury (1995) calls for the development of a properly systematic descriptive

branch of the discipline to replace isolated free-standing studies that are commonplace and proposes a methodology for the branch of descriptive translation studies (DTS). He recommends the following three-phase methodology, incorporating a description of the product and the wider role of the sociocultural system:

Situate the text within the target culture system, looking at its significance or acceptability. Compare the ST and the TT for shifts, identifying relationships between coupled pairs of ST and TT segments, and attempting generalizations about the underlying concept of translation. Draw implications for decision making in future translating.

4.4. Data Collection

The data is collevted based on the following steps:

- Reading the English text with its three mentioned renderings, thoroughly.
- Then, adapting the 90 challengeable dialogue items from O'MARA (2007), and comparing and contrasting , based on the original meaning according to oxford idiom dictionary (New Edition, 2010).
- The next step is determination of the translators' strategies by using the study criteria proposed by Fairclough at vocabulary level: experiential, relational, and expressive values.
- Collected data are presented in tables and charts, being evaluated with the help of Microsoft Office Excel Program and the final results are analyzed to determine the frequency of any strategy applied by translators to discuss about their reason in different eras.

4.5. Data Analysis and the Findings

To address the research objectives, all the extracted idioms were analyzed and presented in tables. The results related to the type of strategies being used as well Further discussion on the frequency of the strategies for each era being used by the relevant translator is presented in next table to better illustrate the existing difference.As follow:

Table 4-1: Frequency of using the strategies in three translations

	NO	Applied Strategies	Frequency of occurrence in the 1st era	Frequency of occurrence in the 2nd era	Frequency of occurrence in the 3rd era
Experiential value	1	Rewording	10	8	11
		omission	2	2	16
	2	Addition/Over-wording	35	7	14
		Synonymy	22	25	19
	3	Hyponymy	1	1	1
		Antonym	0	0	0
Relational Value	4	Euphemism	9	11	12
	5	Formal words	56	16	28
		informal words	34	74	62
Expressive Value	6	Positive expression	2	6	4
		negative expression	16	6	6
	7	Metaphorical representation	17	13	16

At this stage it is necessary to highlight that the research of the current study consider whether the three studied translators used formal or informal strategy to translate the idiomatic expressions in Persian because of the fact the chosen idiomatic expressions were majorly stated by the author of *The Catcher in the Rye* in very casual and informal (even slang) context and we tended to observe whether these idiomatic expressions were translated conveying the same meaning or not in Persian over three different eras. It is well agreed that the idioms are referred to as the informal features of the language. Yet, we need to draw a distinction here between formal and informal translations in Persian; in the three translations, the translators used formal language in order to make literal renderings rather than being polite. On the other hand, for the usage of informal words in the Persian translations, it is necessary to highlight that the translators used informal language (not to imply impoliteness or slang language) but to write in no-literary way. A difference between these sayings is reflected in the examples below: "It's a funny kind of *yellowness*... but it's *yellowness*, all right (p.81)", as an idiom which means being afraid. In the pre-revolutionary era, it seems translating or composing in a more literal and formal way was more customary as the example number 1 below indicates. Yet, for the post-revolutionary eras, the trend of translation shifted,

tending to write as we speak in the streets and this influenced the translation. A similar translation of the same idiom is reflected in example number two below indicating a non-literary and more informal style of writing:

- این مک جور بزدلی است لی در صورت بمزی غیر از بزلی نیست
- بزلی عجیبه. ولی هر چی باش بزدلی بزدلی ه

To this end, it seems that the 1st translator used the highest number of frequency for formal words (56 instances) versus 16 and 28 instances for the post-revolutionary eras. As for the informal words, yet, the post-revolutionary translations indicated 74 and 62 instances respectively for the 2nd and 3rd eras, opposing the pre-revolutionary rendering containing 34 instances. This huge difference, which was inspected for all the idioms, shows that in the post-revolutionary eras the authors tend to use more non-literary renderings in order to accord with the society's interest in using more informal or casual writing style. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 illustrate how using formal and informal writing style differed in different eras. As it is clearly discerned in figure 4.1, the trend for using formal words (more literary) declined significantly over time. On the other hand, figure 4.2 exhibits that informal words being used in the translations after revolution shifted, more in the 2nd era followed by the 3rd era.
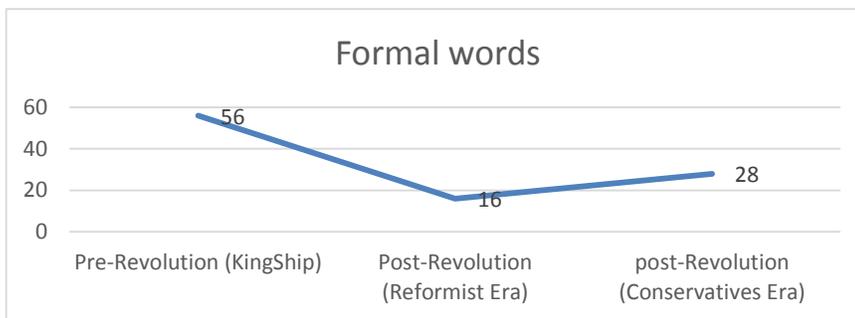

Figure4-1: The trend for formal strategy used by the three translators
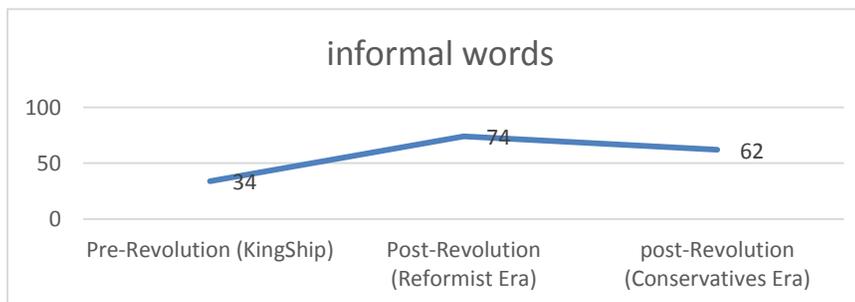
Figure 4-2: The trend for informal strategy used by the three translators

Another interesting finding is related to the type of the strategies being used by the three translators. As stated earlier, Faircough's (1989) model was discussed at three levels, namely experiential, relational, expressive values) which deal primarily with macro level (above-word level). Figures 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5 demonstrate that in all three translations, the translators used relational values significantly more than the other two types. A formal feature with relational value is a trace of and a cue to the social relationships which are enacted via the text in the discourse. Relational value deals with relations and social relationships (Fairclough, 1989). Within this category, strategies such as euphemism, formal and informal are considered. This implies that the translators mostly used these strategies when translating the text. As for euphemism, or formal and informal words, it could be said in the Iranian culture, the translators are not much allowed to use and translate the slangs or very informal/casual words (as in idioms) into Persian simply because the culture (or in some instances the dominant power) made them employ such strategies to make their translations more euphemistic avoiding to utilize casual, informal, and non-acceptable words. After relational values, the translators all employed experiential values in the three different eras. It needs to be mentioned that rewording, omission, over-wording, synonymy, hyponymy, and antonym are categorized as experiential values. Fariclough (1989) asserts that a formal feature with experiential value is a trace of and a cue to the way in which the text producer's experience of the natural or social world. Experiential value deals with contents and knowledge and beliefs. At last, it is observed that the lowest category belongs to expressive values which were similarly used by all the three translators with a very low frequency. Fairclough (1989) maintains that a formal feature with expressive value is a trace of and a cue to the producer's evaluation of the bit of the reality it relates to. Expressive value is to do with subjects and social identities.


Figure 4-3: Different values used by the firsttranslator
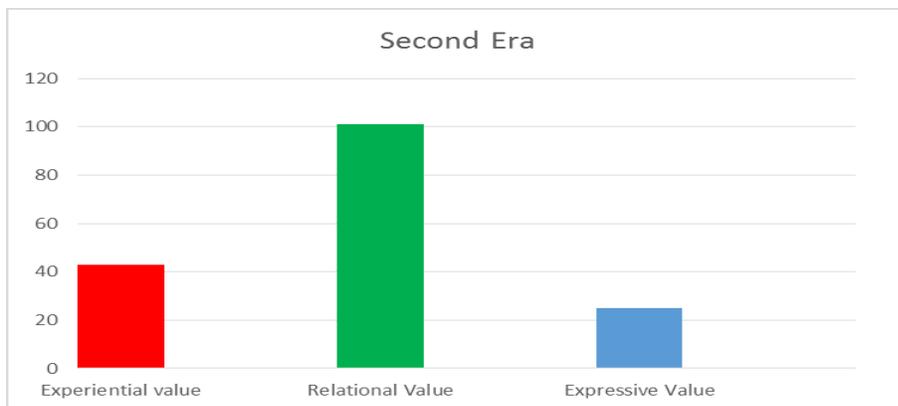
Figure 4-4: Different values used by the second translator
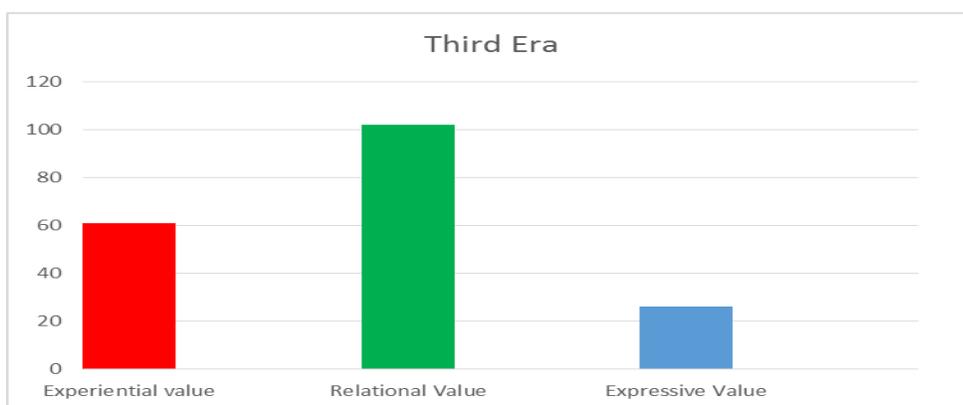
Figure 4-5: Different values used by the third translator

5. Conclusion

The table demonstrates that in all three translations, the translators used relational values significantly more than the other two types. According to the data of this study, it is revealed that in the pre-Islamic revolution culture, this translator did not use the slangs or very informal/casual words (as in idioms) into Persian simply because the culture made them employ such strategies to make their translations more euphemistic avoiding to utilize casual, informal, and non-acceptable words. After relational value, it is experiential value; At last, the lowest category belongs to expressive values.

The results of this study also, show that in Iran, by having considered the frequency of the strategies being used by each translator over diverse eras studied in the present research, it is concluded that the first translator (belonging to the pre- Islamic revolutionary era) had higher tendency in using culture-specific items (CSI) of the source text. An evidence to support this claim is the type of strategies he used. For example, the translator of the pre-revolutionary era

infrequently used omission while he employed negative expressions to reflect what exactly happened in the story as *The Cather in the Rye* is per se such dark and negative story narrating the boy's complexity, etc. Contrariwise, the translators in the post-revolutionary eras (second and third) tended to be interested in using culture-specific items (CSI) of the target text of their specific eras. These translators used a lot of omission strategies as well as euphemism and positive expression of the words. As it is ultimately observed, the translators manifested less faithfulness to the source text as the time passes.

One possible implication of the findings here is for translators training courses as well as literary translation courses at the universities. Literary translation is one of major courses that the students have to pass and the vibrant nature of this field will become more attractive for the students when they are aware of the most common strategies being in the contemporary era comparing them to the previous eras. This will most probably encourage them to begin translating such books with further awareness of the strategies being introduced here as the most common ones in each unique era**.** AlsoFor literary translators it provides some insights into cultural factors in order to choose the appropriate translation strategies.

Considering the model recommended by Faiclough, the present study dealt with Vocabulary which was related to idiomatic expressions. Yet, Fairclough's model (1989) proposed other levels such as Grammar and Textual Structure; therefore, it is recommended to explore studies at those two levels.

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Title

A Survey Study on the Best Reading Assessment

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Abstract

One of the important issues that many teachers are dealing with is the best assessment way of reading: Formative, Summative or Diagnostic. This paper is to study and find the best possible way of assessing reading comprehension skill in students. For this purpose, in the current research, that is a survey study in which 30 teachers (3 with M.A. degree and the rest with B.A. degree) were selected from different English departments such as institutes and universities to offer their ideas about these three methods and then suggest the best of them including their reason if any. The questionnaire included 10 rating-type questions and a descriptive question. The results of the study show that Formative Assessment can be considered as the best way to evaluate student's reading.

Keywords: Reading assessment, Formative, Summative, Diagnostic.

1. Introduction

Reading comprehension is defined as the construction of meaning in a text by using some skills and knowledge (Snow, Burn and Griffin, 1998). It is obvious that to comprehend reading we should use words fluently, know the vocabularies, be motivated and in some cases have a prior

knowledge. Assessment of reading has been established as a dynamic and multi-layered phenomenon and has become an important topic engaging many researchers in recent years. The traditional assessment techniques are still popular today because they are readily quantifiable, such as summative which can be used to compare the students at the end of the course. On the other hand, the new and cognitive testing methods are known as indirect indicators such as written and oral answers to the tests. An example for this can be Formative assessment that is used for remediation and more instruction if needed (Fletcher, 2006; Johnston, 1984).The researchers would like to find the best assessment ways through this survey study as the research questions indicate.

1. What are the purposes of reading assessment?
2. Which one of the mentioned reading assessment way is supposed as the best one?

There exists various ways to assess reading and each of them is useful in a special area. (Rhodes and Shanklin, 1993). Teachers can test students orally, by their writing, by observing them and, Assessment is a key element for any teacher. By applying it to the students, both the teachers and students will benefit from it. At first it is better to have a look at the nature of reading to better understand the value of its assessment.

2. Review of literature

Anyone who has worked as a teacher or as a principal of an institute knows the value of reading in second language and also understands the importance of reading assessment.

Reading can be clarified as a multifaceted process involving word recognition, reading comprehension, fluency (Leipzig, 2001).

Reading has been explained in many other ways as Dolman (2004) identified reading as a complicated activity including message getting and solving activities. According to Willms (2004) Reading and writing is known as being able to comprehend and apply the written information in our routine life besides our friends, coworkers and in the community to achieve one's goals and means to grow one's proficiency and skill. Gough and Tummer (1986) suggest a straightforward but not a complex view of reading and state that reading comprehension is known and seen as the result of listening comprehension and decoding. In whole, listening comprehension can be clarified as a complicated, multi-faceted process, which is a mixture of both lexical and text processing skills.

2.1 Views on Reading

Several types of reading can be occurred in a language classroom. One way that these approaches have been identified is what mentioned by Brown (1989) and the outline format is as follow:

A. Oral

B. Silent

1. Intensive 2. Extensive

The first division that is whether the reading is oral or silent .In this paper we just talk about Silent one. In fact, both approaches have a vital role in teaching or practicing reading strategies.

2.1.1. Intensive Reading

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), intensive reading has a lot to do with the learner's further development in language learning while the teacher acts as your instructor. It provides a basis for explaining difficulties of structure and for expanding knowledge of vocabulary and idioms.

Intensive reading is essentially reading in depth and is usually done in class and within the presence of teacher. Brown (1989) explains that in intensive reading attention is focused on grammatical forms, discourse (cohesion & coherence) and other surface structure features to comprehend the exact meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships information. Long and Richards (1987) claim that intensive reading is actually a very exact analysis on vocabulary and grammar parts contextualized in a short reading text and is only done by teacher. So intensive reading focuses on word choice and its place, which would seem to lead the reader's attention to the structural arrangement of the text. Relatively Hedge (2000) also calls another usage of intensive reading and says teachers sometimes use intensive grammar to teach students in using good reading techniques. In Intensive reading, students use rapid reading practice, using non-text information and word attack skills and etc. As Harmer (2001) explains that short reading passages are worked on during the class time and the student's instructor would be the teacher.

In this reading strategy, teacher acts as an organizer to tell about the reading, instruction and the activities on this topic. Harmer (2001) believes that the teachers have an important responsibility in intensive reading since they have to make the students interested in that reading text and topic. The classic procedure of intensive reading is the grammar-translation approach, in which the teacher uses the first language and explains the meanings, sentence by sentence. Nation (2009) in his book Teaching ESL-EFL Reading and Writing refers to intensive reading

with the same procedure of GTM approach "such intensive reading usually involves translation and thus comprehension of the text". Intensive Reading, is sometimes named "Narrow Reading", that is, students are dealing with reading text from the same author or reading the same topic. The result of "Narrow Reading" on improving reading comprehension has been found on the premise that if the reader is more familiar with the text whether because of the same author or the same topic, their comprehension is more developed. According to Aebersold and Field (1997) in an intensive approach to reading, the text will be known as an end in itself because the goal is comprehension, therefore, any passage and task is read attentively and completely.

Is intensive reading going to be useful for us in improving our reading skills? In realizing the reading? In increasing our vocabulary level? Helping in using phrases? As Nuttal (1996) states the goal of intensive reading is reaching at an extreme and exact comprehension of the passage: just not the meaning of the text, but also the production stages of understanding.

2.1.2 Extensive Reading

The term "extensive reading" was first originated and used by Palmer (1917, quoted by Day and Bamford, 1997) to draw a distinction between "intensive reading" and "extensive reading".

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), Extensive reading means reading in a great deal to get a whole understanding of what is read. It will lead to good reading usage, to build a wide range of vocabularies and structures and to motivate the learners for better reading.

This kind of reading is known an easy-going way of learning reading and you just learn it for your own satisfaction and joy. Bamford and Day (1997) talked about this type: Extensive reading is considered as a type of reading for enjoyment, and it is somehow an optional sort of reading.

There are other definitions about Extensive reading. Maley (2005) demonstrates that extensive reading has been known as the only advantageous and powerful way of enhancing one's language knowledge through reading. Long and Richards (1987) identify that extensive reading will show itself when students read a lot of interesting and amusing reading texts and they don't care for the unknown words, which are new to them. It is usually done out of the class just for pleasure.

The ER features generally involve fast reading of a large amount of longer, easy-to-understand material, with some reading that is usually done outside of the classroom and at each student's own pace and level. Cobb (2007) relatively has confirmed Long and Richards idea about ER as follow: Extensive reading is a sort of reading done in large extent and the learners just try to understand the new words within the text, or they just skip those unknown vocabularies.

The basic goal of extensive reading is to make the students involve in reading as much as they like enjoy doing so and also another goal is the vocabulary growth. As Carrell (1998) states, the aim of this approach is not to force the learners but learning by reading into reading is the target.

Grab and stroller (2002) explained that the goal of extensive reading is to educate the students to read with a direct method, that is just to read fluently and do not stop for the vocabularies you are not familiar with, teachers should not interfere students learning in this approach. Extensive reading is just dependent on learner's linguistic competence. Krashen (2004) states extensive reading can surely help the students to learn the vocabularies that are within the context.

The goals of extensive reading are to mount students' confidence and help them to be an independent student without needing any aid. Extensive reading is not for detailed ideas in reading but for comprehending general ideas. Nishizawa (2006) explain that ER will lead the learners in their communication skills, in their fluency in reading the texts and will apparently develop their enthusiasm to read more and more. In contrast to intensive reading, Extensive one is paying attention to the language rather than text. Extensive reading and intensive reading are two major approaches in developing reading skills and it seems that intensive reading use is more common.

2.2 Reading Assessment

At first, the researchers would surely like to explain what we mean by assessment. We can claim that assessment is a component of our daily life but we rarely try to think about it. Caldwell (2008) states in his book by assessing reading, we collect some signs, and then we study these signs or gain evidences to evaluate and examine a learner performance. For example, we assess the weather in the morning, our evidence here is what we see from the window, the local weather, the TV report and etc. Based upon this we decide to have an umbrella, wear a coat then we will go out. As Caldwell (2008) has mentioned in his book: assessment is divided into 4 parts which are to identify what to assess, to collect signs, to analyze the signs, to make a decision.

Based upon this division reading can be understood readily. At first, we ask a student a question representing his/her reading skill, then we select the evidence from the answer, we analyze that evidence to find the weakness and strengths of student, and we'll offer the instruction. Reading assessment is a useful tool to measure and identify each student's reading level and ability. When they are studying in every level of education, they need to be involved in assessments to understand whether they are progressing or not. It is also very helpful since by doing the assessment students would be able to find out their difficulties and weaknesses.

Rhodes and Shanklin (1993) indicates that evaluation and assessments will help the teachers to find out their student's problems in learning any part of the language, so that they can plan for some remedial and instructional sessions. This is also true for students with disabilities. Wren (2004) demonstrates that an important instrument to determine student's knowledge and considering the essential instruction is Assessment. According to Homan (2005), Reading assessment can be done to see the student's progress during the educational semester or year; teacher can have an answer to the question of the student's level of knowledge.

Traditionally the teachers make the assessment of reading progress through the administration of standardized tests. Unfortunately, in this way, the reading was just measured but not analyzed. Standardized tests at that time had not been powerful to cover all aspects of complex reading progress. Salinger (1998) is against administering the students just by a reading test, which is done one or two times a year, since it is not functional and useful and it cannot give you enough information about learners' progress during the term. As we all know assessment is very functional and practical in any educational system. It is useful for both the students and teachers.

2.3   Purposes for assessing reading

Kellough and kellough (1999) state that there exist seven purposes for assessment:

1. Help students learn better.
2. Identify the student's weaknesses and strengths.
3. Evaluate an instructional strategy in an educational system.
4. Evaluate and try to improve the usefulness of curriculum strategies.
5. Evaluate and try to improve the teaching programs.
6. Support information for decision making.
7. Have contact with parents.

There is another idea delineating assessment purposes which we are going to explain about in this paper: According to Kameenui et al. (2006), four major purposes are identified for reading assessment: Screening, Diagnosis, Progress monitoring and outcome evaluation.

2.3.1 Screening

The first purpose, screening, is designed as a first way to determine those children who are at high risk for delayed development or educational failure and need some additional instructional support. It is usually done in the early academic year at school.

Screening tests are widely used to discriminate students with reading problems that are misapplied, or who are landed in the wrong instructional level. Last (1983) states that screening tests are usually administered at the beginning of the term and in it any bad conditions which students are placed in or are at the risk of bad learning habits will be recognized. A screening procedure should be quick to evaluate each student one by one and it should be enough efficient.

2.3.2 Diagnostic Tests

Birjandi (2004) states that one of the purposes for assessing reading is diagnostic, which in we try to get out student's weak points and then eliminate them on the next sessions

It was demonstrated (Farhadi .et.al., 1994) that diagnostic process is good both for teachers and students in which teachers can grasp which part should be focused on and students would find out their problems and weaknesses.

Diagnostic process will offer specific information on each student's weaknesses and strengths, which need remedial instruction. It is usually done after screening tests and can be done along the educational term if the students are not doing the progress they were supposed to. Nitko (2001) indicates that one of the main ways to get the information that is intervening student's learning process and to obtain their difficulties to learn is to do a diagnostic test. Bchman, (1995) mentions in his book Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing that speaking of a diagnostic assessment means to get the detailed information about language proficiency and for instance, a reading test can provide the teacher with areas of weakness. Fuchs (1988) discovered one of the values of diagnostic assessment that there is no need to train a lot of people for administrating the tests. They are often handled by the teacher or school psychologist or educational diagnostician. Diagnostic assessment can be done in any time during the term and there is not any specified time for that since at any time students can face a problem. Pennington (2009) states diagnostic assessments are given during the two or three weeks after the instructions or when the teacher feels there should be an assessment to find out student's problems. So in diagnostic assessment decisions can be made according to student's strengths and weakness and in this way their level of learning can be identified. Therefore, remedial classes or instructions would be helpful.

2.3.3 Progress Monitoring Tests

The next assessment purpose is known as progress monitoring progress. According to Stecker and Fuchs (2000) ongoing evaluations of student's performance are used by progress monitoring for applying them on their next goals. Walpole and McKenna (2007) states occasionally done progress

monitoring tests would answer to two of our questions: whether the students are at a steady and suitable progress and when we need some more instructions.

Progress monitoring tests are done occasionally to understand if the students are making enough progress or not. According to Diamond (2005), this type is used frequently in the class to determine students are learning enough skills or not. The curriculum-embedded tests have been used for many years and assess the students in the current lesson in the class, it would help the teacher to find out whether it is suitable time to move to the next lesson or not. The reliability and validity of these kinds of tests have not been proved yet. But most of the teachers claim that they are helpful and practical to see how they have taught the units. Deno (2003) states that second type of progress monitoring tests has not been used for a long time in comparison to Curriculum-embedded tests. It is Mastery measurement; it is also called general or external progress monitoring tests. Critical reading skills such as phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary and etc. are evaluated.

Progress monitoring tests are at least administered 3 times per year. We can say that the first one would be done at the beginning of the academic year, the next one in the middle of the term and the last one would be at the end of the term. Those students having difficulty and problem should be offered some instructions and interventions. Shinn (2002) claims that that group of students, obtained more instructions and reading interventions, should have more than 3 progress monitoring tests in order to find out whether those instructions were helpful. Progress monitoring can be administered to individual students or to all students. Progress monitoring tests can be applied by any one such as a teacher, school counselors, a member of family, etc. Paratore and McCormack (2007) suggests that for doing progress monitoring tests it's better for you to have some tools such as checklist to gauge student's performance as they do the other cards.

2.3.4 Outcome

Accruing to Paratore and McCormack (2007) outcome is referred to assessment which is done usually at the end of term to see whether the students achieved the norm or criterion related to that level and academic course. An outcome assessment as mentioned before is given at the end of the academic year. This purpose of assessment is known as one the most important ones since they provide teachers with feedback about the usefulness of teacher's instructions and reading agendas during the term. The student's overall learning would be revealed in this type of assessments. Juel (1988) demonstrates that outcome tests are practical for teachers to show them at each grade how the instructions are powerful and how the student's performance according to the instructions

is given. Outcome evaluation can be explained as the process of identifying required data from an educational program to determine the student's achievement amounts. Teachers usually administer these tests. Outcome tests will confirm the findings of other purposes: screening, diagnostic and progress monitoring. The results on these tests would be used to work on the programs and techniques that did not met the requirements. In addition, you can transfer your new techniques to the current ones.

2.4 Types of reading assessment

It is very important to know that there is no definite way which is known as the best reading evaluation method since none of them can reach the whole goal. Teachers are often very confused when describing different types of reading assessment. We mentioned that one of the purposes reading assessment is to collect information for decision making about students. Nevertheless, as Ivanic and Hamilton (1988) believe assessment of adult learners is defined by their own and current needs but not with what the test says.

Nuttall (1996) believes reading assessment in extensive reading would be damaging, because it let students to more stressful and not having pleasure in reading fast and fluently. Harries (2005) suggests that there are 3 types of reading assessment: Formative, Summative and diagnostic. McAndrews (2008) believes that comprehension should be assessed with diagnostic assessment followed by summative and formative assessment. In this paper, we are going to focus on these three ways and to know the best of them if possible.

2.4.1 Formative assessment

Formative assessment as the name suggests is assessing the formation of student 's knowledge such as answering the question, being active in the class in asking questions and to participate in group and pair activities done in the class. Allal and Lopez (2005) states that the history of formative assessment comes back to Scriven's (1967) clarification of formative evaluation.

Formative assessment can be considered as a continuous evaluation that it shows if the expected expectation is going to be tried and achieved during the term. In other words, student's understanding and development during the term is determined. Typically, it is done as the student's progress and it focuses on monitoring the students in order to have any problem to provide educational information and instruction. Sheprad and Rust (2005) states that formative assessment is done as the term is passing and through instructional courses, its goal can be considered as improving the student's learning or teachers' teaching.

Sometimes teachers use it for evaluating student's skills and abilities or confidence in student's group work while they are sharing their opinions and information, teachers call it as feedback. Nitko (1988) believes that Feedback is useful for both the teachers and students since it can be useful in the formative evaluation, for making decision and maybe more instructions in the class. Boston (2002) argues that formative assessment is considered useful for teachers in that they will know the level of students, deciding on their offering the instructions (more or less), providing the students with group or individual class discussions, informing students of their educational development in order to do better in their weaknesses.

Marzano (2003); Stiggins, Arter, Chappius, Chappius (2006) talk about this assessment and states formative assessment useful for students in that: the students are encouraged to learn more, feel more confidence and responsible in learning the materials, students can use the assessment results to improve themselves, learning can be greatly improved. The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) believes that by formative assessment the level of student's progress can be defined; therefore, if there is the need for more instruction, it will be made to fill the information gaps. Ramaprasad (1983) and Sadler (1989) states that feedback acts as a useful tool to fill out the student's gaps and lacking knowledge.Teacher surely knows that through using feedback, student's problems can be readily solved, perhaps by more instruction, remedial classes, etc. Bangert-Drowns, Kulick, and Morgan (1991); Elawar and Corno, (1985) believes that by getting student's feedback you can be aware of their errors and accordingly students will be encouraged to focus on their errors and try to regulate them. Black and William (1998) believe that an evaluation can be called formative if the student's feedback is used to be adjusted with the learning instruction from teacher. Nicol and MacFarlane-Dick (2006) research show that the relation between feedback and formative assessment would help students to manage their own learning; in this case it is named self- regulated assessment.

Therefore, up to now, we can say that feedback is the principal characteristic of formative assessment, but there are some scholars that disagree with the usefulness of feedback. Kluger and DeNisi (1996) do an analysis in which they found out that feedback had caused and increased the problems in one third of studies, they believe it is because of focusing on feedback but not the topic or units. Crooks (2001) defines formative assessment as an image of student's process in order to find out their improvement. Cowie & Bell (1999) indicates that this assessment is a two-folded process, which is between student and teacher to show the enhancement and development

of students. Popham (2008) defines Formative evaluation as a process which is done during the instructional course to find out the student's improvement and achievement.

Some formative assessments are spontaneous; it means that they are unplanned and unexpected. For example while a teacher is teaching linguistic in the class, he/she may find out that a student did not get some parts , so in this case the teacher will add more instructions. Some other assessments are planned, for example out of the class projects or quizzes are all of this type. To achieve formative assessment goal, teachers can use observation, classroom discussion along side homework, test and quizzes. Black and Wiliam (1998) stated that teachers should use reflective and in depth questions instead of simple and easy ones, they can also have discussions, topic based debates in class to improve student's knowledge during the term.

Many teachers prefer to give a short and brief test or quizzes at the end of each session, or sometimes a group of units are together tested. These tests are usually based on the quality evaluation. As Kahl (2005) explained that formative assessment can be supposed as a mean to measure student's progress and grasp of ideas through ongoing tests. To have a more effective use of formative assessment in the class, scholars gave some practical suggestions. Black and William (1998) argue that teachers should pay more attention to student's needs and nature. It should not have a kind of rote activities. There also should not be grading over student's learning. Teachers should use more discussion and group works and should let competitions to be involved in the class. It means that teacher should consider quality but not quantity.

2.4.2 Summative Assessment

Summative as the name shows is a whole test of the materials taught during the term. It is used to show what and how the pupils have achieved the tasks. Garrison and Ehringhaus (2007) states that summative assessment is used at any time and it focus on grading. It means quantity not quality. Ricahrd, Platt and Platt (1992) demonstrates that summative tests are usually graded tests it means that teachers are dealing with a scale to mark pupil's performance on the test. According to Black (1998) as cited by Brookhart (1999) addresses a nice statement about Summative assessment and the latter: he says when a cook tastes his food it is called formative and when the customer tries it, we call it summative

Summative assessment is usually given at the end of the term, unit, chapter, and year or generally toward the end of a course. As done in schools it is considered a formal test to see if the learners have achieved the knowledge and skills of provided tasks. We can say that it gives a

general image of pupil's performance. Atherton (2011) explains that this assessment should be done with considering general and main goal and educational objectives and the test should be fairly formal.

According to Biancarosa and snow (2006), Summative assessments can be also useful in improving the student's reading knowledge. According to A Vision for 21st Century Assessment paper (2009), most summative assessment question have been found in these formats: Matching, True/False, Multiple choice, completion, written responses and etc. Some scholars are against Summative assessment. For example, they states that summative assessment will lower student's self-esteem make them more anxious and that is because the tests are all in graded format. Here are some scholars' ideas and reasons for criticizing summative assessments: a) Popham (1999) states that the information about a learner's achievement is so late. b) Shephard (2001) believes that real classroom activities are less shown. c) Messick (1989) and Baker and Linn (2004) indicate that all the students capability will not be assessed just the general parts are evaluated as mentioned before they just involve broad and specified functions.

Overall and Sangster (2000) concludes that summative assessments are to determine the level a pupil has reached to and they can take the form of end of the year tests or half of the term tests Some teachers name formative assessment (assessment for learning) and summative assessment (assessment of learning). Linn et al., (1982); Crooks (1988); Koretz (1988); Koretz et al.(1991); Shepard (1991); Kellaghan et al.(1996); Black and Wiliam (1998); Stiggins (1999) and Linn(2000) have shown that these assessments have a considerable impact on educational system.

2.4.3 Diagnostic assessment

Diagnostic assessment was described before in assessment purposes part, just to review its general role we should mention that it helps the teachers or trainers to determine learner strengths and weaknesses. It is sometimes known as pre-assessment. It usually starts at the beginning of a unit. Kellough et al. (1999) and McMillan (2000) mention diagnostic assessment is considered as a part of formative assessment. Nature of diagnostic assessments is related to pre-determined goals .There are two types of Diagnostic assessments: Informal and formal. Formal diagnostic assessments can be applied in different scopes like school, national basis and etc. Informal assessments are done over a smaller scope such as a group of pupils or a class maybe just by observation. Ebmeier (1992) develops these two kinds of assessment to see the weaknesses and strengths of his students.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

In this research, 30 teachers were chosen from different institutes, universities and English departments. Three of them had M.A. degree and the rest held B.A. degree.

3.2 Instrument

To collect the data we used a questionnaire, which included 1 descriptive question and 10 rating type questions. We also had an introduction page, which explained three assessment methods mentioned in this research: Formative, Summative and Diagnostic. (Please refer to Questionnaire No. 1)

3.3 Procedure

As it was mentioned before, the purpose of this study is to explain different ways of reading assessment and then choose the best possible of them. Since it was a survey study, at first, we gave the teachers a separate introduction paper, in which we described important information such as when and why these methods are usually used. In the next step we prepare a questionnaire and give to teachers, this questionnaire includes 1 descriptive question and 10 rating type questions. In the last question we ask them to explain their description of reading assessment goals and then offer their best-chosen assessment way.

4. Results

30 questionnaires were distributed among the teachers, and all of them were analyzed by SPSS software. The collected data shows that 56.7 % of them were female and 43.3% of them were male. Figure 1 shows the genders.

Sex (figure 1)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	
43.3	43.3	43.3	13	male Valid
100.0	56.7	56.7	17	female
				Total
	100.0	100.0	30	

sex

sex
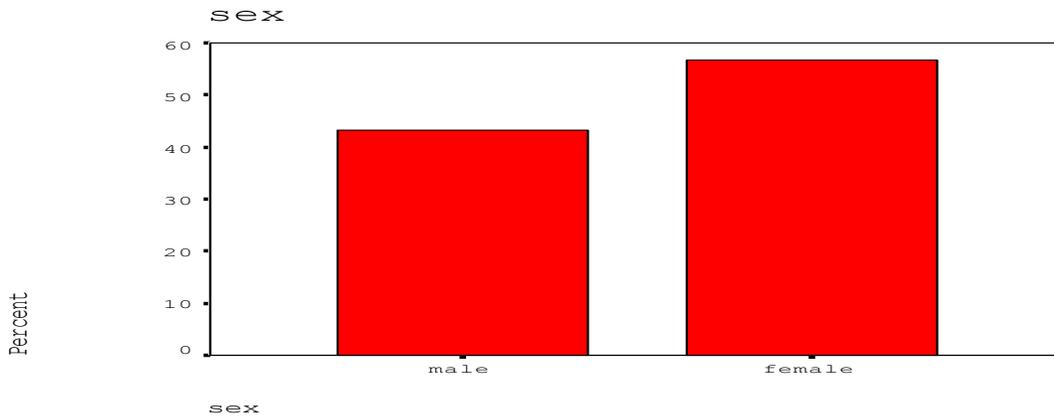
According to the given data, 90% of teachers held B.A. degree and just 10% had M.A. Figure 2
shows this:

Education (Figure 2)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid B.A.	27	90.0	90.0	90.0
M.A.	3	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Education
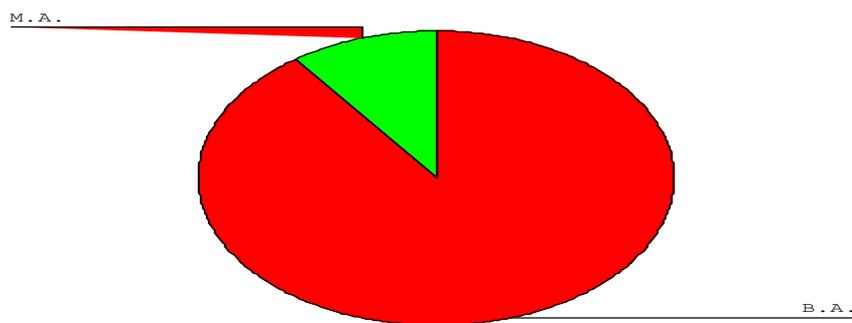
The first question asked the students about their idea about the efficiency of assessment on learning
Reading skill. In this question as you can see in the figure, almost everyone believes in the efficacy
of reading assessment on student's learning.

Effect on reading				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
9	15	6	0	0

Effect on reading

Effect on reading
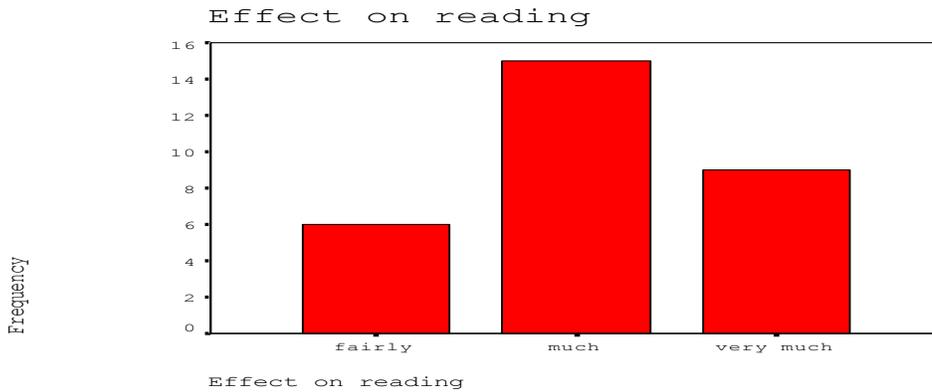
In next three questions, teachers are asked to give their ideas about the useful results, which come out of Diagnostic, formative, and summative assessment. As it is obvious from results, teachers know Formative assessments result as the best and then Diagnostic and summative is the last one in this category.

Diagnostic Result				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
4	13	11	2	0
Formative Result				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
10	15	5	0	0
Summative Result				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
1	3	10	11	5

Valuable and useful information CHARTS:

Dignosic Result

Std. Dev = .81
Mean = 3.6
N = 30.00

Formative Result

Std. Dev = .70
Mean = 4.17
N = 30.00

Summative Result

Std. Dev = 1.01
Mean = 2.5
N = 30.00
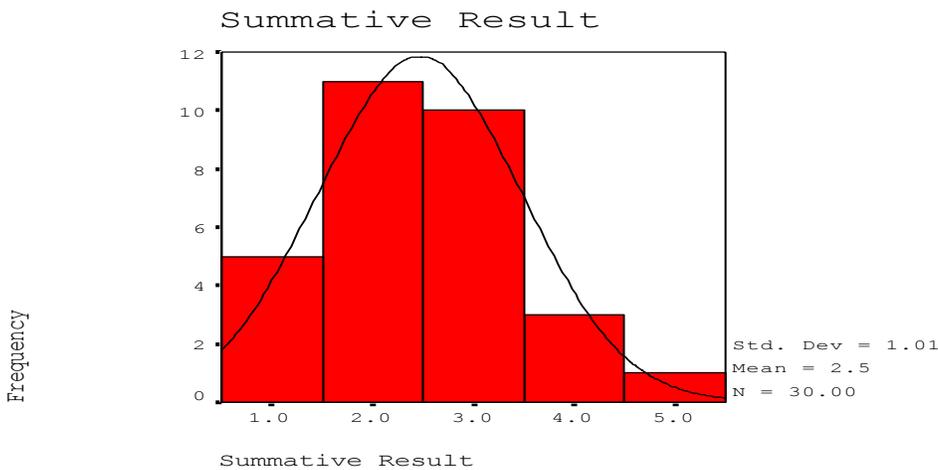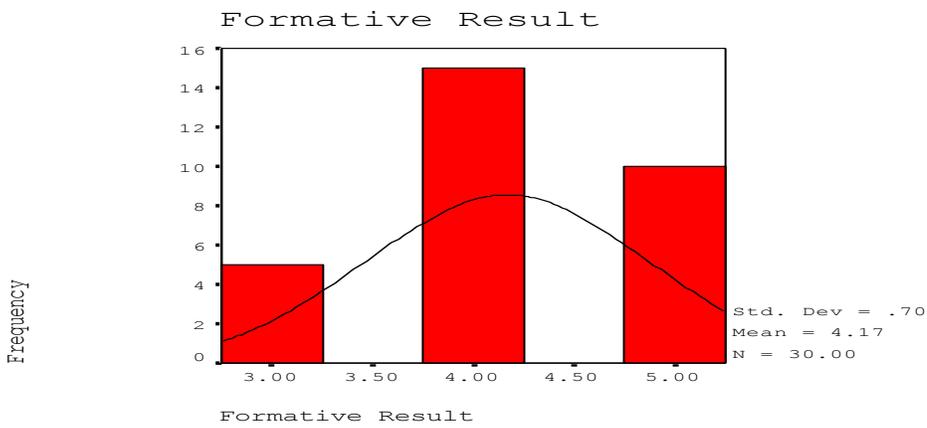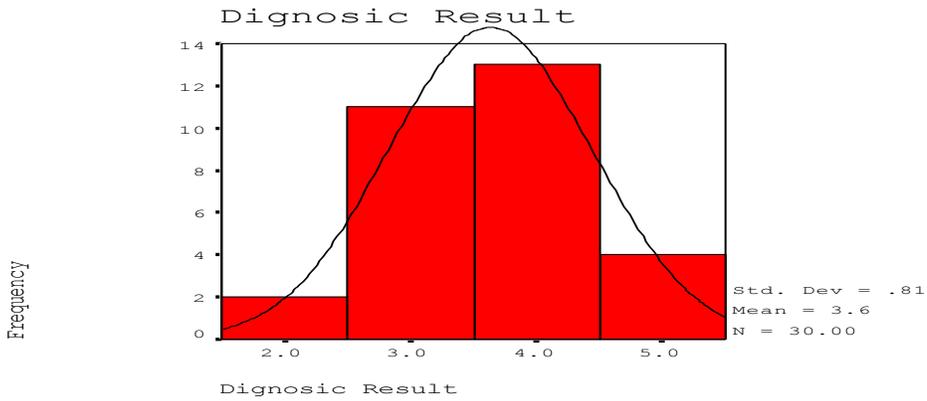
In the next three questions, the interval between the first test and the next one is asked: Most of the answers show that it depends on the students and there is no clear answer.

Diagnostic interval test				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
0	5	17	7	1

Formative interval test				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
0	7	15	7	1

Summative interval test				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
4	5	17	3	1

Statistics

Summative Result	Formative Result	Diagnostic Result	
30	30	30	Valid N
0	0	0	Missing
2.47	4.17	3.63	Mean
2.00	4.00	4.00	Median
2	4	4	Mode
1.008	.699	.809	Std. Deviation
1.016	.489	.654	Variance
4	2	3	Range

The next three questions are about the number of questions in these three methods of assessment: the answers show an average number of questions for Diagnostic and Formative assessment but the number of questions for Summative assessment are considered more than others.

Number of diagnostic questions				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
1	1	16	12	0
Number of Formative questions				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
1	3	20	5	1
Number of Summative questions				
very much	much	fairly	little	very little
Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
2	15	10	2	1

Number of diagnostic questions

Number of diagnostic questions

Number of Formative questions

Number of Formative questions

Number of Summative questions

Number of Summative questions
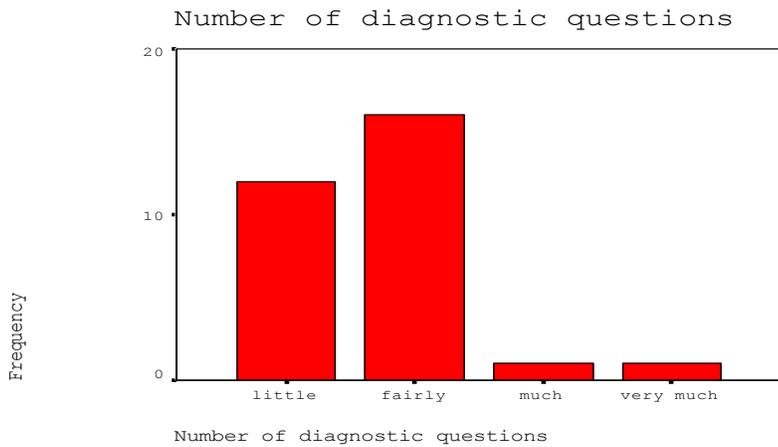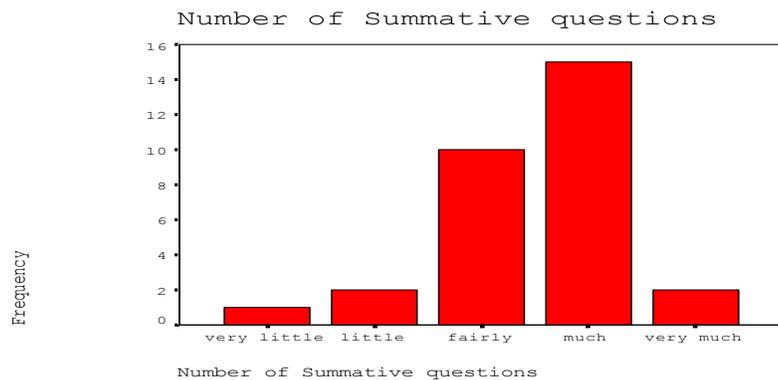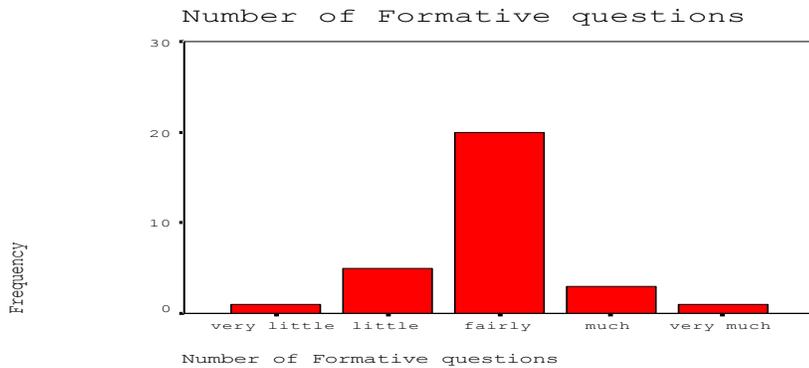
Descriptive Statistics

Std. Deviation	Mean	Maximum	Minimum	N	
.809	3.63	5	2	30	Diagnostic Result
.699	4.17	5	3	30	Formative Result
1.008	2.47	5	1	30	Summative Result
				30	Valid N (listwise)

5. Conclusion

As many scholars believe it is not a good idea to choose one assessment as the best, but they can do better while are used together or are in their proper situation. The result of data analysis indicates that Formative Assessment of Reading could be considered as the best way of assessing reading. Teachers, participating in this survey study, stated that Formative assessment is the best of all because students can use the exams to know their weaknesses and evaluate their own knowledge. Teachers can assess the students during the term. They also can get the information from students whether to have remedial classes or more instructions. By being prepared for quizzes

and exams, teachers and students can adjust themselves to education programs and learning conditions. Teachers have focused on the weakness and strength finding use of Formative Assessment. Some of the teachers recommend using any kind of assessment in an optimum condition, for example to assess students' knowledge at the beginning of the education term, we have to use Diagnostic or apply Summative assessment at the end of the term.

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Appendix

Questionnaire No 1:

1. Do you believe in the efficiency of reading assessment?
2. How much is the amount of useful and valuable information in Diagnostic assessment?
3. How much is the amount of useful and valuable information in Formative assessment?
4. How much is the amount of useful and valuable information in Summative assessment?
5. How much is the amount of interval between the first test and the next one in Diagnostic assessment?
6. How much is the amount of interval between the first test and the next one in Formative assessment?
7. How much is the amount of interval between the first test and the next one in Summative assessment?
8. How much is the amount of questions in Diagnostic assessment?
9. How much is the amount of questions in Formative assessment?
10. How much is the amount of questions in Summative assessment?
11. What are your goals of applying these three assessments? Which one do you think is the best?

Title

The effect of Input, Input-output and Output-input Modes of Teaching on the Vocabulary Learning of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract

This study was designed to find which one of the three different methods, i.e. Input, Input-output, Output-input, would be more effective in EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition. To this end, first 54 out of 64 female students, aged from 19 to 23 years, with an average of 21 were selected out of starter-level EFL learners at the University of Tarbiat Moallem in Bandar Abbas, Iran. They were also in three classes of 17, 14, and14 students. The research was done on three classes based on the American English File (starter). The tests used in this study contained 40 multiple choice items of vocabularies related to lessons 1&2 of American English Series (Starter).Then, each class was treated based on one of the orders of teaching out of three. After treatment the same vocabularies which were used in the Pretest were given for the posttest. Two analytical methods were applied, matched *t*-test and one-way ANOVA. The results revealed that the Output-input group performed better

than the Input-output and the Input-output outperformed the Input group. In other words, students in the Output-input group performed the best in their post-tests.

1. Introduction

Research on the roles of output gives a new perspective to target language output as an active agent in the process of language development, while it was previously considered merely as language learning outcome. The process of language learning is not linear as the terms input and output indicate. The output hypothesis put forth by Swain (1985) draws attention to the role that output plays as a trigger for restructuring learner's inter-language, for paying attention to input, and for processing input for syntactic information, to mention a few. As the review of the literature in the next section of this study reveals, there are many issues to be addressed in terms of the roles of output in language learning, yet not enough research has been conducted. Therefore, this paper specifically investigates the effects of peer-interaction on learning vocabulary productively and the cognitive processes during spoken output of the target words.

Many theories and hypotheses have been developed as to how a person acquires his/her first (L1) and second (L2) languages. L1 is a person's mother tongue whilst L2 is the language a person learns after acquiring L1. Krashen (1985) first described and explained the role of Input in acquiring language. In addition to exposure to input and requirements for input to change into intake equally important is recognizing by the researchers, the role of output in the process of second language acquisition effectively for their greater inter-language development.

The search for salient features of the utterances of second language learners paved the way to the introduction of the Input/output theory in the 1985's which describes the manner in which learners attempted to reach the TL vocabulary acquisition which are important across all languages.

First, Swain (1985) examined French immersion students' language ability from many aspects and discovered that some aspects of these students' linguistic ability, i.e., grammatical and sociolinguistic traits, were significantly different from native speakers' after seven years of receiving comprehensible input. She proposed that input alone is not sufficient for language acquisition at native speaker level. She argued that what is missing is comprehensible output where learners are pushed into producing more comprehensible and accurate language. Thus, she posited

the output hypothesis, which stated "comprehensible output is a necessary mechanism of acquisition independent of the role of comprehensible input" (p.252).

In developing this hypothesis, Swain (1995) discussed three functions of output, i.e., noticing, hypothesis-testing, and metalinguistic functions. It seems that there are still other functions of output in language learning but they have not been systematically identified or studied. Most of the studies that have been conducted on the roles of output looked at preliminary aspects of output (e.g., Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989; Swain & Lapkin, 1995), and only a few looked at the aspect of acquisition (e.g., Izumi, Bigelow, Fearnow, & Fujiwara, 1999). The roles of output in SLA are only starting to be investigated. In addition, when it comes to how production of target language helps second language vocabulary learning, little is known.

By considering the results from the studies mentioned before or those which are mentioned in review of literature section, two important conclusions can be drawn: 1) the development from receptive to productive vocabulary does not occur naturally in L2 acquisition, and thus, different instructional conditions are needed in order to convert receptive into productive vocabulary, and 2) effective instruction for productive vocabulary acquisition necessarily involve an output task condition. Accordingly, these conclusions can suggest several questions: What specific functions of output can play a role in developing second language vocabulary? What conditions should be provided for learners if they want to maximize those functions of output? What learning conditions would be the ideal design to increase L2 learners' output in terms of productive vocabulary acquisition? While previous studies have shown that output plays an important role in L2 vocabulary acquisition, few studies have addressed in which aspects L2 learners benefit from production of output, and which learning conditions may be superior for increasing learners' output in written vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, there are two important purposes behind this study: 1) to seek an explanation of which of modes Input, Input-output, output-Input positively affect L2 learners' vocabulary acquisition, and 2) to investigate which learning conditions are most effective in L2 vocabulary acquisition.

These two general goals are translated into the following research questions: 1. Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are instructed by Input plus Output instruction and Input only instruction? 2. Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are taught in the Output-Input condition and Input only mode

condition? 3. Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are taught through the Output plus Input and the Input-Output?

The effects of three modes of presentation on EFL vocabulary acquisition were surveyed and compared in this study in order to find out both if they affect EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition, and which of them would affect EFL learner's vocabulary acquisition most.

2. Literature review

A number of recent studies have addressed the productive aspects of L2 vocabulary knowledge. Focusing on the functions of input and output, these studies attempt to explain how input and output affect vocabulary acquisition.

First, He (1998) investigated the roles of input, interaction, and output on comprehension and recognition of new L2 words and learners' ability to use the new words in their production. The target vocabulary was names of pieces of furniture that the ESL learners were not familiar with. There were three groups in this experiment: the premodified input group, the interactionally modified group, and the pushed output group. The subjects in the pushed output group were asked to label the pieces of furniture and write down directions where to put the items in a matrix picture of an apartment, and they formed pairs and gave directions to each other and interacted to complete the task. However, the subjects in the premodified input group listened to premodified instructions of where to put the pieces of furniture in the matrix picture and completed the task, and the subjects in the interactional modified group engaged in a similar task while they were allowed to ask questions and interact with the teacher. The results indicated that the pushed output group did significantly better on comprehension, recognition, and production tests than both the premodified input group and the interactional modified group, while there was no significant difference between the premodified group and the interaction group. He concludes that learners' output can play a major role on acquisition of vocabulary. However, the time spent on the task may have varied among the groups, which would change the amount of exposure to the target words and rehearsal in working memory. In addition, the significant difference found may not be due to the "pushed output" but rather due to labeling of the items and rehearsing while writing down the directions. Especially for adult learners, seeing target words written may have a larger effect on learning than output.

Another study which investigated L2 productive vocabulary acquisition was a study conducted by Ellis & He (1999). This study was the first empirical investigation to document the benefits of output on acquisition of receptive and productive vocabulary in L2. In order to compare the effects of input and output treatments on oral acquisition of L2 target words related to furniture, the scores of five posttests were compared. In addition to the input and output variables, the interaction between learners or between learners and a teacher was added as another variable for the experiment. Thus, there were three experimental groups: a) the pre-modified input group, which received the input treatment without interaction, b) the modified input group, which received the input treatment with interaction, c), and the modified output group, which received the output and input treatments with interaction.

The results indicated that there were no differences between the two input groups and that the output with interaction group performed significantly better in the acquisition of target items than the other groups. Ellis and He interpreted these results as suggesting that the interaction between output and dialogic interaction could be a beneficial factor for learners to acquire productive as well as receptive vocabulary knowledge.

Similarly, de la Fuente (2002) conducted an experiment to examine different roles of negotiation prompted by output on the receptive and productive acquisition of words. The study yielded similar findings to those of Ellis and He (1999): only negotiated interaction that incorporated output appeared to have promoted both receptive and productive acquisition of words, as well as an increase in productive word retention. With this result de la Fuente argued for the importance of output for productive acquisition within negotiation processes.

While these two studies were concerned with whether the output treatment was more advantageous for target word acquisition as opposed to the input treatment, a study by Lee (2003) examined the effects of different instructional techniques on improving productive vocabulary use. Lee investigated vocabulary use in the writing of secondary ESL learners in Canada in search of empirical evidence supporting a relationship between explicit vocabulary teaching and improvement in the lexical quality of writing.

Vocabulary instruction, by means of various learning strategies including reading, writing, and comprehension of target vocabulary and target language learning within grammar exercises, significantly increased the productivity of the target vocabulary. Lee proposed that systematic vocabulary instruction could help to convert receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary.

An experimental study by Van Gelderen, Snellings and De Glopper (2004) was also concerned with L2 learner's productive lexical knowledge and its relationship to writing. In their research with Dutch secondary school students learning English as an L2, participants showed a significant enhancement in their speed of lexical retrieval as a result of training. Van Gelderen et al. also argued that this enhanced lexical retrieval was transferred to narrative writing since students in the experimental groups used the trained words more often in their narrative texts and showed significant improvement in their expression of content. Similar results were also found by Schoonen and Verhallen (1998), who found that lexical retrieval and sentence-building training was correlated with participants' increased use of target words in their writing. This result supports the claim that production practice plays an influential role in enhancing learners' productive use of L2 vocabulary.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study were selected from the extra-curricular program at the University of Tarbiat Moalem in Bandar Abbas. 64 female EFL learners from starter-level participated in this study. The criterion for considering the students as starter was based on their scores on the placement test used at the language center, Arian Institute. Those who had been absent for three sessions and could not complete the related tasks were eliminated from the study. Based on the above-mentioned criteria, 54 Students were chosen as the participants for data analysis. To avoid any type of bias, the researcher did not delegate participants to a particular group in advance. There were three experimental groups in the study (group A: the Input group, group B: the Input-Output group, group C: the Output-Input group). A control group was deemed unnecessary because the researcher tried to test the order of teaching based on 3 groups and compared the gain of learners in different groups. The age of the students ranged from 19 to 23 years, with an average of 21.

3.2 Procedure

Three groups of the study took a pretest which contained 40 multiple choice items of vocabularies related to lessons 1&2 of American English Series (Starter) with the reliability value of .781 computed by Cronbach's Alpha and predetermined accepted validity.

The treatment provided to the Input group was a non-reciprocal task. The Input-Output group was taught by reciprocal tasks. A reciprocal task was a two-way flow of information between a

speaker and a listener. The direction of the flow in the first phase of teaching started from the teacher toward the learners and then in the second phase the direction changed from the learners to the teachers. Although, the tasks for Output-Input group like the Input-Output group were reciprocal the direction of the flow was different. The first phase in Output-Input group started from the learners toward the teacher and the second phase was a flow of information from the teacher to the learners. In what follows a clear understanding of what each group was involved in will be offered.

3.2.1 Group A

As mentioned before group A was Input group. In this group the teacher taught lessons 1&2 through a non-reciprocal method (only Input). Typographical features of written input were manipulated (such as underlining some book parts, bolding on the board, using colorful markers or capitalizing on the board) in order to enhance the perceptual salience of linguistic features. In this technique, learners paid more attention to the enhanced forms as they processed input for meaning. Because the forms were visually enhanced for them, sometimes, elaborating on Input made the meaning of vocabularies clear. Then, learners delved into the examples or input flooding. This technique exposed learners to instances of some target words. In this technique, the main hypothesis was that the very high frequency of the structure in question would attract the learner's attention. The following paragraph makes it crystal clear.

The lessons of the book consisted of 4 parts. Part A was listening; learners were divided into different groups to be engaged in group work activities. Then, new vocabularies related to listening part were highlighted by writing on the board with definitions and examples. After that the CD player was turned on for them, at last the learners were asked if they needed to listen to the CD again. If they had a problem they were given more opportunities to understand the vocabularies and their meanings and if they had a problem again, the teacher joined the groups and made it clear for students. The teacher didn't ask any questions related to new vocabularies which might cause any production or output.

3.2.2 Group B

Method B was Input-Output. This method was conducted in 2 phases: the first was Input, i.e. exposing the learners to the words or Input. The second phase was Output, i.e. production. It was taken as a measure to push the learners from the Input to Output to engage in verbal production. During the second phase, learners from this group gave lectures and wrote a summary of the

listening after they had received Input. So, first they received definitions of new vocabularies related to the listening topic and then the CD player was played. After listening, learners were asked to explain the listening. A learner started to explain the listening and if the learners felt a problem in the explanation of the volunteer learner they helped her and corrected her. At last, if they could not understand a word the teacher helped them.

3.2.3 Group C

Method 3 was Output –Input method. This group like group B learned in two phases. The First phase was Output and the second phase was Input. The tasks in this group were more complicated for learners, because the first minutes of the class were allotted to Output rather than Input and learners didn't have any information about the topic of the lesson. As mentioned before in group B, like a computer, learners received information, then they processed data and at last they answered the questions and made production but in group C, first, learners were asked to make production about the topic of the lesson.

In method C learners were divided into groups and then the title of the listening part was written on the board and each group was asked to write a paragraph about the title and picture of the book or explained about that.

At first phase learners were observed while explaining or writing about topic without any pre-explanation; by production learners felt that they didn't know specific words in English and started to ask each other to solve the problem. Whenever the teacher felt that learners could not handle the task and needed help, the teacher took part in their conversation and the second phase of teaching started to work and by giving Elaborated Input they tried to solve the problems and actually filled the gaps in learners' minds. After ten sessions of treatment the teacher gave the learners a posttest. To this end, vocabularies which were used in the Pretest were given for posttest.

4. Data analysis

Data analysis was conducted through SPSS 19 for windows. Two analytical procedures were applied, one-way ANOVA and matched t-test. In matched t-test we have one group of participants tested twice. In other words, for each student in the group we have two scores. Due to the fact that each student had a pre-test and post-test, matched t-test was used to see if the difference between the means of the two sets of scores is statistically significant or not. Moreover, after calculating matched t-test, the effect size was calculated to show how great the effect of each presentation

was. Another analytical procedure used in the study was one-way ANOVA. To do one-way ANOVA, we need two variables, a dependent variable (vocabulary learning) which is the target variable to be compared, and an independent variable (the modes of teaching) which is the grouping variable that has as many values as the number of groups we want to compare (Dorneyi, 2007). Furthermore, the researcher did two one-way ANOVAs, one for the pre- test and the other one for the post-test of the three groups. Then the Post hoc analysis was done to have two by two comparisons subsequently. In the Post hoc the Scheffe test was used too.

5. Results

In this study, there were three groups of the students who were tested twice. In other words, there were pre-tests and post-tests for each student in each group. Therefore, the matched *t*-test was calculated for each group in order to see if the difference between the means of the two sets of the scores was statistically significant or not. After entering the scores of each student in two columns, one for the pre-tests and the other for the post-tests, in the SPSS, the researcher analyzed them by choosing Paired-samples *t*-test. Furthermore, the researcher calculated the effect size to know how big the difference between the means was. To find out the effect size of the means, the researcher calculated the square of t value divided by the square of the t value plus df. If Eta squared equals .01 it represents a small effect, if Eta squared equals .06, it shows a moderate effect and if it is greater than .14 it represents a large effect.

5.1 The Input Group The means of pre-tests and post-tests for each group were compared by matched *t*-test in Input group.

		Paired Differences			t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean			
Pair 1	Input-Pre, Input-Post	-1.79412	1.92888	.46782	-3.835	16	.001

Table 1 Matched *t*-test of Pre-test and Post-test on the Input Group

As the Matched *t*-test of pre-test and post-test on the Input group shows the significance given by the computer is .001 which is smaller than .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected at both levels of significance. In other words, the treatment which was the Input presentation had an effect on the student s' vocabulary acquisition. Besides, the effect size was calculated and it was .47 which was greater than .14. Therefore, it was concluded that the effect of Input presentation was large on the vocabulary acquisition. The mean difference of both pre-tests and post-tests on the vocabulary acquisition in the Input group is (-1.79412). So, it is concluded that the mean of post-test is higher than that of pre-test which informs us that students did a better job at their post-test.

5.2 The Input-Output Group

The matched *t*-test of pre-test and post-test in the Input-output group was also calculated. As mentioned before, if the significance level is smaller than .05 the null hypothesis will be rejected.

		Paired Differences			t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean			
Pair 2	Input-Output Pre, Input-Output Post	-4.25000	1.60228	.42823	-9.925	13	.000

Table 2 the Matched *t*-test of Pre-test and Post-test in the Input-output Group

By looking at the significance level in the Table 2, it is concluded that the significance level is smaller than .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected which means that the treatment had an effect. Bedsides, the difference between the means in the Table 2 represents the effect of Input-Output method on learner's vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, the calculated effect size by the Eta squared formula was .88 which meant that the effect was very large. By looking at the mean difference of both pre-tests and post-tests in the Table 2 it is concluded that the mean of post-test in the Input-Output group is larger than the mean of pre-tests. In other words, students performed better at their post-test and the treatment had effects on students' vocabulary acquisition.

5.3 The Output-Input Group

The third group was the Output-Input group. Pre-tests and post-tests of each student were compared by the calculation of matched *t*-test.

		Paired Differences			t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean			
Pair 3	Output-Input-Pre , Output-Input-Post	-4.21429	1.34041	-11.764	-9.925	13	.000

Table 3 the Matched *t*-test of Pre-test and Post-test in the Output - Input Group

The significance level is .000 based on Table 3 which is smaller than .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected in this case too. As it is shown in Table 3, the difference between the means of pre-test and post-test is negative, so the mean of post-test is greater than the mean of pre-test which informs us that the treatment which was the Output-Input did have effects on EFL learner's vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, the effect size was .91 which represented the large effect of Output-Input presentation on vocabulary acquisition.

5.4 One-way ANOVA

In statistical analysis, one should apply one-way ANOVA if the independent variable has more than two levels. In this study, the independent variable had three levels. Three levels were three groups called Input, Input-Output, and Output-Input. Therefore, one-way ANOVA was applied for the analysis of variance. The researcher calculated two one-way ANOVAs, one for pre-test and another for the post-test. After calculating one-way ANOVA, the Post hoc analysis was applied in order to have two by two comparisons. For the purpose of analyzing post hoc, the Scheffe test was calculated.

Table 4 One-way ANOVA for Pre-test

Pretest	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.274	2	2.637	.638	.534
Within Groups	173.704	42	4.136		
Total	178.978	44			

As Table 4 represents, the significance level is .534 which is greater than .05. Therefore, the difference between pre-tests is not significant.

Table 5 One-way ANOVA for Post-test

Posttest	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	40.457	2	20.228	8.408	.001
Within Groups	101.043	42	2.406		
Total	141.500	44			

In Table 5 the significance level is .001 which is less than .05. Therefore, the difference between the post-tests of groups is significant. In other words, it was concluded that the effects of three modes of presentation differ in classes, since the difference between the three groups was significant. Besides, the post hoc was calculated to see which group had a higher gain.

5.5 Multiple Comparisons

Table 6 Post hoc Table for Post-tests

(I) Methods	(J) Methods	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Input	Input-output	-1.63866*	.55978	.020
	Output-input	-2.17437*	.55978	.002
Input-output	Input	1.63866*	.55978	.020
	Output-input	-.53571	.58625	.661
Output-input	Input	2.17437*	.55978	.002
	Input-output	.53571	.58625	.661

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

In Table 6 the mean difference between Input and Input-output was negative which meant that the mean in Input-output group was greater than the mean in Input group. Therefore, the Input-output group affected learner's vocabularies learning more. Moreover, by looking at the mean difference between Input-output and Output-input, the researcher drew the conclusion that the mean

difference was also negative; as a result, the Output-input group performed better than the Input-Output group.

6. Discussion

In this paper the result of one-way ANOVA showed that Output-input group had the greatest effects on EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition in comparison to Input and Input-output. On the other hand, some researchers did studies based on the effect of Input and Output on the vocabulary learning. In the following paragraphs, the results of the studies done by other researchers and the results of this study are compared and discussed.

Many researchers and theories have conducted research regarding Input. Input has played a significant role as one of the important theoretical constructs in SLA (Gass, 1997). Long (1996) even claims that input made comprehensible to L2 learners (i.e., comprehensible input) is the only causative variable in SLA. Several aspects of input have been investigated in the SLA literature: Comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), incomprehensible input (L. White, 1987), and comprehended input (Gass, 1988), showing the importance of input comprehension (or comprehensibility) in SLA.

In case of vocabulary acquisition, Urano's study (2000) reports that there is a significant difference between lexical elaboration and lexical simplification in scores on a form-recognition and meaning-recognition test but Urano's study (2000, cited in Kim, 2006, pp. 244-5) is an exception. Some other studies have shown that there is no significant difference in L2 vocabulary acquisition between reading elaborated and unmodified text (Chung, 1995; Kim, 1996; Silva, 2000) and between reading elaborated and simplified text (Chung, 1995).Chung (1995) stated that improving comprehension by way of elaboration leads to L2 vocabulary acquisition.

All the above researchers found out that Input helped learning, in particular vocabulary learning. Furthermore, they believed that through Input elaboration and enhancement method learners could acquire vocabularies. In this study, the result of Input paired *t*-test shows that Input was statistically significant. So, the result of this study shows that Input is as effective as other researchers found in vocabulary acquisition.

Similarly, in this study, the researcher found out that Input in comparison to Input-output and Output-input did not have any significant effects on EFL students' vocabulary acquisition.

Given using Input-output in vocabulary acquisition, Ellis and He (1999) surveyed the benefits of output production (L2 vocabulary) on acquisition of such vocabulary. The study investigated the effects of premodified input, interactionally modified input, and modified output on the receptive and productive acquisition of L2 words. They found that the modified output group achieved higher levels of acquisition of words (both receptive and productive) than any of the other groups. They also found no significant differences between the premodified and the interactionally modified input groups. The study, however, contradicted the results of Ellis *et al.* (1994), by finding that negotiated interactions in which learners did not produce output led to the same levels of vocabulary acquisition than no negotiated, premodified input.

De la Fuente (2002) tested comprehension and acquisition of new vocabulary in relation to three condition types: *non-negotiated premodified Input*, *negotiated Input without Output*, and *negotiated Input plus Output*. The subjects were 32 NSs of English studying Spanish at Georgetown University.

The results of this study show that the *negotiated Input without Output* and *negotiated Input plus Output* groups attained higher levels of comprehension. This finding supports the findings of Loschky (1994) and Ellis *et al.* (1994) but contradicts Ellis and He's (1999).

As regards subsequent recognition of L2 words, De la Fuentes' finding that there was no significant difference between the input groups (*non-negotiated premodified Input* and *negotiated Input without Output*) supports Loschky (1994), Ellis and He's (1999) but contradicts Ellis *et al*'s. (1994). However, de la Fuente found that with regard to word recognition, there was no significant difference between the negotiation groups (*negotiated Input without Output* and *negotiated Input plus Output*). This finding does not support Ellis and He's (1999), who found the modified output group was superior to the interactionally modified group. As far as word production is concerned, de la Fuente's findings support those of Ellis and He; that is, the difference between the input groups (*non-negotiated premodified input* and *negotiated input without output*) was not significant. Additionally, she found that the difference between the negotiation groups (*negotiated input without output* and *negotiated input plus output*) was significant. This finding is in line with that of Ellis and He (1999), whose results show that the modified output group was far superior to the interaction group.

The result of this study also represented the remarkable effects of Input-output on vocabulary acquisition. The result showed that Input-output group achieved higher levels which are the same

as the result of Ellis and He (1999); however, this finding does not support Ellis (1994), Loschky (1994) and De la Fuente's (2002).

Furthermore, the researcher found that there was no significant difference between the Input-Output and Output-Input group and the mean difference between Input-output and Output-Input group showed that Input-output group achieved a higher level of performance on vocabulary acquisition. So, the groups that outperformed are Input-output and then Output-input.

7. Conclusions

In this study three research questions and three null hypotheses were stated. The three research questions were; 1) Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are instructed by Input plus Output instruction and Input only instruction? 2) Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are taught through the Output plus Input and Input only mode? 3) Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are taught in the Output-Input condition and the Input-Output condition?

The three null hypotheses were; 1) There is no significance difference in vocabulary learning whether teaching mode is Input-Output based or it is just input based mode, 2) There is no significance difference in vocabulary learning whether teaching mode is output- input based or it is just input based mode. 3) There is no significance difference in vocabulary learning whether teaching mode is Input-Output based or it is output- input based.

As mentioned before each question is answered here based on the results of the data analyses. Moreover, each null hypothesis is surveyed in each question. Each question is answered separately below.

Q1. Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are instructed by Input plus Output instruction and Input only instruction?

As presented in the results of this paper, in both matched t-test and one-way ANOVA the significance level was smaller than .05. Therefore, the mean difference of each subject was significant. The first null hypothesis is that there is no significant difference in vocabulary learning whether teaching mode is Input-Output based or it is just input based mode which was rejected. In other words, the group of Input-Output outperformed Input only. Since the effect size was calculated in matched *t*-test for each group, the effect of size of Input group was .47 and the effect

size of Input-Output was .88. Both group's effect sizes were greater than .14. So, the effect of both groups on the vocabulary acquisition was acceptable but in comparison in two groups, the effect of Input-Output group is greater than the effect size of Input group.

The same result was gained by post hoc. According to Table 6 (post hoc) the result of mean differences was negative which showed that Input-Output outperformed the Input group.

Q2. Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are taught through the Output plus Input and Input only mode?

The significant level shown in both matched *t*-test and one-way ANOVA became smaller than .05. Therefore, the second null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, the group of Output-Input out performed Input only. The average of the calculated effect size for Output-Input group is .91 and the effect size of Input group was .47 which shows a great effect of both Output-Input and Input groups on vocabulary acquisition. Besides, the effect size of Output-Input group is greater than the effect size of Input group.

In this study, the same result was obtained through post hoc. The Mean Difference of Input and Output-Input was negative which showed that Output-Input outperformed the Input group.

Q3. Is there any significant difference in vocabulary learning of the students when they are instructed by Input plus Output instruction and Input plus Output instruction?

The results of the two methods, matched t-test and one-way ANOVA, represented that the third null hypothesis is rejected.

The average of the calculated effect size for Output-Input group is .91 and the effect size of Input-Output was .88. Both groups' effect sizes were greater than .14. So, the effect of both groups on the vocabulary acquisition was acceptable but in comparison in two groups, the effect of Output-Input group is greater than the effect size of Input-Output group.

The same result was gained by post hoc. In comparison in Input-Output group and Output-Input group, the mean difference was negative; it showed that the mean of output-Input group was greater than Input-Output group.As a result, Output-Input outperformed the other groups in this study.

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Appendix

Pre-Test & Post-test

A. Choose the opposite word.

Example: big

A. large □ B. small ■ C. pretty □

1- Difficult   A. easy □ B. full □ C. slow □   2- Expensive   A. new □ B. cheap □ C. white □

3- Clean   A. dirty □ B. old □ C. high □   4- Beautiful   A. cheap □ B. tall □ C. ugly □

5- Tall   A. wet □ B. short □ C. empty □

B. Complete the sequence. Choose the correct word.

Example: first, second, _____, fourth.   A. Sixth □ B. third ■ C. fifth □

6- January, February, _____, April.   A. March □ B. June □ C. May □

7- June, July, August, _____.   A. May □ B. September □ C. October □

8- Seventh, eighth, ninth, _____.   A. Eleventh □ B. sixth □ C. tenth □

9- Second, fourth, _____, eighth.   A. Fifth □ B. seventh □ C. sixth □

10- Fall, winter, _____, summer.   A. season □ B. month □ C. spring □

C. Complete the sentence. Choose the correct word.

Example: My sister's birthday is on _____ 14th. A. December □ B. December ■ C. Dicember □

11- It's a good restaurant, and it isn't _____ expensive.   A. not □ B. very □ C. much □

12- A. Do you want a sandwich?   B. No, thanks. I'm not _____. A. hungry □ B. thirsty □ C.tired □

13- I never _____ breakfast in the morning. A. do □ B. go □ C. have □

14- _____ your homework before you go to bed.   A. Have □ B. Make □ C. Do □

15- He always wakes _____ two or three times at night.   A. up □ B. at □ C. on □

16- I usually ____ home after class.   A. make □ B. go □ C. leave □

17- My parents never _____ TV.   A. start □ B. do □ C. watch □

18- I get up early _____ day.   A. every □ B. all □ C. once □

19- They go on vacation three _____ a year.   A. times □ B. time □ C. day □

20- A What's the _____ today? B It's April 2nd.   A. week □ B. day □ C. date □

D. Complete the phrase. Choose the correct word.

Example: _____ a friend.   A. meet ■ B look □ C come □

21- _____ the tango.   A. take □ B. dance □ C. wait □ 22- _____ for the bus.   A. wait □ B. take □ C. lose □

23- _____ photos.   A. do □ B. tell □ C. take □   24- _____ a bike.   A. come □ B. ride □ C. drive □

25- _____ chess.   A. make □ B. play □ C. do □ 26- _____ someone a present. A. give □ B. do □ C. have □

27- _____ a computer.   A. do □ B. use □ C. wait □   28- _____ out together.   A. see □ B. talk □ C. go □

29- _____ karaoke.   A. help □ B. sing □ C. have □   30- _____ a picture   A. draw □ B. do □ C. play □

E. Complete the sentence. Choose the correct word.

Example: _____ sister's birthday is in December.   A. Mine □ B. My ■ C. Me □

31- Don't forget to _____ your umbrella when you go to London. A. read □ B. take □ C. go □

32- I can't find my glasses. Help me look _____ them.   A. for □ B. with □ C. on □

33- It's very dark in here. Please turn _____ the lights.   A. off □ B. at □ C. on □

34- Can I try _____ these jeans, please?   A. on □ B. in □ C.by □

35- A. _____ don't you like the book? B. Because it's boring. A. What □ B. Why □ C. When □

36- In Titanic, Leonardo DiCaprio falls in love _____ Kate Winslet. A. with □ B. by □ C. on □

37- _____ you play the piano?   A. How □ B. When □ C. Can □

38- My father's favorite _____ is "Imagine" by John Lennon. A. song □ B. band □ C. lyrics □

39- He's a violinist. He plays _____ music in an orchestra.   A. reggae □ B. dance □ C. classical □

40- I like this group's music but I can't understand their _____. A. lyrics □ B. word □ C. guitar □

Total Score: 20   Final Score: ……… out of 20

Title

Implications of Theories as Prerequisite Knowledge for Beginner Learners to Commence a new Language, Especially English

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Biodata

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Abstract

The purpose of the present essay is to bring to the readers' attention a few educational points about teaching and learning theories as well as methods to facilitate the learning and teaching process. It does not matter whether those readers are beginner students attempting to learn a new language like English or simply teachers who intend to have a more successful career with those students. The former is of greater importance because most essays and studies target teachers although there seems to be a shift in recent theories and principles in the field from teaching toward learning. Hence, students should also be enabled and offered the opportunity to read about what the implications of those theories are for them to streamline their learning. In so doing, language learners need some basic and "user-friendly" knowledge to start any given language without becoming confused, a feeling probably felt by most beginners. However, teachers may benefit from this paper by familiarizing students with these pedagogic items in order to insure their students' success.

Keywords: Pedagogical theories of learning, Pedagogical theories of teaching, Implications of pedagogical theories

1. Introduction

The importance of an international language, in this case English, is not unknown since modern societies with a vast array of cultures and languages need to communicate with each other. Thus,

there is no choice except to adopt one common language whereby people are enabled to convey their thoughts and information. Today, English is utilized as the standard language for sciences too. Formerly, various languages played that role, and there were so many languages that have come and gone like French in Europe and Arabic in some Middles Eastern countries such as Iran for a while. Maybe, another language rather than English becomes the medium for communication[1] in a particular region such as Swahili in East Africa, yet this does not devalue the global language, English, because even East Africans learn to use it.

It is apparently worth noting a few points for those who intend to learn a new language. Maybe, the information in this essay is to an extent innovative in its own kind although its theoretical premise has always been and will be argued in academic circles. Accordingly, the origin of these theories is logical, and has been experimented on and/or promoted in the history of teaching. If some of those educational theories are discussed here, it is not solely for the purpose of training the teachers. So, it is recommended that the students of teaching refer to other books and articles that are more comprehensive and had been written to that end. The present writer would like to draw the readers' attention to a few interesting and perhaps creative points without the details of academic discourse. The weaving of science and experience may be tangibly felt throughout this writing although this article just like other scripts has its own limitations such as the lack of full coverage of all theories and hypotheses.

1.1. Skills

First, the teaching professionals realized that the closer the L2 or foreign language learning to the L1 or mother tongue learning, the more successful the phenomenon of learning may prove to be. So, they have observed the process of child's language acquisition more closely. Initially, they noticed that the linguistic skills comprise four categories which are respectively as follows: 1. listening, 2. speaking, 3. reading, and 4. writing. Of course, it ought to be noted that apart from these four linguistic skills, every language has other elements and constituents like grammar and vocabulary which, to the present writer, are part and parcel of linguistic assets required to learn a new language. To set up any type of business, one needs a number of physical and spiritual assets without which it will be doomed to collapse. Physically, the vocabulary is the primary asset of any given language. On the other hand, of the spiritual assets are motivation, perseverance and eagerness to learn; mere willingness is not enough. Unfortunately, few individuals are in good terms with perseverance, which might be one of the pathologies of these learners'. The other point

is that science alone is not adequate either. Science becomes complete only after experimentation. In other words, it must be applied. Hence, knowing something is not sufficient even though it is necessary. This is the precondition to the success of learning a new language. Furthermore, science and information are different, which goes beyond the scope of this study.

The awareness of the skills and their order teaches us that every language has both inputs and outputs just like a computer. Or rather, a computer has been invented by simulating a human mind. So, it is not irrelevant to give the example of a computer that has inputs such as mice, keyboards, scanners, etc. and outputs such as monitors, speakers, printers, etc. The first linguistic inputs that a child becomes more skillful at are listening, and then reading. The output skills that a child hones into next consist of speaking and writing respectively. Later, teaching scholars found out that this sequence might not as beneficial for adults as for the children acquiring their first or native language. They also discovered that cognition and learning between children and adults vary since adults have a more analytically-developed mind, but in return, children like professional athletes who are at their clubs' dispense round the clock acquire their mother tongue day and night. Moreover, the child's family members all strive to help him/her acquire the native language and learn to speak correctly. These dichotomies urge us to begin with the skills of listening and then speaking as our two oral resources in order to move toward the verbal skills of reading and writing at a later age.

Glancing at the skills in the process of a child's language acquisition, one can see that the child is not able to recognize the single sounds like monophthongs first; that is, the larger part of the speech is recognized, and then its domain gets smaller and more limited in order that the child becomes capable of identifying each and every sound. However, as the child sets foot in the second step, this process turns around. In other words, when the child starts speaking, he/she begins with the single sound and then goes on to cover the larger chunk of speech. As long as this individual's vocal tract is active, this process continues until the end of his/her life just like the first phase. If this child goes to school, he/she reaches the stage of acquiring the skill of reading and learns the alphabets of the language. The child practices this skill continuously until he is ready for the next skill of writing.

1.2. Mistakes

Aside from the linguistic skills, the process of children's learning teaches adult learners that mistakes are one of the steps of learning which should bring about hope, instead of despair. For

instance, a Persian-speaking child repeats the sentence "dastamsukhid" (meaning I "burnted" my hand rather than saying I burned my hand) with a wrong ending grammar of the irregular Persian verb conjugated as "-id" instead of "sukht". The child's parents insist on correcting the child, which in turn needs reconsideration in and of itself. After some time, the child figures out that "sukhtan" (to burn) is a Persian irregular verb that does not take "id" at the end just as an English child adds "ed" to the end of the verb go ("goed") instead of went for its past tense. Until the child distinguishes between the regular and irregular verbs in their linguistic competence, the correction of their mistakes seems fruitless to others. Yet another example concerning the limitations in the learning process is that one should not be disappointed with oneself if one cannot recall "some" of his learned vocabulary. This shows that those particular vocabularies have not been activated yet; or as earlier scholars would say they have not become a part of their "second nature" (regardless of the academic authenticity of the term). As a mechanic finds out the source of the problems through the defects of a car and decides to solve them, a good teacher adopts a pleasant action in place of the immediate correction of the mistakes made by his/her students, and prepares the ground for the learners' advancement for example by creating another opportunity for subsequent practice. Inevitably, learning a language takes time and patience. Alas, If only languages could be injected into learners as in the movies so that people would be able to learn languages swiftly! Unfortunately, this has not taken place so far and it is better for learners to be realistic and begin to learn the language with patience, tolerance, hope and perseverance.

2. Learning Process

In the very beginning, we see the baby talk. Then, the child attempts to imitate the people around him/her in terms of speaking the mother tongue, which is replete with many errors. Next, the child's speech becomes devoid of errors gradually, of which there is little consciousness in order for the child to be able to recognize and self-correct them. This is the third stage. But, when the child moves toward the fourth and final phase of linguistic acquisition, he/she will be able to identify and remove the mistakes on the spot. To put it another way, the child acquires the native language, just like those adults who have the ability to mend their speech where mistakes occur. These mistakes are no longer related to the "competence" of the adults or children at the last stage of acquisition. On the contrary, these verbal defects originate in the "performance" of that individual, namely, it is a slip of tongue.

3. The Relationship of Other Sciences to Teaching and Learning

As a matter of fact, teaching is closely interwoven with some other sciences that consist of philosophy, sociology, psychology, linguistics and testing. Any progress in one realm gives rise to a change in the other. Philosophy is a science that teaches us how to think about fundamental issues. One dares say that philosophy together with logic influences and aids other branches of study in the spheres of approaches, methods for solving problems and concluding with hypotheses and theories. Psychology teaches us that not only are the "students" not robots, and have a unique identity with emotions, but that the "teachers" bear human, mental and spiritual aspects. Language cannot occur in a vacuum, that is to say, it happens at a place and time in society, which brings us to sociology in the same vein. Every society enjoys a set of cultures that cannot be separated from the language of that society. Naturally, language is the subject of linguistics that falls into its own categories and sub-disciplines. Basically, when a method of teaching based on a theory is applied to a classroom, there should be a framework of valid rules so that not only could the results be checked but also some tests could be devised on the basis of certain criteria (Mousavi, 2009). This ensures that a good test is formed. Hence, testing facilitates this course of action.

Rationalism was once the ruling theory in philosophy; and Introspectivism, in psychology. Nevertheless, there was no particular theory in linguistics. In teaching and testing, Grammar-Translation was dominant such that if anyone knew the grammar of a language, and was also able to translate the foreign texts into their mother tongue or vice versa, it would have been sufficient enough to say that they have learned that language. However, as soon as the dominant theory in philosophy turned into Empiricism, Behaviorism became the accepted psychological theory. Likewise, Structuralism was propounded in linguistics based on the afore-mentioned changes. In other words, a language student would claim to have learned the language if he/she grasped the structures and sentences of a foreign language and managed to practice them on the basis of stimulus and response in Behaviorism so much so that they could be made into habits. In the meantime, Direct Methods, particularly Audio-lingualism prevailed here and there. This educational trend called for the total rejection of the mother tongue and translation in the classrooms (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). The advocates of this theory maintained that the mastery of a foreign language was realized only through practice with an emphasis on listening and memorization of structures (Brown, 2007). The grammar also faded away since children did not use grammar to acquire their mother tongue; or rather, they did so by practicing the lingual

structures. In almost the same period of time, testing theorists founded their tests upon Discrete-point Approach because they held that anyone who learned each skill and element of the language at a time would be able to learn that given language (Brown, 2004).

With the advent of a new version of Rationalism in philosophy and Cognitivism in psychology, Noam Chomsky, one of the champions of linguistics, put forward the theory of Transformational-Generativism in approximately the1970s. Maybe his theory could be contrasted with the linguistic theories before him like Einstein's theory in comparison with his predecessors' in physics. For Chomsky, language was something beyond and more sophisticated than the sum of its parts, namely linguistic skills and elements, as claimed by Gestalt in psychology (Farrokhpey, 1994). It is true that the rules of language are finite, yet infinite number of sentences can be made using the same finite rules. The human mind is creative and cannot be treated like the animals because Structuralism in linguistics and Audio-lingualism in teaching had been formed based on Behaviorism in psychology in terms of the phenomenon of "habit" and imitation in animals. Meanwhile, interesting theories such as Designer Methods and Comprehension-based Approaches had started to appear. Testing also began to have a new look at tests such that in real life no skill was examined separately (Farhady, Jafarpoor & Birjandi, 2000). Therefore, it integrated its tests, i.e. it examined the skills together.[2]

These theories were not the end. Again, the different branches of sciences underwent changes, for example, Humanism in psychology, Constructivism and Functionalism in linguistics, Functional-Pragmatism in testing and Communicative Approach, Functional-Notional Syllabus, Task-based Approach and perhaps more importantly, Eclecticism in teaching. All of these theories and methods just like other sciences advance day by day and teach us how to learn better. Ultimately one can purport that this is not the end either, and that teaching and learning depend on a spectrum of dimensions such as time, place, teacher, student, etc. To sum up, every one of these theories and stances adds to our knowledge that can be briefly concluded respectively as follows.

4. Implicational Notes for Learners

Notwithstanding that the foundation of Grammar-Translation has naturally faced serious challenges due to assorted reasons like erroneous and inappropriate definitions of language as well as unorganized methods; translation occasionally in some difficult sentences and complicated discourse can give the learners a correct and better comprehension and relieve them from confusion

and frustration (House, 2009), e.g., proper nouns like the names of animals or trees that cannot easily be ascertained even when referenced by in monolingual dictionaries. Therefore, in these cases, the use of mother tongue or the translation of those specific expressions can be rewarding. However, it ought to be noted that "easy come, easy go". In other words, instead of being acquainted with a monolingual dictionary, if a learner makes a habit of referring to a bilingual one to look up for the new meanings, his/her mind will be accustomed to the mother tongue or L1 so as to access their definitions and explanations. As known, human mind is the smartest part of the body, so the mind finds the easiest way out of ignorance and unawareness about a term or expression, which is not always the best way or the most appropriate method to solve a problem, particularly, in this case, learning. Correspondingly, caution demands that leaning a language usually, not always, take place via that language. Several reasons can account for this. The easiest one is better expounded in the language of mathematics since sciences basically make use of mathematics to prove their hypotheses owing to the fact that mathematics is the language of logic and reasoning and can easily be observed and tested.
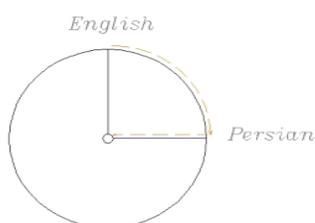
As seen through the illustration above, infinite number of points can be imagined on the circumference of a circle according to mathematical laws. In addition, every circle has a center, and the radius is the shortest line from the circumference to the center. By assuming the above discussion, both L1 (e.g. Persian) and L2 (e.g. English), which have been connected to the center with their radii, can be placed on the circumference of the circle. Why? Each and every language of the world possesses a verbal layer, either spoken or written, and a conceptual one; of course, for the time being, in order not to complicate the issue at hand and to have a better understanding, we need to ignore the socio-cultural, ideological and political dimensions. To rephrase it, every word in the spoken or written form signifies an object or a concept in the external world. Thus, it can be claimed that a Persian speaker has a similar, if not the same, understanding of the term "ketab" to an English speaker of "book," of course provided that the trivial differences and nuances of the

languages are to be overlooked. Even the center of the circle has been considered hollow, not a filled dot, to just refer to the distinguishing factors of the conceptualizations between the two languages. Again, it is worth noting that the present study is not trying to say that first, the different linguistic qualities and contexts should be denied their due attention; second, every word does not have more than one single meaning because, depending on the very aforesaid factors and contexts, the meaning of a term or discourse in general is not necessarily the same to both speakers and listeners. There had been so many problems as a result of misunderstanding over people's speech in the course of history. Hence, one of the reasons that hermeneutics emerged, in particular with regard to the sacred books, had been the variable meanings of the word or discourse, even in the case of these holy books on account of the fact that they were considered perfect because they were divine. So, the readers may conjecture different meanings for the same word; even the scope of meaning is not fixed during various frames of time. Some stated that a word is a capsule of lingua-cultural information (Munday, 2011). But, to the present researcher whose simile might be better captured and conveyed, it can be likened to a small ball of snow that is rolled on the snowy surface and is getting fatter and fatter so that it can be used to make a snowman. So, a word takes on new connotations in different periods of time. Aside from this warning and back to the discussion on the relation between the verbal and conceptual layers, we can connect any language we imagined on the circumference of the circle mentioned above to its center, which is the conceptual or meaning-based layer common among languages, via a radius. In other words, only through the same language can one manage to master the meaning of that word or discourse; hence, the short cut. And if any learner attempts to translate, he/she has to draw an arch to gain the meaning in addition to the radius from the circumference to the center using the example of the circle above, which is feasible merely on paper and not in reality. As a case in point, when an Iranian learner encounters English texts, first he/she should struggle to construe into Persian that is the same verbal layer, namely, the circumference of the circle, then comprehend the given word or expression that is the center. This action can be applied, though slowly, in writing which is not usually bound by time, but in speaking, only within the first few sentences maybe with some doubt. This approach has not helped to duly obtain the linguistic skills up until now; there has not even been one case reported in the history of teaching because experts could not establish a significant relation between translation and the linguistic skills unless limited. Consequently, this may be one of the reasons as to why some Iranian students failed to learn a foreign language well. Another

reason for failure to learn a foreign language or L2 in Iran may be the wrong order of skills taught at Iranian schools since, as cited before, learners ought to begin with listening and speaking, not reading and writing; at least one should start with the input skills, not solely with reading and writing, especially in the case of adult learners. In that event, the linguistic skills become imbalanced just like a bodybuilder whose muscles are asymmetrical and developed unpleasantly.

A question can be raised here: If translation could not be utilized much, how should a foreign language or L2 be learned directly? The response may be that an elementary learner at least knows one language, the mother tongue; what about a child; he/she should start to learn the mother tongue from scratch?! First, a good deal of time should be spent focusing on the target language, i.e. foreign language or L2. Second, any helpful facility should be made best use of. Some strategies are offered here as an example. A monolingual dictionary is the key to unravel the mystery. Essentially, the competent, educated and experienced individuals compile these dictionaries. The entire lexicons employed in the definitions in a dictionary are limited depending on its entries. For instance, there are about 500 vocabularies used in Elementary Oxford Dictionary bearing nearly 15000 entries. Also, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary uses approximately 3000 vocabularies to define almost 80000 entries. It was formerly believed that it would be beneficial and apt to memorize and learn, in a taxonomic and compact fashion, these 3000 words which were by chance the most essential and vital words that native speakers like English children know. But, experience showed that this would not be that efficacious because these vocabularies would not become activated, namely, learners could not employ them as needed immediately. It might be useful when reading as in the Leitner Box or G5. However, when listening and speaking are at play, this type of learning will not be effectual due to the passive nature of vocabularies. By activation of vocabularies, the use of those vocabularies on the tongue without hesitation is meant. Now learners can judge whether or not they have activated the vocabularies they learned in various stages so far. It can be observed that learning in general or memorization of these vocabularies in particular, in different levels of Iranian educational systems ranging from junior high to senior high schools are not as such. Thus, learning vocabularies like a list does not work even though the learner enjoys a high IQ and/or a good memory, for the words of a foreign language are basically elusive. For this reason, it is constantly recommended to learn the new words in a text, or rather in a context. Although this kind of learning is slow and can introduce fewer vocabularies in a day, these words will be more active and last longer. Similarly, a pocket notebook or notepad where learners can

classify words and expressions may be of great assistance; it may at times play a more helpful role than a pocket dictionary. Not to mention, a PDA or even a cell phone does wonders in this day and age.

When intending to look up a word in a dictionary, learners ought to heed their parts of speech; to discern whether it is a verb or a noun; an adjective or an adverb; or it is a preposition or a conjunction at all. How is its pronunciation which comes as international symbols within two slashes? What are its different and important definitions? And at last, what are its examples like with varied meanings? All of these categories have to be looked up in dictionaries because every one of these is useful for one portion of the learners' learning. For example, if the correct and standard pronunciation of a word is not internalized, it means the learner did not learn that word for the sake of listening and speaking since when an English speaker uses this word naturally, the learner does not understand it, or the other way around. The situation is aggravated when the learner mistakes it for another in light of the fact that many words in languages are slightly differently pronounced such as set, sit and seat. To substantiate this claim, there is even a book named "Sheep or Ship" about pronunciation. If parts of speech are not covered, the correct usage of that word in the sentence will not be guaranteed. Whether the meaning of a word is guessed through the context or activated as mentioned before, or the meaning is looked up in the dictionaries; "association of ideas" can be of much help in the sense that the nearby words put the learners in a mental atmosphere that can facilitate its recall for later sessions. For instance, if the learner comes across the term "mason" in English, by reading or listening to such neighboring words as brick or building, the learner remembers the mason, if forgotten. This has been taught by the Behaviorist psychologist and Structuralist linguists. Another piece of advice is that if the learner manages to meaningfully relate the new materials to what he/she learned in the past or classify the new materials based on meaning, the learner will be more successful.[3]

One of the other facilities that help the learners improve their language is pictures. All pictorial information varying from photos to diagrams and so on is a means of imagining and accessing meanings of concrete, not abstract, words. Either the learners imagine the relationship between the words and the pictures in their mind or they see the pictures of those words directly in a dictionary or a photo dictionary, the meaning of that particular word will directly be accessible to the learners. Another resource is to pay attention to the teachers. The better the teacher, the more successful the rate of mastery of subjects under study on the part of the learners. Nonetheless, it ought to be noted

that teachers are like flashlights which illuminate the way in front and it is the learners' responsibility to travel. So, the heaviest part of the load is on the learners' shoulders. Another is a good classmate; a good and proficient study partner may sometimes be better than a teacher since the milder the slope of learning is between the teacher/classmate and the learner, the higher the rate of learning will be. This way the subject being taught will be soft-pedaled for the learner. The best example of this scenario may be the level of two classmates' knowledge. Moreover, the teachers who adapt their level to that of their intermediate students are most successful. They should not teach at such an advanced level that the level of their teaching will be too steep and that their students will become perplexed as a consequence.[4] One of the teaching approaches, called Community Language Learning, in the 70s warned against the threats posed on the part of the teachers in the form of stress and anxiety and recommended the teachers to be more of a counselor (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Another approach by the name of Silent Way encouraged the teachers not to speak in the class because it looked at the teachers as a stimulator (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). However, both of those approaches in excess would yield failure. The philosophy behind the existence of those approaches were founded on the fact that the learners themselves should discover and extract the learning materials heuristically, which is itself instructive for the teachers although the teachers' teaching of the very materials or their immediate saying would not only set the learners' mind at ease but also save some time.

Taking advantage of Russian psychology and Indian Yoga, another method almost at the same juncture of time reminds the teachers of concentration and tranquility in teaching. As a case in point, the role of peaceful music during teaching, providing a quiet place like home inside the classroom and raising learners' self-confidence were part of the strategies of this educational method, which was in and of itself challenged.[5] To decrease anxiety and stress as well as increase self-confidence of learners, another approach, called Total Physical Response, drew the experts' attention to physical activities that children perform during learning their mother tongue or L1 and listening before speaking, and also persuaded the teachers (like theater directors) to guide the students like actors on the stage (Brown, 2007). One of the strategies of this approach was to use imperatives along with the students' physical activities because it postulated that this would reduce adults' defensive mechanism and self-awareness during learning which would otherwise restrict or impede learning, and also it surmised that children did not enjoy this level of consciousness that would lead to stress during learning (Brown, 2007). The reason behind that was the physical

response of the body (lead by the right hemisphere of the brain) to the imperatives in general and language in particular (lead by the left hemisphere of the brain). It is worth noting that little efficiency at advanced levels and lack of coverage of linguistic diversity were of the shortcomings of this method. Still, in the next decade, Natural Approach highlighted the role of primary data and linguistic input at the initial stage of learning, and called on teachers not to put the beginner students under pressure owing to stress so that they would be ready to speak (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

This was not the end of educational modi operandi; newer and more comprehensive methods emerged that enriched the teaching industry. One of those approaches was Communicative Language Teaching that emphasized the difference between forms and functions, familiarizing the learners with the notional-functional dimensions, natural and true (not artificial) use of language for meaningful purposes, inductive as well as deductive learning, fluency and accuracy as complementary principles, and spontaneous and innovative use of language in unpracticed situations (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). This was because it viewed language as a means of communication. From then on, the focus was removed from the teaching methods since the teachers could now utilize all the past methods, not a specific one, to accomplish their aim. Attention was shifted to Task-based Instruction, which means any sort of activities wherein there was a problem to solve, a bridge to the real-world activities and a special goal involved (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Meanwhile, some approaches endeavored to draw attention away from the learning, and so kill two birds with one stone, so to speak. In other words, instead of learning English, they try to use English to learn an academic subject as in Content-based Instruction or Competency-based Instruction carried out for immigrants in a country like Canada (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Even Participatory Approach was proposed in the literacy programs in the villages that underscored the educational contents in the sense that the contents be more attractive and fruitful in order that the students could be prepared to think better and adopt measures to enhance their standard of living; and that sociological, political, historical, cultural, etc. forces had to be understood because these factors would make the learners fail in their lives (Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

To nurture these methods and approaches, researchers found out that some individuals learn better than others; for example, they guess better, have a higher inclination to exchange their opinions with others or are not afraid of mistakes even at the cost of sounding foolish, so they are

better learners (Brown, 2007). Therefore, they founded a method by the name of Learning Strategy Training that the weaker students could learn these techniques. Strategies fall into two categories: (meta)cognitive (how to learn something) and socio-affective (how to communicate with others) strategies (Brown, 2007). The second strategy itself prepared the ground for Cooperative Learning which reinforced the relation not only between teachers and students but also among learners themselves. It is interesting to note that these strategies alone are not applied in the classrooms, but they play a complementary role together with other methods and approaches. Theorists and teachers came to realize that individuals vary greatly in terms of learning. For instance, some are good listeners; some are good speakers, or even both; some are professional data-gatherers; some are professional law-extractors. Those who are good at gathering data speak more fluently, not necessarily accurately, but those who are law-centered speak slowly, yet accurately. Generally speaking, certain individuals appear to be endowed with an ability that others envy. One other conspicuous difference in learning is the individuals' intelligence quotient which quite recently had been confined into a couple of IQs, namely, linguistic/verbal, logical/mathematical and spatial/visual IQs. Restriction of individuals' IQ to two or three was a mistake. Later, an American psychologist, Howard Gardner, divided intelligence into 7 first and then 8 IQs[6] which were as follows: 1. linguistic/verbal, 2. logical/mathematical, 3. spatial/visual, 4. bodily/kinesthetic, 5. musical/rhythmic, 6. intrapersonal, 7. interpersonal, and 8. Naturalist (Brown, 2007). One individual might be gifted at one or some of these IQs, but not at others. Albert Einstein (as cited in Matthew Kelly, p. 80) is reported to have said: "Everybody is a genius. But if you judge a fish by its ability to climb a tree, it will live its whole life believing that it is stupid." There are some people who can play well with their language, otherwise known as smooth-talkers, but they might be weak in other aspects of their intelligence. We have all at one point or another encountered individuals that are excellent at mathematics or can do magic with numbers; or as regards the third category of IQ, there are individuals that will never forget a text if they just read it once; or still others who need to see something like a map in order to remember it; but, some individuals have to touch it or even write it to learn it. Some are agile or inborn sportspeople. Some people nevertheless have to encode their materials or make them rhythmic like the multiplication table in Iranian elementary schools so as for the school kids to learn them. The last three items also concern the individuals' relationship with themselves, others and nature. For example, the 7th item may

apply to those who have strong public relations, and attract others' attention to themselves in meetings and ceremonies.

If merely the first two or three IQs are heeded to the exclusion of the others, the other facets of intelligence are likely to be neglected. Furthermore, there are even some other forms and shapes of intelligence such as the sixth sense in martial arts or the subtle tricks of a craftsman that all in all can be taken as an IQ. Another theorist, Robert Sternberg, thought of three IQs: 1. componential, 2. experiential, and 3. contextual abilities (as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 108). However, some like Daniel Goleman spoke of emotional quotient and maintained that in emergency situations, emotions would spur on the individuals to react to a stimulus before any other type of intelligence (as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 109). Hence, he held that EQ was more prominent than IQ. It seems necessary to note that any person with any (percentage of) IQs (despite the old and wrong tests of IQ) is able to learn any language. This claim can be affirmed if one visits the asylums where even individuals with low (percentage of) IQs have been able to learn at least one language, either the mother tongue or L1. There is one rule of thumb in linguistics that indicates if one is able to learn a language, he/she will be able to learn another language too. It is better not to go into details about this, but it might be sufficient to say linguistic studies in the past have demonstrated that only in limited unfortunate cases in which a few children had been deserted by their family members and so not been exposed to their mother tongue approximately until puberty (Yule, 2006). They had not been able to learn their first languages, and no other languages were offered later either. So, they learned no languages eventually. Scientists have called this time period of human life as the Critical Period, which varies between 11 and 16 (Yule, 2006). This notion is also controversial and under a lot of criticism. Thus, the learners should not be worried about their level of IQ and can make sure that they will be able to learn a second language just like others, but they should choose the right path. Concerning the memory, there is a point that is worthy of reflection; a strong memory is somewhat influential, but not to a great extent, since even individuals with strong memory spend nearly the same amount of time on learning a new language as those with average memory. On condition that learners make best use of basic facilities such as good teachers, enough time for practice, suitable books, useful software as well as personal traits such as perseverance, positive attitude, tirelessness, interest and patience, they will definitely achieve their goal.

It is surprising to find that even for the latter item, namely, inner factors and personal traits of learners there has been some research conducted. High self-esteem, risk-taking and self-assertiveness can help learners approach success more than shyness and timidity (Brown, 2007). On the other hand, thick language ego and defense mechanism of "self" are of the inhibitive factors in learning since they make individuals invulnerable and impermeable as to correct their mistakes (Brown, 2007). So, they will not be open to criticism. It is useful to show fervency to relate and sympathize or empathize with others. A little anxiety is required for learning, but this anxiety should not turn into negative energy, doubt, tension and frustration. There is a meaningful relationship between introversion/extroversion and learning such that those who are more introvert possess higher rate of accuracy and eloquence in speech, and those who are more extrovert have a higher propensity to fluency and speed (Brown, 2007). One of the other keys to learning is by and large motivation. Extrinsically- or instrumentally-motivated individuals seek a reward like a good career, but those who have an intrinsic or integrative motivation intend to assimilate with the culture and language of the target people (Brown, 2007). There is a group of people who have a higher independence and awareness than others. Some are reflective, but others are more impulsive. There are some who learn a thing if they listen to it once, yet others have to write or read it. Given ambiguity tolerance, individuals fall into different classifications; in its deficiency, ambiguity intolerance may cause a sense of confusion and disappointment in the process of learning a language with all its ramifications and difficulties (Brown, 2007). Some enjoy a better left-brain hemisphere that captures such notions as language, time, short-term memory, logic and math, but in return there are those who have a better right-brain hemisphere that encompasses art, music, color, space, long-term memory, imagination and creativity, to just mention a few (Brown, 2007). Some people learn in a linear fashion, yet others do so non-linearly. Some are holistic; yet others, atomistic. Some are deductive; but others, inductive. Some people understand abstract things better than others who prefer tangible and objective matters. Some people are more sensitive to dialect and accent, style and register, expressions and proverbs, yet others are not as such.

Each and every language has three layers from the viewpoint of style: 1. formal layer like a discourse used in rigid or unfriendly circumstances, 2. normal and ordinary layer, and 3. informal layer that is used in friendly and casual situations (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2003). Good dictionaries incorporate all the labels signifying these layers. Blending these layers bring about ridicule and annoyance. For instance, one cannot use street talk and slangs while speaking with a

higher-class crust of society or those who they do not know. For the very reason, one cannot speak with their friends pompously and very politely. The other point is that pronunciation and intonation are only important to the extent that they help the interlocutors communicate, and not more, because some by mistake consider them to be tantamount to the whole language. There is a meaningful relationship between learning a language and age; studies revealed that if the learners come to grip with learning a language at a younger age, they will be able to speak it with a more natural accent (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2003). Inevitably, the natural accent occurs less often to the adult learners. It is not enough to reiterate the fact that language is but a means of communication, which consists of different elements, components and skills, not just a native-like accent. Moreover, a significant relationship has not been seen in the researches between learning a language and gender (Yule, 2006).

The final point is about paralinguistic and socio-cultural factors. The standard and customary proxemics or personal space bubble between two interlocutors when engaged in a conversation in English-speaking countries, particularly in America is about 50 to 100 centimeters. However, this space in Iran looks less than this distance. Body language or kinesics and facial expressions constitute the other nonverbal features of the language since they can get certain messages across without speech. Eye contact, artifacts, kinesthetics and olfactory dimensions are all considered to be part of paralanguage that can occasionally send stronger messages than verbal language. So, unless all these nonverbal properties of languages are taken into account, proper communication in any typical language may break down.

5. Conclusion

Many people have either thought of or experienced learning another language in addition to their mother tongue. The language which is most likely to appear on the learning list is English because it is not only an international language but also the language of sciences. The purpose of the present article was to mention a few points that appear indispensable as a beginner learner attempts to learn a new language, either a foreign language or L2. The philosophy behind this mentality was these points or challenges are often encountered by language learners in the course of learning it whether consciously or unconsciously. These somehow innovative points derive from both experimented theories of the past and personal experiences of the present writer. However, some of them are constantly being criticized and altered due to the advancement in the academic field.

Maybe, this essay could best be described as a genre of artistic work that endeavors to bring down what intelligentsias theorize, and represent what use there is for lay learners.

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Endnotes

- lingua franca

[2]- Integrative Approach

[3]- Cognitive Psychology

[4]- comprehensible input in Natural Approach

[5]- Desuggestopedia

[6]- Multiple Intelligences

Title

Iranian Pre- service EFL Teachers' Attitude towards Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

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Abstract

Over the recent years, Computer assisted language learning (CALL) becomes a medium and tool in language teaching and language learning process and it's used especially by language teachers and language learners in English Foreign Language (EFL) context. In this process pre-service students are not exceptions. In this study, we investigate to explore the attitude of pre-service teachers of English toward CALL. For conveying this result, 35 female pre-service teachers were chosen from one of the training centers in Zanjan, Iran. The data collection instrument was obtained from The Attitude toward CALL Questionnaire by Vandewaetere & Desmet (2009). Also for analyzing the data SPSS software was used. The findings of the research proved that the pre-service students have a positive attitude toward using computers and Computer Assisted Language Learning in language teaching and learning.

Keywords: computer assisted language learning (CALL), pre-service teachers, attitude

1. Introduction

Technology is one of the most dynamic fields in the education system, especially in second language learning and teaching (Reinders, & Thomas, 2012). Nowadays computer has entered to every dimension of our life, but in the past computer usage was limited and no one could imagine that it becomes so popular. Usage of computers in language teaching and learning was limited to

the system named PLATO that included central computers used for performing tasks such as vocabulary drills, grammar explanations and drills, and translation tests (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, & Sussex, 1985). In the last decade in our society the use of user-friendly computers and softwares has increased and by a reduction in its price, everyone uses that expanded in homes, offices, schools and universities (Kawabata, 2006). As computers become widespread used, the education was affected by that. One of the groups of the society was the teachers, especially EFL teachers who were affected by this development.

Because pre-service EFL students are learning and simultaneously they are being trained to teach, so they have more contact with the technology and mostly with a computer. These teachers use computers in many different aspects, one of that is Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). CALL can be defined as ""the search for and study of applications on the computer in language teaching and learning" (Levy, 1997: 1). Another explanation for CALL (Beatty, 2003: 7) is "any process in which a learner uses a computer and consequently improves his or her language." Lately by the development in technology, that cause to have the idea of CALL, more grounded and theoretical approaches was emerged (Levy, 1997; Kessler, 2006; Beatty, 2003) and these approaches are particularly seen in second language acquisition (SLA) (Chapelle, 2001). Different reasons are pointed out by Baeket al. (2008) for teachers to use technology in language teaching: adapting to external situations and others' expectations; getting attention; comforting physical fatigue; class preparation and management; and employing the use of the technology. These all may be good reasons for pre-service students to select computer language teaching.

Researches on CALL shows that the learners always have a positive point of view toward CALL. Önsoy's (2004) study which was based on the teachers' and students' attitude to CALL revealed a positive point of view by students and the teachers toward CALL. In another study by Askar, Yavuz & Köksal (1992), it was proved that all perceptions of the computer assisted and traditional environments were in favors of CALL. In Al-Juhani's study (1991) that aimed to investigate the EFL learners' attitudes towards CALL, it was concluded that the participants held positive attitudes towards CALL. Students reported developments in concentration and self-evaluation while studying in a computer assisted class.

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

In light of CAE exam, a homogeneous group of 35 pre-service female understudies in EFL were chosen for this study. The participants all were Zanjanian females, ranging from nineteen to twenty seven years old. This study was held in one of the pre-service training centers in Zanjan, Iran.

2.2 Instrument

After taking the CAE exam and having a homogeneous group, for collecting the data the students were asked to fill the questionnaire which was related to their computer using in language teaching and language learning. The data collection instrument was the questionnaire which was adapted from The Attitude toward CALL Questionnaire by Vandewaetere & Desmet (2009). The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part asks about the computer availability, computer experience, and academic courses that the participants use computers, and the frequency of computer using. The second part includes 27 items in Likert type to get the participants' attitude toward Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). For analyzing the data SPSS software was used.

3. Findings

The findings of the first questionnaire in table 1, indicated that, all the participants (100 %) have their personal computers, but the duration that they've got computer varies among them. The frequency of those who have got a computer for 7-9 years are around (45.7 %) and the ones with the experience of 4-6 years is (34.3 %) and the least availability is for the 1-3 year computer users (20 %). Pre-service teachers say that they use the computer mostly for language skills (62.9 %) rather than for methodology (25.7%) or literature (11.4 %). Also nowadays with the increasing use of the technology (88.6 %), the participants use their computer daily and (11.4%) of the students use it weekly and there is no one who uses the computer monthly.

Table1. *Computer availability, computer experience, academic courses in which computers are used, and the frequency of computer use*

	Variable	Number	Frequency
Computer availability	Yes	35	100
	No	-	-
Computer experience	1-3 years	7	20
	4-6 years	12	34.3
	7-9 years	16	45.7

		Totally Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Totally Agree
	More than 9 years	-			-	
Academic courses in which computers are used	Language skills	22			62.9	
	Literature	4			11.4	
	Methodology	9			25.7	
The frequency of computer use	Daily	31			88.6	
	Once a week	4			11.4	
	Once a month	-			-	
	Never	-			-	

By findings in Table 2, amongst the four main skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing in language teaching and language learning, participants totally agreed or agreed that CALL has the most effect on listening (91.5 %) then reading (68.6%) and writing (45.7%) and at least on speaking (30.14%). Also, it's highly believed that vocabulary knowledge can increase by CALL. Based on the findings in a face to face situation, the learners feel more anxious. But also the participants admit that computer based teaching and learning cannot stand alone and they doubt that the feedback they receive from the computer can be clear. By all the shortcomings the pre-service teachers had almost a positive opinion toward computer assisted language learning (CALL).

Table 2 *Frequency tables for the attitudes*

	Statements	Totally Disagree % (f)	Disagree % (f)	Undecided % (f)	Agree % (f)	Totally Agree % (f)
1	Learning a foreign language assisted by computer is not as good as oral practice.	2.9 (1)	31.4(11)	22.9(8)	34.3(12)	8.6(3)
2	Computer based language tests can never be as good as paper -and- pencil test.	8.6(3)	48.6(17)	17.1(6)	22.9(8)	2.9(1)
3	Computer- assisted language learning is less adequate than the traditional learning.	8.6(3)	14.40(14)	28.6(10)	22.9(8)	0.00(0)

4	People who learn a language assisted by computer- assisted learning are less proficient than those who learn through traditional methods.	14.3(5)	48.6(17)	20.00(7)	14.3(5)	2.9(1)
5	Computer- assisted language learning is a valuable extension of classical learning methods.	5.7(2)	20.00(7)	40.00(14)	31.4(11)	2.9(1)
6	Computer- assisted language learning gives flexibility to language learning.	5.7(2)	17.1(6)	25.7(9)	34.3(12)	17.3(6)
7	Computer- assisted language learning is as valuable as traditional language learning.	8.6(3)	25.7(9)	25.7(9)	37.1(13)	2.9(1)
8	Computer- assisted language learning can stand alone.	14.3(5)	17.1(6)	45.7(16)	14.3(5)	8.6(3)
9	Computer- assisted language learning constitutes a more relaxed and stress-free atmosphere.	0.00(0)	14.3(5)	28.6(10)	51.4(18)	5.7(2)
10	Learning a foreign language assisted by computer enhances your intelligence.	0.00(0)	17.1(6)	42.9(15)	31.4(11)	8.6(3)
11	I would like to learn foreign language by computer.	14.3(5)	14.3(5)	20.00(7)	37.1(13)	14.3(5)
12	The feedback provided by computer is clear.	2.9(1)	20.00(7)	45.7(16)	28.6(10)	2.9(1)
13	The feedback provided by computer gives me enough information on where I went wrong.	0.00(0)	20.00(7)	20.00(7)	54.3(19)	5.7(2)
14	Computer-assisted language learning develops my reading skills.	2.9(1)	17.1(6)	11.4(4)	54.3(19)	14.3(5)
15	Computer- assisted language learning develops my listening skills.	2.9(1)	0.00(0)	5.7(2)	68.6(24)	22.9(8)
16	Computer- assisted language learning develops my writing skills.	17.1(6)	25.7(9)	11.4(4)	40.00(14)	5.7(2)
17	Computer- assisted language learning develops my speaking skills.	20.00(7)	22.9(8)	25.7(9)	25.7(9)	5.7(2)
18	Computer- assisted language learning develops my grammar.	2.9(1)	11.4(4)	20.00(7)	57.1(20)	8.6(3)
19	Computer- assisted language learning develops my vocabulary knowledge.	0.00(0)	14.3(5)	14.3(5)	45.7(16)	25.7(9)

20	Teacher's attitude towards CALL largely defines my own attitude.	0.00(0)	2.9(1)	65.7(23)	25.7(9)	5.7(2)
21	Teacher's enthusiasm in CALL largely defines my own motivation.	0.00(0)	2.9(1)	54.3(19)	34.3(12)	8.6(3)
22	Teacher's proficiency of using computers in language learning largely defines my own attitude to CALL.	5.7(2)	8.6(3)	45.7(16)	37.1(13)	2.9(1)
23	I have faith in computer- based language tests.	5.7(2)	22.9(8)	25.7(9)	42.9(15)	2.9(1)
24	I have faith in computer- based language exercises.	8.6(3)	17.1(6)	28.6(10)	45.7(16)	0.00(0)
25	I feel less inhibited when communicating in the foreign language via computer than in face- to- face situation.	5.7(2)	34.3(12)	22.9(8)	22.9(8)	14.3(5)
26	In a face- to- face situation (classroom) I often feel anxiety when speaking in the foreign language.	20.00(7)	37.1(13)	17.1(6)	17.1(6)	8.6(3)
27	For me, it takes longer to start a face to face conversation than a virtual one on computers.	20.00(7)	42.9(15)	5.7(2)	28.6(10)	2.9(1)

4. Discussion and Analysis

The results of the present study are in line with the previous findings (Al-Juhani, 1991; Askar, Yavuz & Köksal, 1992; Önsoy, 2004) that English foreign language learners have positive attitudes towards computer assisted language learning. In a research by Levy 2009, it is implied that in using computer the students are involved in writing through e-mails, logs or other formats by which other students help them by reviewing and giving feedback to them. Based on the findings of this study (40%) of the students have the same idea and agree that computers can help them in writing and can improve their writing abilities. By a study by Kim (2012) it was revealed that CALL helps the students to improve their pronunciation, but in this study the effect of the computer on pronunciation was not studied, but participants are undecided (25.7 %) about the effect of CALL on speaking which pronunciation is an important part of it. For reading comprehension, understanding vocabulary can be effective so vocabulary and reading comprehension is in a close relationship.

Constantinescu, 2007 claims that using technology in vocabulary learning or reading comprehension is a powerful tool. By the findings of this paper (54.3 %) of the participants agree that CALL can have a positive effect on reading and (45.7%) agreed that it has a positive effect on vocabulary that can be considered the same as the findings of the other researches. There is a difference between the findings of writing and listening in this study with the other studies. Based on Morales' research 2014, ''Two of the L2 skills, which mostly benefitted from the technology have been writing and listening.'' But based on the findings of this study CALL improve the basic skills in the following order; listening, reading, writing and speaking. So the most effective part is the listening part than other parts and skills. Also the participants believe that the effect of CALL on vocabulary (71.4 %) is higher than grammar (65.7 %).

As the result of this study, the participants are eager to use computers in their teaching and learning because they feel more comfortable when there is no face to face relation with language using. However, they believe that CALL can not stand alone, so the classical learning method should be working next to CALL because there are some gaps that only the classical method can fulfill them. Also "teachers' positive beliefs affect their use of technology in EFL instruction, only when other necessary requirements are available" (Alkahtani, 2011). So not only the students must be willing to use CALL but also the teacher should have a positive attitude for using it.

Moreover, it implies that this study supports Bush's (2008) research concluded that computers facilitate L2 learning for the students because computers can be used by the students when they need them and when the time is right. In this study the participants had a positive attitude toward using computers in EFL environment.

Based on Min's study (1998) in Korea, the Korean adult students did not have a positive attitude toward the use of computers in English language learning situations. This study has been done sixteen years ago, so lots of changes have made and the improvement in technology causes CALL become more and more acceptable than before. In the latter studies (Dickinson, Brew, & Meurers, 2012), it was proved that using the computer as a tool can give the opportunity to the students to experience the new culture and have access to materials in the target language. By all these the students and the teachers become more willing in language learning by computers.

5. Conclusion

Computers are used to develop each one of the four language skills in second or foreign language teaching. Students are using one form of the many different technologies available so the teachers

should use this opportunity to make use of technology in their teaching. Based on different studies of different scholars, it is revealed that the attitude of the teachers and the students toward using CALL is positive mostly because of not having a face to face contact with the teacher. This study also had the same result. It should be mentioned that the students believed that CALL can not stand alone, classical assistance is required to have a perfect result in the learning of the students.

In this piece only the usage of CALL by pre-service teachers was studied. There is an opportunity for studying the usage of computer with the students as well, because a number of research revealed that students using CALL performed better than students not using CALL (Grgurovic, Chapelle, & Shelley, 2013). Maybe by working on post- service teachers because of their experience the result will be different as well. Also by increasing the number of the teachers or students, we will come to a better result and the study can be easily generalized.

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Title

Evaluating Ph.D Candidates' Interviews: A Validity Argument Approach

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Abstract

Validity is regarded as the most important component of decision making judgment in the testing literature. Due to the serious consequences of the decisions made based on the PhD interviews, as a partial requirement of admission to PhD programs in Iran's universities, this paper aims to develop practical guidelines for devising and evaluating validity arguments for the validation of these interviews. Attempts have been made to adapt a validity argument framework for evaluating the interviews. Founding on Messick's approach to validity, Kane's validity argument proposal, and Toulmin's model of reasoning, the framework adapted in this paper tries to cater for the various aspects of validation. Basic components of contemporary validity theory have been reformulated into a practical validation process for the PhD interviews. Examples of evidences and claims have been incorporated into the paper to make the framework more practical for the purpose of the evaluation and fair decision making process in PhD interviews.
Keywords: Validation, Validity, Validity argument, PhD interview

1. Introduction

A test has to attract the stakeholders and the results a test yields should help the users in making the right decisions. These two points constitute the core of validity. Thus, the test developers should be explicit on the test validity before jumping into any decisions or judgments based on the test scores. In fact, it is this validity that lays the foundations upon which public confidence in the test is founded.

The procedure that has been followed for the admission of PhD candidates for state universities in Iran consists of a written exam and an interview. The weight of the written exam has not been the same during the last three years. Earlier it was only used for screening of the candidates to introduce them to the universities for the interview. However, the written exam had a fifty percent effect on the final score in 2013 exam, while this figure was 30 percent for 2014 exam. This variation may be due to the feedbacks the Educational Evaluation Organization receives from the universities. This means that so far the interview has been given a greater weight over the written exam. Thus, it plays an important role in accepting or rejecting the PhD candidates and hence its validity is of outmost importance for the public: the candidates, the universities, and for the society that expects to benefit from the expertise and knowledge of these candidates in the near future. Therefore, a test with such grave consequences needs to have appropriate extent of technical quality. The stakeholders need to be certain that the decisions made upon the interviews have great extent of validity. This paper aims to use a validity argument framework that can be applied in the validation process of the PhD interviews. The framework can be used in validation and validity investigation of the procedure. It can also be used in highlighting the validity concerns and thus helping the interviewers to pinpoint and tackle these concerns.

2. Review of the Related Literature

The concept of validity has been around for a long time and it has undergone various changes due to the changes in our insights into the nature of a host of concepts such as test, learning, mind, performance, behavior, etc. Validity can be defined as "the extent to which inferences made from assessment results are appropriate, meaningful, and useful in terms of the purpose of the assessment" (Gronlund, 1998, p. 26). It can also be viewed as the "degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of the test scores entailed by proposed uses of the test" (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999, p. 11). Two important conclusions can be drawn from this definition. First, validity is multifaceted and thus different types of evidence are needed to support the

interpretations or decisions made based on the test scores. Second, validity is a matter of degree and not all or nothing (Weir, 2005). It can also be concluded that roughly speaking a test is valid if it measures what it is intended to measure and validity inquiry thus concerns finding out whether a test does in fact measure what is intended or not.

Thus the test developers have to seek for ways to find evidence for the validity of interpretations and uses made of tests. That is, in the case of the focus of this paper the admission of candidates based on the observation of their performance in the interview should account for the concern that this performance could be observed in the non-test situations. This relationship between the interview (test performance) and other types of performance in other real world situations forms the main concern of our validity investigations (Bachman, 1990). In other words, we try to produce a chain of reasoning or evidence from what we think a candidate's behavior or performance in the interview means, to the actions we want to take based on that inference, back to the knowledge, abilities, or skills that the candidate may have.

2.1. Types of Validity

Validity was traditionally classified into three types: content, criterion-related, and construct validity (Brown, 2004). In content validity the main concern is to show that the content of a test is a representative sample of the domain that is tested. Criterion-related validity deals with the degree to which the 'criterion' of a test has actually been reached. This type of validity has been further subdivided into two types in the literature: concurrent, when the results of a test are confirmed or supported by other concurrent criterion beyond the test itself, and predictive, when the test is able to predict the test-taker's future success in a criterion. The predictive validity appears to be much more important in the case of admission assessments such as PhD interviews since the interviewers aim to identify and select those applicants who would be able to successfully cope with the programs designed for the PhD courses by the university. The third type of validity which is construct validity refers to "the experimental demonstration that a test is measuring the construct it claims to be measuring" (Brown, 2000, p. 8). For a general term or concept to become a construct it needs to become operational or measurable by linking the term or concept to something observable and to establish the relationship of this construct to other constructs in a theory (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007).

This traditional view to validity was later challenged by a unified view that takes all these different types of validity as different facets of a single unified form of construct validity.

Construct validity was explicated by Cronbach and Meehl (1955) and they put forward their new view of construct validity as an alternative to criterion-related validity. This central role that was given to construct validity by Cronbach and Meehl (1955) paved the way and laid the foundation for other major developments in validation. This also caused validation to depart from its then standard mathematical operations like discrimination and reliability and to evolving into a matter of judgment; it moved from an objective calculation to more subjective judgment that required gathering evidences from various sources to support the inferences and interpretations ensued by using a test (McNamara & Roever, 2006).

It was Messick (1989) who set out to produce this 'unified validity framework' and changed our understanding of validity. For Messick (1989) validity is 'an integral evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores or other modes of assessment' (p. 13). In this unified view, construct validity form the evidential basis for test interpretations, and we can seek for evidences to support score meaning from any sources possible. This new approach to validity can be thought of as an attempt to underscore the significance of the consequences that using a test brings about. Hence, in the literature on testing it has also been called consequential validity (Brown, 2004).

2.2. Validation

For Cronbach (1971) validity is not a property of the test instrument but of inferences that construct validation is concerned with: 'One validates not a test, but an interpretation of data arising from a specified procedure' (p. 447). Cronbach (1989) foregrounded the need for a validity argument, which focuses on collecting evidence for or against interpretation of test scores. This construct validation may be in the form of a rather haphazard collection of any kind of evidence for validating the specific interpretations or in the form of a more principled way of argumentations that accounts for rival hypotheses to our desired interpretation. The former approach has been termed a weak program and the latter the strong program for construct validation. Cronbach (1988) believes that the approach that has been applied in most of validation inquiries is of confirmationist type that tries to refute rival hypotheses.

Equipped with the idea of validation research as providing evidences to support our judgment, we now need to deal with sociopolitical beliefs and values in validity arguments since all interpretation involves questions of values. Societal views, on what is a desirable consequence,

influences judgments of positive or negative consequences. It is also quite natural to expect these societal views and values to change over time. (McNamara & Roever, 2006).

The most significant source of influence on the current theory of validity comes from Messick (1989). For Messick (1989) the whole process of assessment is a process of reasoning and evidence gathering conducted to make sound inferences about individuals. Therefore, the main task of assessment development and inquiry is to establish the meaningfulness and defensibility of these inferences (Messick, 1989). He believes that what we measure and the priorities that we consider in measuring reflect our social and cultural values. On the other hand, the tests have their own effects in the social contexts in which they are used. This explicit attention to the social aspect of assessment makes his contribution to the validity inquiry more comprehensive than his predecessors.

Messick (1989) collapsed these aspects of validity in a unified theory of validity in the form of a matrix. The matrix shows that one should set out with the process of construct definition and validation. These claims can then provide the rationale for making decisions about individuals on the basis of the scores yield by the test. The most important part of this process is the support we seek for the adequacy of claims about an individual through collecting evidence and using reasoning to prove the relevance of the claims and the decisions we want to make.

For drawing valid inferences from test scores some systematic approaches have been developed to guide this process. Two of these approaches include Evidence Centered Design by Mislevy (Mislevy, Almond, & Lukas, 2003) which focuses on the chain of reasoning in designing test and Kane's approach to test score validation (Kane, 1992). Kane believes that we need an argument to defend the relationship of the score to the interpretation we develop on the basis of the score. This is named an *'interpretative argument'* and is defined as a "chain of inferences from the observed performances to conclusions and decisions included in the interpretation" (Kane, Crooks, & Cohen, 1999, p. 6).

Messick (1989) refers to five categories of test content, associations with other variables, test structure, response processes, and consequences of testing as areas into which validity evidence has to be gathered to evaluate intended interpretations of the test scores. These forms of evidence have been widely adopted and incorporated into documents like *Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing* (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999). Kane's argument-based framework aims to provide a procedure to assemble these steps of gathering evidence into a meaningful frame or

whole (Kane, 2006). In addition to evidences and a coherent framework for assembling these evidences in terms of a chain of logical statements, it seems necessary to have a model of reasoning and argumentation for joining the sequences of claims and reasons in order to support one's position. The models that have been extensively used in the literature are models of reasoning like that of Toulmin, Rieke, and Janik (1979) and Toulmin's model of argument (Toulmin, 2003). This model consists of six elements of claim, grounds, warrant, backing, modal term, and possible rebuttals. The data collected by the test (interview) form the grounds for the consequent claims with other elements providing context and delimitations.

This chain of arguments can provide sound explanations for test or interview scores. This chain is applied to the evaluation of PhD interview here in the light of inferences and explanations needed to be made. First, the intended claims are to be designated. Then, the interpretive arguments in Toulmin's model of reasoning referred to above allow for judgment of the degree to which the PhD interview maintains levels of quality and accuracy.

In the case of PhD interviews, for example, the decisions are clearly consequential for the candidates involved and for the universities that will admit them. Decisions here are based on a belief about whether the candidate concerned will be able to deal efficiently with the assigned tasks once admitted as a PhD student and about the demands that they are likely to make on the university setting in terms of support, risk of failure, adjustment to routine academic activities of a PhD student, and so on. The main concern of the interviewers here is to get a clear picture of how the candidates will perform when he/she is accepted for the PhD level. The only way is to make inferences based on their performance in the interview. A chain of inferences span the path from the performance observed in the interview to the actual performance as a PhD student in the future. This is unavoidable since "there is no way for us to know directly, without inference, how the candidates will perform in nontest settings" (McNamara and Roever, 2006, p. 16).

To put it another way, in the case of this PhD interview scenario in order to make any decisions on admitting or rejecting any one of the candidates, one has to go through two prior steps of modeling and predicting. Modeling what the interviewers or the faculty of university believe the demands of the target setting are likely to be (what kind of knowledge and capabilities are required of a PhD student) and predicting what the standing of the candidate is in relation to this modeling (which can be named a construct). Both of these two steps revolve around matters of belief and opinion, and each must be supported with reasoning and evidence so that one can come to a

defensible decision about the PhD candidate. Thus the interview here should let the interviewer to make some observations and then interpret these observations in the light of the assumptions about the requirements of the target setting (which is carrying out the academic demands and assignments required of PhD students efficiently and effectively) and the relationship of the evidence to these assumptions.

Thus, on the one hand the PhD candidate should be protected against unfair exclusion, and on the other hand the university should maintain its quality and adequacy by admitting the most efficient and the most qualified candidates. This means that validity inquiry cannot be detached from considerations of social responsibility. It also implies that the interview need to be planned in an organized way and the relationship between the evidence gathered from the interviews and inferences reached about candidates standing has to be carefully articulated. So, one should be cognizant of the potential threats of what Messick (1989) called *construct underrepresentation* and *construct irrelevance variance* that can be viewed as two potential forces on a continuum that test validation steers between them. The former refers to the danger that the assessment requires less than what is actually required of the test-taker in reality. The latter refers to the fact that the variance in the scores may not be because of variance in the ability under measurement but due to the illegitimate effects of other factors. In the case of the PhD interviews, for example, it may be illuminating to design a study to investigate the possible effect of the interviewer's or the interviewee's gender on the outcome of the interviews. However, gender can be a relevant factor or variable in cases where the university policy favors candidates of certain gender for certain PhD vacancies. As it can be seen from these sentences, the issue of fairness has also been included in the validation process and this has widened the perspective of the modern views on validity (MacNamara, & Roever, 2006).

3. Method

3.1. Ph. D Interview

Interview is an oral assessment instrument with a direct face to face encounter between the interviewee and the interviewer(s). Though it may follow a plan designed prior to the interview, it usually shows degrees of freedom and flexibility during the interview. The interviewer tries to use a range of elicitation instruments to obtain enough samples of the interviewee's knowledge or capabilities to be used in making inferences about his/her knowledge and capabilities. The interviewer, thus, has to maintain firm control, and keeps the initiative as well to make the

interviewee provide samples of his/her underlying knowledge or capability in response to the interviewer's questions or tasks. The interviewer, at the same time, should keep the flexibility and freedom for the genuine communication of beliefs and opinions since this can increase the validity and authenticity of the sample behavior (Young, 1995). An interview may follow these stages: introduction or warm-up to establish a relaxed social atmosphere by the interviewer, finding level of the interviewee through asking some placement-type questions, check the level through asking further questions below or above the assumed level, eliciting the interviewee's comment and responses on a set of questions or tasks determined by the scholars in the field to provide enough evidence for later inferences and interpretations made on the basis of the interview, and finally, the feedback stage to let the interviewer to add anything he/she thinks may affect the decisions about him/her. In the case of high-stake tests like PhD interviews the interviewers may need training on how to manage the interview sessions. This can create a kind of uniformity and harmony that enhance validity by making the interview reliable and fair (Mousavi, 1999).

Admission of PhD candidates used to be exclusively planned, administered, and decided upon by the universities themselves. The Educational Evaluation Organization which is the most authoritative official body on educational assessment in Iran found this procedure to be ineffective and unfair due to the lack of needed harmony and cooperation among different universities in deciding on the content and form of the PhD entrance exams throughout Iran(see the official site of the organization). To overcome these problems a semi-central procedure has been adopted and followed since 2011. Now the Organization has the sole responsibility to design, implement, and report the results of the PhD admission exams. A nation-wide written test replaced the various written tests held by different universities. About three times more than the PhD vacancies announced by the universities are accepted in the written exam and are introduced to the universities for the most important leg of the process which is the interview. The faculty of the university negotiates and agrees on the necessary content areas to be included in the interview for each subject. The universities seem to be reluctant to provide any information on the process and mechanism of the interviews they hold. The main purpose of the interview is to select applicants with the most appropriate qualifications for the PhD courses.

The number of candidates, time limits set by the Educational Evaluation Organization and by universities as well, and the subjective nature of most parts of the interview process appear to create potential threats to the interview. Before the installation of the new model of PhD admission

mechanism in 2011, the university itself used to hold both the written and the interview sessions of the process. This seems to create more tangible grounds for decisions on accepting or rejecting PhD candidates, though the fairness concerns are more serious here. One other advantage of the older process was that the written exam was of essay-type form and this provided more evidence required for the evaluation of the candidates. The written test is now of multiple-choice response form and the universities are given the ranked scores of the candidates and they have no direct access to the actual performance of the candidates on the written exam. The challenge of this new procedure, thus, is to ensure that inferences of the candidates' performance on PhD interviews are comparable to inferences drawn from the previous method or any other proposed method for the evaluation of the PhD applicants. At the same time measures should be taken in order to guarantee a well-planned interview that is protected against potential threats to the instrument and obtains enough sample of the candidate's behavior that can be used for a sound decision making process on the candidates.

3.2. The Framework

Investigation of the current model of interview reveals substantial issues surrounding standards of practice. In order to come to fair decisions on PhD applicants and cater for public confidence in the universities' efficiency, it is necessary to create an evaluation process for the PhD interviews. The framework used here for specifying interpretive argument is based on the model of reasoning advanced by Toulmin, Rieke, and Janik (1979) and adopted by Kane (2006) for the educational measurement field. This model has been simplified by Gotch and Perie (2012) to maintain feasibility of implementation, while retaining the basic components of the argument framework (Figure 1). **Figure 1.** *Argument framework simplified by Gotch and Perie (2012)*
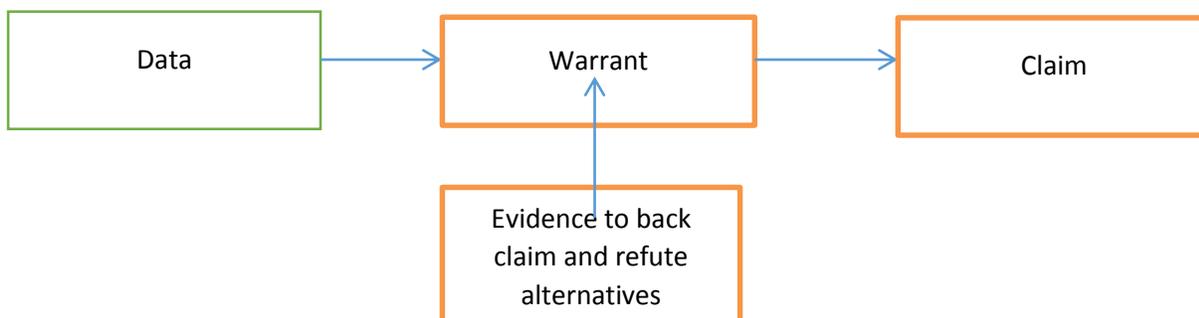
This figure derives from the general principle constituting Kane's work, which requires us to provide the data, warrant, and claim (Kane, 2006). In other words, we have to start with data gathered through the interview and decide how this data can provide evidence to support a claim.

The PhD interviews are attempts to provide the evidence and backing for the claims made about the PhD applicants. This framework lets applicants, university faculty, and any other system evaluators to render judgments based on the clarity, unity, and plausibility of the interpretive arguments. Following Gotch and Perie's (2012) approach to assemble an integrative argument about the quality of PhD interviews, we can work backward from the proposed or suggested interpretations to develop a series of claims and assumptions that have to be true for the interpretations to be valid. Evidence and data needed to support each claim and assumption can, then, be provided to show that the proposed interpretations are valid. This approach asks interview developers or interviewers to reflect on reasons why the intended inferences might not be supported. This means that we basically state what stakeholders think the interview does and then there is an attempt to disprove it. As an example we can think of this statement:"The amount of correct answers to the interviewer's questions reflects the amount of knowledge and understanding of the content area".An alternative hypothesis here could be the following statement:"The amount of correct answers to the interviewer's questions reflects the amount of memorization of discrete terms in a reference glossary without any coherent understanding and knowledge in the content area".

Collecting evidences both to refute the second claim and at the same time to support the first would enforce the validity evaluation. We want to prove that candidates actually have more understanding and knowledge of the content but we prove it by trying to disprove the alternatives. If one can disprove the alternatives and cannot disprove the desired assumption, then one has evidence that the interview does what the interviewers claim it does. Searching for all the reasons is not possible, but the framework provides directions for developing studies that aim to refute other possible explanations for a finding. As illustrated in table 1 below, there are two top-level interpretations: an interpretation related to the quality of data provided by the interview, and an interpretation related to the relative rigor of the interview. The common sources of validity evidence were re-framed into a language consistent with what was familiar and of concern to interview participants. Following Gotch and Perie (2012) the categories used for this framework include: alignment, fairness, establishment of the extent of content knowledge, and consistency. Two claims have been included in each category to lay the foundation for the proposed interpretation.

Table 1 *The proposed claims and interpretations for the PhD interview*

Proposed interpretation	1. The PhD interview provides data on candidate's readiness and efficiency for PhD admission. 2. The scores on the PhD interview are equally as or more rigorous than the scores on the older model or any other alternative model for PhD admission.
Alignment claims	1. The items included in the interview represent the content standards needed for studying in a PhD course. 2. The content coverage of the PhD interview is aligned with the agreed-upon content needed for studying in a PhD course.
Fairness claims	1. Interview scores across all identifiable and relevant candidate groups have comparable interpretations with respect to the content area. 2. All identifiable and relevant candidate groups receive equitable treatment within the interview procedure.
Establishing content knowledge claims	1. The PhD interview maintains an adequate level of rigor in the level of content knowledge. 2. Judgments of candidate knowledge in the content area are set using a researched and established methodology (for example what are the basic topics within a subject like "linguistics"? How can we decide one candidate has more knowledge of "linguistics" than the other one?)
Consistency claims	1. Candidate scores do not depend upon assignment to a particular interviewer, university location, gender, ethno-geographical background of the interviewer or the interviewee, or interview date and time. 2. Candidate scores are reliable indicators of achievement in the related content areas covered in in the interview.

Providing evidence for each of these claims forms the goal for each validity evaluation submission. That is, the submitter ought to provide evidence for each claim. The evidence can be in the form of interview documents like sample tasks used in the interview, test specifications for the interview, instructions, and policies. If we can provide sound and valid evidence for the claims, we can reach to sound and valid interpretations made of the candidates' performance during the interviews. Now we can move backward from claims to data or evidence and how the evidence supports the claim. For example, for the alignment claim that *the items included in the interview represent the content standards needed for studying in a PhD course,* evidence could include the study of the standard courses introduced at the PhD level, the instructors' views on the importance and weight of each of the subjects in the PhD level and the sub-topics within each subject as well

and finally by prerequisites set by the instructors for each of the subjects introduced at the PhD level. Ideal evidence would reveal that the items included in the interview are aligned with the standards of the course content or not. Similarly, gathering evidence by studying the protocols of the interviews such as the way the interview began, its duration, the atmosphere established by the interviewer, the kind of feedback or any other encouraging signals provided by the interviewer for each candidate can provide sound evidence for the consistency claims.

4. Conclusion

The procedure for organizing interviews seems to be simple; the departments within universities need to delineate an agreed-upon domain of knowledge and capabilities that the candidates accepted for the PhD course ought to have. They, then, need to select a representative sample of this domain to be included in the tasks used for the evaluating of the candidates on the day of the interview. The adherence to the organization of a fair interview is also seems to be observed so as to obliterate biases and cater for fairness concerns. Nevertheless, this apparently simple procedure may not achieve its intended and desirable goals if the validity questions are not delineated and catered for throughout the whole procedure. Due to the grave consequences of the inferences made upon the performance of PhD candidates in the PhD interviews, it seems of vital importance to check its validity. The validity argument framework is one of the approaches that can be used for this purpose. In the case of the PhD interviews, the validity argument framework provides clear guidance and leads the stakeholders toward reflecting on the purposes set for the PhD interviews and the assumptions upon which judgments about PhD candidates depend. Using this argument-based validity framework for the evaluation of PhD interviews can provide greater insights about the pros and cons of this procedure and how to increase its validity. This framework tries to answer the fundamental question of the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of the interview scores entailed by the proposed uses of the interview. This framework can help the practitioners in the field to engage in validity argument for the PhD interview.

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Title

Iranian Students' Problems with Macro Level of Paragraph Writing

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper was to determine the extent to which Iranian students majoring in English were able to produce those patterns. The respondents who participated in this study were homogenized from their English proficiency perspective using a standardized English test. Then a task was given to the subjects to determine if they could recognize the macro elements of paragraphs. In the assignment that followed, the respondents were given a topic to write paragraphs. The data were analyzed and scored to find macro-patterns of writing. The inter- and intra-rater reliability coefficients were calculated so as to ensure the consistency of the scores that were assigned to paragraphs. The analyzed data revealed that most of the participants had difficulty using macro components, specifically in writing minor sentences to support their points of views already suggested in their paragraphs. In general, for the most part, the respondents showed ability to distinguish and use macro components in their paragraph writing.

Keywords: Concluding sentences, Macro Components, Major sentences, Minor sentences, Paragraph, and Topic sentences

1. Introduction

The paragraph is the basic unit of composition, a view similarly expressed by Reid and Lindstorm (1985). An English paragraph consists of several sentences that are grouped together and focus on one idea called the topic. It usually contains four to eight sentences about a topic.

Similarly, Bachman (1995) explains that we teach these organizational conventions formally in expository writing classes when we show students how to order information in a paragraph: topic sentence, first primary support sentence, secondary support sentences, second primary support sentence … conclusion, or transition sentence.

Thus, in learning to write, it is imperative that learners understand the function of a paragraph and the features that make up a paragraph. Chaplen (1997) mentions that a paragraph is a good one only if the reader completely understands the unit of information it contains, and its controlling idea is completely developed. Like sentences, a paragraph which consists of a series of sentences that develop an idea has identifiable features (Riazi, beizaie, and Zare, 2002). While sentences express ideas, paragraphs organize ideas and develop thought.

Zahedi (2005) states that the linguistic knowledge to write a paragraph in English as a foreign/second language requires grammatical competence (including the micro-knowledge of lexical, syntactic, and graphological elements) as well as textual competence (including the macro-knowledge of rhetorical organization and cohesion). He also observes that while many non-native speakers of English are competent in grammar, they are still not able to write effective paragraphs due to being weak at L2 textual competence. In other words, insufficient knowledge of textual knowledge, that is, the knowledge of how to organize a paragraph makes L2 learners' overall performance inadequate, if not ineffective. For example, as Zahedi (2005) observes, many L2 learners, including Iranian students tend to organize the English paragraph using their L1 organizational patterns; this has been demonstrated not only by Iranian students but also most EFL/ESL students as noted by Connor (1996) who states that ESL students use patterns of language and stylistic conventions that they have learned in their native languages and cultures. As a result, they produce different writing patterns that often do not comply with the requirements of organization as required in English paragraph writing.

Zahedi (2005) presents a framework for paragraph writing assessment and explains that a paragraph is made of macro- and micro-components. In this framework, macro components refer to topic sentence, major and minor ideas, and conclusion (see the Appendix). Accordingly, this

study is an attempt to find out the paragraph writing patterns of EFL learners using the macro-components of paragraph.

2. Review of the related literature

Various studies have been conducted on the writing of EFL/ESL students including studies on the difficulties faced by students in writing paragraphs. Sattayatham and Ratanapinyowong (2008) showed that most students had errors in standard format of paragraph writing and lacked the skills of writing introduction and conclusion sections. Al Fadda (2011) showed that ESL students faced many difficulties in their academic writing including issues in distinguishing between spoken and written English, making an outline before writing a draft, identifying the skills needed for successful writing, and avoiding vague words and phrases. He adds that academic writing in English at advanced levels is a challenge even for most native English speakers. Therefore, it comes as no surprise that it should be particularly difficult for the ESL graduate students, particularly those who come from non-Anglicised linguistic and cultural backgrounds. They also must master the American and/or British rhetorical styles and writing genres.

Another study by Khatib and Moradian (2011) indicates that Iranian writers are able to use topic sentences in their writings. In their study, a sample of 96 editorials taken from Persian and English newspapers was collected as the corpus. The equal sample size of 49 editorials for each language was carefully read by four specialist raters who were university professors in TEFL. They were requested to locate the topic sentence(s) of each editorial. The analysis by the raters revealed that the editorials in the English data all had topic sentences, indicating that each English editorial was developed to support only one topic sentence. However, this was not the case for the Persian data as the 49 Persian editorials had only 62 topic sentences. This shows that some editorials in Persian data enjoyed more than a topic sentence.

Baleghizade and Pashaii (2010) found that when individuals write in a language other than their native language, they tend to transfer the rhetorical patterns of their native language to the target language. Iranian students are not taught to take the paragraph as a unit of ideas in the English language; therefore, they tend to think in Farsi and write in English.

In another study, Rashidi and Dastkhezr (2009) compared the organizational patterns of L1 and L2 writings. The results of their analysis show the students were able to write the main idea (topic sentence) either at the beginning or the middle of their paragraphs in L2 writing.

Although there is some literature on the textual aspect of paragraph writing, there is no investigation reported on the macro-components of paragraph writing in the literature. This warrants research to uncover the pattern of L2 learner's performance as far as the macro-level is concerned. In addition, in the real world, many teachers of English have complained that their students have the ability to write correct sentences so long as the sentences are isolated, but when it comes to constructing a coherent paragraph, they are not able to produce one (Yarmohammadi 1995). As there is no study done on the macro-components of paragraph writing, i.e., topic sentence, major and minor sentences, and concluding sentence, it is imperative that an in-depth investigation on the ability of Iranian EFL students to use these macro components of paragraph writing be carried out.

3. The present study

The purpose of the present study was to describe the ability of Iranian EFL learners to use the macro components of paragraph organization in their paragraphs. In other words, the study attempted to discover to what extent Iranian EFL learners were competent in terms of macro components of English paragraph organization. The TOEFL test and a writing task were used to gather data. The TOEFL was used to homogenize the participants. The writing task was utilized to determine the participants' abilities in applying the macro components of paragraph.

All eighty eight sophomore TEFL students enrolled in the TEFL programme in Azad University of Kerman who had taken basic and advanced writing courses were selected. They had not taken the essay writing course. They were between 19 to 25 years of age. A version of the TOEFL test was administered to them in order to determine their level of proficiency and to homogenise them based on their English language skills. The mean and standard deviation were 414 and 41.4, respectively. Out of the 88 test takers, fifty (50) whose marks were within one SD below and above the mean were selected. Of the fifty students, nine were males and forty-one were females. A paragraph-writing task was given to the respondents. They were given three titles to choose from and asked to write a short paragraph of not less than 150 words based on their chosen title. The purpose of the task was to discover the respondents' ability to use different macro components of an organized paragraph in their writings. The respondents were required to choose one of the titles and write a paragraph that was later scored as their final writing examination of that semester. The paragraphs were analysed sentence by sentence using Zahedi's rating scale in order to

ascertain the respondents' ability to use the macro components of paragraph writing (see the Appendix). The inter- and intra-rater reliability procedures were used to measure the reliability of the scoring procedure.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Macro-Component 1: Topic Sentences

As shown in Table 1, the results showed that 89% and 85.6% of the male and female respondents, respectively, performed completely on the topic sentence. However, only 5.1% and 6.3% of the male and female participants, in turn, failed this macro-component totally. Therefore, the number of respondents who experienced difficulty in writing out a topic sentence is still insignificant. In other words, the findings show that EFL students who participated in this study had adequate ability to write good topic sentences.

Table 1: Performance on topic sentence

Component of Topic Sentence	None (0)	Limited (0.5)	Moderate (1)	Extensive (1.5)	Complete (2)
Male	5.1%	0%	4.8%	1.1%	89.0%
Female	6.3%	1.4%	4.6%	2.1%	85.6%

4.2. Macro-Component 2: Major Sentences

Table 2: Performance on major sentences

Component of Major Sentences	None (0)	Limited (1)	Moderate (2)	Extensive (3)	Complete (4)
Male	7.7%	8.3%	10.9%	11.1%	62.0%
Female	10.5%	8.1%	16.1%	10.8%	54.5%

The data demonstrated that 62% of the male respondents' major sentences fall in the category of "complete". However, female participants "complete" performance were less than that of the male standing at 54.5%. Likewise, in the category of "none", male performance index was superior to that of females. While 7.7% of males did not produce major sentences, female's index was 10.5%. If we compare the above results to that of the components of topic sentence, we can conclude that the respondents' ability to write major sentence is not as good as their ability to write the topic

sentence. One of the reasons for this is possibly because the respondents lack the ability to relate the major sentences to the topic sentence.

4.3. Macro-Component 3: Minor Sentences

Table 3: Performance on minor sentences

Components of Minor Sentences	None (0)	Limited (1)	Moderate (2)	Extensive (3)	Complete (4)
Male	8.00%	8.8%	16.8%	16.7%	49.7%
Female	4.9%	7.7%	14.1%	15.2%	58.1%

Contrary to major sentences, the female participants outperformed the males. While 49.7% of males' performances fall in the category of "complete," the females reached the index of 58.1%. In the same way, female's performance index was superior to that of males. While 8% of males did not produce minor sentences, this figure reduced to 4.9% for females. Moreover, producing minor sentences seemed to be harder not only than topic sentence but also than major sentences.

4.4. Macro-Component 4: Concluding Sentences

Table 4: Performance on concluding sentence

Components of Concluding Sentences	None (0)	Limited (0.5)	Moderate (1)	Extensive (1.5)	Complete (2)
Male	31.6%	0.6%	8.3%	3.2%	56.3%
Female	32.1%	3.6%	7.4%	3.0%	53.9%

The results show that male and female respondents "complete" performance were 56.3% and 53.9%, respectively. In the same way, males and females performed rather similar. Males and females' indexes were 31.6% and 32.1%. The respondents who are in the categories of "none" could be said to have serious difficulty in their ability to use this components.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings of the study demonstrate that respondents were at different ability levels in performing different macro-components and their corresponding features. To elaborate, the majority of the respondents, performed well on the topic sentence. When it comes to major sentences, the results suggest that the respondents experienced some difficulty or inability to

construct appropriate major sentences. Moreover, male participants outperformed females. On minor sentences, the findings show that the respondents lacked the ability to effectively organize their ideas and thoughts according to the conventions of paragraph writing which will allow them to construct a piece of cohesive and coherent text. Contrary to the findings of major sentences, females outperformed the males. As far as the concluding sentence is concerned, the results show that less than half of the respondents had difficulties formulating sound concluding sentences. Therefore, the areas than need extensive improvement seem to be the body of the paragraph, major and minor sentences. Males and females did not differ on producing topic and concluding sentences.

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Appendix

	Components and Descriptors	Levels of Ability				
		0	0.5	1	1.5	2
I	Topic sentence (Main idea) (2 points) Determine the following characteristics for topic sentence in case there is one, no matter where it is located in the paragraph. For inductive paragraphs, rate the conclusion. For implicit topic sentences, ignore rating this component. The topic sentence is either a statement of opinion or a statement of intent with controlling ideas) (vs., a statement of fact with no controlling ideas)	None	Limited	Moderate	Extensive	Complete
1	Relevance (related to title) (vs., deviant or extraneous) (*Prerequisite*)					
2	Narrowness (narrowed enough to be sufficiently developed within the limited space of a paragraph) (vs., too broad requiring the space of an essay or more)					
3	Specificity (focused on a single idea) (vs., more)					
4	Adequacy (brief and self-contained, i.e., giving a sense of completeness) (vs., too short or too long)					
5	Clarity (vs., vague or ambiguous)					
6	Accuracy and appropriateness of structure (accurate structure) (appropriate choice of structure to the topic, audience, tone of paper in terms of difficulty level, etc.)					
7	Appropriateness of diction (appropriate choice of words to the topic, audience, tone of paper in terms of difficulty level)					

	Body (Supporting sentences)					
II		0	1	2	3	4

A	Major sentences (4 points) Determine the following characteristics for major sentence(s) in case there is/are one/some.	None	Limited	Moderate	Extensive	Complete
1	Relevance (related to title) (logically related to controlling ideas in topic sentence directly) (*Prerequisite*)					
2	Appropriateness of techniques of major support (*authentication*, *description*, *exemplification*, *narration*, and *definition*)					
3	Specificity (building upon controlling ideas in the topic sentence) (specific-general relationship with topic)					
4	Adequacy (brief and self-contained, i.e., giving a sense of completeness) (vs., too short or too long)					
5	Clarity (vs., vague or ambiguous)					
6	Accuracy and appropriateness of structure (accurate structure) (appropriate choice of structure to the topic, audience, tone of paper in terms of difficulty level, etc.)					
7	Appropriateness of diction (appropriate choice of words to the topic, audience, tone of paper in terms of difficulty level)					

II	Body (Supporting sentences)					
		0	1	2	3	4
B	Minor sentences (4 points) Determine the following characteristics for minor sentence(s) in case there is/are one/some.	None	Limited	Moderate	Extensive	Complete
1	Relevance (related to title) (logically related to major sentence directly and to controlling ideas in the topic sentence indirectly) (*Prerequisite*)					
2	Appropriateness of techniques of minor support (*authentication*, *description*, *exemplification*, *narration*, and *definition*)					
3	Specificity (building upon major ideas) (specific-general relationship with major ideas)					

4	Adequacy (brief and self-contained, i.e., giving a sense of completeness) (vs., too short or too long)					
5	Clarity (vs., vague or ambiguous)					
6	Accuracy and appropriateness of structure (accurate structure) (appropriate choice of structure to the topic, audience, tone of paper in terms of difficulty level, etc.)					
7	Appropriateness of diction (appropriate choice of words to the topic, audience, tone of paper in terms of difficulty level)					

	Concluding Sentence	0	0.5	1	1.5	2
III	Concluding sentence (2 points) Determine the following characteristics for concluding sentence in case there is one.	None	Limited	Moderate	Extensive	Complete
1	Relevance (related to title) (logically related to body and topic sentence) (vs., raising an afterthought) (*Prerequisite*)					
2	Appropriateness of technique of concluding *(restatement, summarization, solution, recommendation, prediction)*					
3	Adequacy (brief and self-contained, i.e., giving a sense of completeness) (vs., too short or too long)					
4	Clarity (vs., vague or ambiguous)					
5	Accuracy and appropriateness of structure (accurate structure) (appropriate choice of structure to the topic, audience, tone of paper in terms of difficulty level, etc.)					
6	Appropriateness of diction (appropriate choice of words to the topic, audience, tone of paper in terms of difficulty level)					

	Overall View	0	2	4	6	8
IV	Overall view (content & form) (8 points) Determine macro- and micro-structural characteristics as well as quality of content and effectiveness of expression.	None	Limited	Moderate	Extensive	Complete

#						
1	Unity (maintaining the same idea) (systematic relationships among components: title, topic, major, minor, conclusion) (vs., different types of irrelevancy: sidetracking, contradiction, afterthought, extra information)					
2	Logical sequencing (e.g., order of time, space, importance) (vs., mixed)					
3	Accuracy and appropriateness of transition system (correct and appropriate use of transitional markers where needed to allow smooth, fluent expression) (vs., a choppy paragraph)					
4	Quality of content (Being well-informed of the content)					
5	Effectiveness of style of expression (Effective way of putting forward the content or ideas) (Effective, eloquent wording of the topic, major, minor, and concluding sentences to make the intended impression.)					
6	Accuracy and appropriateness of mechanics (correct spelling, correct use of punctuation and capitalization, legible handwriting)					

Title

Second Language Loss: Potential Linguistic and Sociolinguistic Effects

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Abstract

In this review, we elaborated on the main issues in the literature related to language attrition in general and second language attrition in particular. This review includes two parts. The first section outlines the general hypotheses concerning the nature of second language attrition and then reviews generally agreed-upon findings regarding the linguistic and sociolinguistic effects of second language attrition. In the course of the review we compared the findings with a subject named Gerannaz who had experienced attrition some years ago and was able to return to its initial state to some extent through prolonged practice. Many of the research findings were supported, however variations were perceived.

Keywords: Language attrition, Incubation period, Inaccessible language

1. Introduction

1.1 Language attrition

Language attrition as a newly developing field was first discussed in the 1980s in a conference at Pennsylvania University in which the theoretical basis of the field was introduced. Attrition can be defined as "the non-pathological decrease in a language that had previously been acquired by an individual" (Köpke & Schmid, 2004, p. 5). In other words, attrition examines the state where a speaker of an L1 or a second language can no longer speak in the way s/he had previously been able to do, and this proficiency loss is not due to the deterioration of the brain because of injury, age or illness, but due to change in linguistic behavior because of no contact with the community in which the language is spoken. According to Moorcraft & Gardner (1987) language attrition is the loss of language skills. Bot and Weltens, (1995) define language attrition as "all types of decline of linguistic skills both in individuals and in speech communities". In contrast, language retrieval or reactivation refers to the capability to regain skills in the language (de Botand & Stoessel, 2000). In the literature attrition is most commonly used to describe language-skill deterioration because research suggests that a language is never lost (Weltens and Grendel, 1993). Researchers have conducted various studies since the 1980s to attain a profound knowledge of the process of attrition of a second language.

Language attrition is studied since scholars are interested in knowing about attrition processes and has substantial pedagogical implications (Hansen, 2001a). Scholars have examined the amount and rate of attrition in different skills and areas of the language that is undergoing attrition and have come up with numerous results. Some results indicated significant and others have come up with minor loss of a language. The inconsistency in attrition results has been attributed to the original level of proficiency, period of language disuse, motivation, attitude, and other variables. Scholars have also been concerned with the effect of social and affective factors on the amount and rate of attrition because attrition studies cannot be conducted in isolation separated from the social environment in which the learner's language is experiencing change.

Weltens and Grendel suggest three stages of attrition. In the first stage, longer time is needed the normal to retrieve linguistic information. In the second stage, information is temporarily inaccessible; sometimes available and sometimes not. Finally, in the third stage, information is permanently and completely inaccessible. Notions like attrition, retrieval failure and forgetting are favored to word loss since the language is never really lost, it is just inaccessible.

Lambert (1982) distinguished between criterion or linguistic variables and predictor or extra-linguistic variables in language attrition. Linguistic variables refer to factors such as lexical influence from the dominant language, loss of morphological complexity, and frequency of input, while extra-linguistic variables include motivation for language maintenance, the age of language learners, and the duration of the period without input. Both types of variables contribute to describing a theoretical model of language attrition as well as for designing materials and resources for language maintenance.

Gardner (1982, p. 519520) suggests that the second language attrition process is divided into three time points:

1) Time 1: Where second language learning initiates

2) Time 2: Where language instruction terminates

3) Time 3: The assessment of language competence is done

He describes the time from 1 to 2 as the Acquisition Period and between time line 2 and 3 as the Incubation Period (Lambert, 1982, p. 520). Moreover, he puts forward that it is important to consider the duration and nature of the period of acquisition and the content and duration of the incubation phase as well the time that has passed between 2 and 3 to make accounts about the attrition (Gardner, 1982, p. 520). The acquisition period is the time where language learning takes place and the Incubation Period is when forgetting may begin and no language usage or training takes place.

1.2 Rational

Gerannaz's experience of being an Iranian returnee who lived in the USA during childhood (from 2 -12 years of age) encouraged us to select "language attrition" as the research topic. From the time she returned, she has been struggling to maintain her English knowledge while adjusting to Iranian society. Since her return more than ten years have passed and she has adjusted into Iranian schools, made friends and got used to the society. Nevertheless, during this period she tried to cope with a reduction in her English language skills especially her speaking. From this experience there is a question which is "why can't she speak like the way she could before?"

In the review, we will elaborate on the main issues in the literature related to language attrition in general and L2 attrition in particular. The review begins by outlining general hypotheses of language loss. Attention then turns to studies specifically focusing on L2 attrition. Overviews are provided about generally agreed upon findings. In the course of the review a comparison is made

between the findings and Gerannaz's own experience of L2 attrition. An interview was conducted to make the comparison and to determine whether the findings support what she actually experienced.

2. General hypotheses of language attrition

2.1 Regression hypothesis

This hypothesis is the most widely used theory in describing language attrition which was hypothesized by Jakobson (1968). The hypothesis states that the process of language attrition is the mirror image of the process of acquisition. That is, what is learned last is lost first. Researchers haven't come to consensus to conclude whether the hypothesis is upheld or not. Concerning second language attrition, Yoshitomi (1992) stated that the theory focuses on broad classifications of linguistic knowledge. For example, a person is able to comprehend language before being able to produce language, and productive skills tend to be more vulnerable to attrition than receptive skills (Yoshitomi, 1992, Hansen & Reetz - Kurashige, 1999). Yoshitomi also noted that vocabulary tends to be more resistant to attrition than grammar. Cohen (1975) also conducted several studies to determine whether the last things learned are, in fact, the first things to be forgotten, and whether being unable to remember necessitates unlearning in the opposite order from the original process of learning. He noticed the attrition of second language of Spanish of school children during the summer vacation. The regression hypothesis was supported in Cohen's results and concluded that when the learner has no input of the target language some things which are learned last are forgotten first.

During the interview Gerannaz stated that her speaking ability deteriorated while her listening comprehension remained just like before. After three years of no contact she started forgetting vocabulary and English daily expressions and wasn't able to talk fluently and had to stop in the middle, search her memory and think of the word or expression that was at the tip of her tongue but wasn't able to produce it and bring it to the surface.

2.2 Inverse relation hypothesis (Best-learned-last-forgotten hypothesis)

In second language attrition, when language learners possess higher levels of proficiency, they experience smaller amount of attrition (Yoshitomi, 1992, p. 296). As Yoshitomi (1992) stated, this theory is advocated by studies such as that of Bahrick (1984a). This is in line with the "best learned, last forgotten" theory (Weltens, 1989, p. 7), which suggests that items that are integrated and

learned most fully are least likely to be forgotten. It highlights the quality and intensity of the acquired knowledge not the order in which they are forgotten. Hence, the better something is acquired, the longer it will remain, since the language component that is repeated over and over is automated and therefore it is sustained in the memory to a larger extent (Schöpper – Grabe, 1998, p. 241).

Proficiency level might be a good reason for the amount of attrition, since Gerannaz was a fifth grade elementary student when she returned to Iran. However this arises the question that if a person acquires a language before puberty through interaction with the environment and becomes a proficient speaker, how is it that this language which has been acquired and integrated in the child's language system be forgotten. This is where social factors come into the picture. Exposure to the language through interaction and exchange of information with other native speakers in an English language community plays a crucial role in the retention of a second language.

2.3 Threshold hypothesis

A related hypothesis is that what is least susceptible to language loss is not what is learned first but what is learned best, an important notion here is frequency of reinforcement (Berko-Gleason, 1982; Jordens, de Bot, Van Os, & Schumans, 1986). The items that are learned and integrated most thoroughly are least likely to be forgotten. According to Neisser (1984) isolated information which is not connected well to the schema will be forgotten; and the information that is connected well to that schema will be difficult to forget. Learners hold relatively redundant and systematic knowledge. This theory is called the 'best connected, last forgotten' hypothesis.

2.4 Linguistic feature hypotheses

Anderson (1982) introduced this theory. He suggested that second or foreign languages that share more differences with the L1 than similarities are more in danger of being forgotten than those similar to the first language. Another fact is the attrition of linguistic elements, which are less "marked" "functional", or "frequent" compared to other components (Weltens & Cohen 1989, p. 130). Weltens (1989) discussed that these hypotheses suggest two major points. First, they explain that the nature of the linguistic elements like whether they are marked or unmarked (part of Universal Grammar) and whether they are frequent, will be vital in determining if they are forgotten. Second, these theories state that the relationship between corresponding structures in the L1 and L2 is a major factor. For example, the amount of difference between the structures in both languages will aid in determining what will be susceptible to attrition (Weltens, 1989).

Marked words would be more likely to be lost than unmarked ones, and the words which are dissimilar in L1 and L2, are more likely to be lost than cognate words (de Bot & Weltens, 1991). By means of this hypothesis research tries to detect the aspects of language that are first to be forgotten. However de Bot & Weltens (1991) construed this hypothesis as related to a theory that an item in the L2 language similar to a structure in the L1 language will be more likely to be remembered than a different item, the view of forgetting suggests the opposite in the Interference hypothesis.

2.5 Interference hypothesis

This hypothesis states that attrition is directly caused by the increasing influence of the dominant, competing language. The degree and likelihood of interference becomes greater as the structures in the two languages become more similar (Neisser, 1984). Therefore this theory predicts that an element in the L2 that is most similar to the corresponding structure in the L1 is most likely to be forgotten. This hypothesis is advocated by L2 learning studies which showed that more transfer between languages occurred when the languages were related and when the structures in the two languages were similar (Hansen &Reetz - Kurashige, 1999). This theory is supported by many researchers (e.g., Altenberg, 1991; Grosjean & Py, 1991; Kaufman &Aronoff, 1991; Köpke, 1999; Pavlenko, 2004). However, Hansen & Reetz - Kurashige (1999) stated that one study on attrition found that when an element in the L2 was more different from an element in the L1, it was more likely to be lost.

Although the structure of the Persian and English languages is completely different in terms of structure as well as vocabulary, for example, Persian has a SOV sentence structure whereas English has SVO structure; Gerannaz has retained the structure of the second language and pronunciation system very well despite forgetting many vocabulary and common expressions. Social factors and the duration of residence within a community are the most determining factors in the process of attrition than degrees of similarities and differences between languages.

2.6 Dormant language hypothesis

The idea of this hypothesis is that relearning a language takes less time than learning it for the first time (Nelson, 1978); hence, it is viewed as lack of access to unconscious linguistic knowledge rather than total loss. This hypothesis has also been called the interlanguage hypothesis, the cross-linguistic influence hypothesis or the retrieval failure Hypothesis (Köpke & Schmid, 2004). This theory states that "forgotten information is not gone, but has become inaccessible," and could be

attained with the right cues (Hansen & Reetz - Kurashige, 1999, p.10). This hypothesis is advocated by studies that show that with more processing time, learners are able to remember more (Hansen & Reetz - Kurashige, 1999, de Bot & Stoessel, 2000). The inaccessible information may facilitate the development seen in relearning.

After two years, when Gerannaz noticed her second language is being deteriorated, she attended English conversation classes and worked hard to retain the language that she once could speak with ease. She said while engaging in conversations many of the vocabulary and expressions that she had forgotten would come to the surface automatically. The information that was inaccessible one time became accessible when she was in a context or a situation where various language cues existed and activated her unconscious linguistic knowledge.

Various second language attrition studies have focused on skill maintenance (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) and the relationship among skills in retention and attrition (productive vs. receptive skills). Further studies have provided a general description of L2 attrition. Such studies have investigated the morphology, lexicon and syntax. Retention of the lexicon has been investigated to a greater extent than any other area, maybe for its ease of testing. Recent studies have examined attributes of fluency, including hesitations, hesitation, repetition and filled and unfilled pauses. Few studies have investigated communicative competence, turn-taking, and register only one dissertation. Dugas (1999) has undertaken a study on the attrition of L2 phonology and pronunciation. Researchers such as Olshtain (1986, 1989) and Cohen (1989) have also examined compensatory strategies among language attriters.

3. Linguistic and Sociolinguistic findings of L2 attrition

3.1. Attrition more in lexicon

Studies revealed that the lexicon shows higher degrees of attrition in comparison to grammar (Kuhberg, 1992; Moorcroft & Gardner, 1987). However, certain types of lexical unit such as formulas, expressions and idioms may be better reserved (Berman & Olshtain, 1983). Other studies have concluded that grammar is more resilient than the lexicon. For example, in Moorcraft & Gardner (1987), work on the attrition of school-learned French during summer vacation, no evidence of vocabulary loss was found, but subjects lost some ability to use grammar rules in speaking and writing. Moorcraft & Gardner (1987) suggested that the loss of such linguistic structures in L2 attrition was due to differences in proficiency. Other researchers like Yoshitomi

(1992) supports that proficiency differences are the source of different patterns in L1 and L2 attrition. She described that, "beginning students lose more grammar than vocabulary, while advanced students lose more vocabulary than grammar" (p.296). Yoshitomi (1992) also suggested that this description reflects the "best learned last forgotten" theory. Yoshitomi (1992) noted that, for less proficient students or lower level learners, grammar is more likely to be lost than the lexicon. In their study they posited that the French students showed more grammatical than lexical losses because "most grammatical structures are incompletely and recently learned" (Moorcraft & Gardner, 1987, p.338).

Neisser's (1984) theory states that the "redundant and systematic" items that are more connected to a "schema" and therefore more likely to be remembered may offer a possible account for the greater grammatical losses in proficient L2 attriters. Since there are multiple of rules that must be frequently applied, grammar tends to be more "systematic and redundant" than vocabulary, where each word has a particular meaning applicable only to a limited number of conditions and situations. Therefore frequency plays a major role. Grammatical rules are of higher frequency than individual words and may be less likely to be lost.

Groot and Keijzer (2000) stated that concrete words in comparison to abstract words are learned easily and forgotten late. They explained two theories why concrete words are remembered easily. The theories are the *Context availability theory* and the *Dual coding theory*. The first theory suggests that "concrete words may have more contexts associated with them because there is more information in their memory representation and this additional information may help anchor the new foreign language words" (De Groot and Keijzer, 2000, p. 18). The dual coding theory says "concrete words would be represented in both the image system and the verbal system of the language to which it belonged, but an abstract word would be represented only in the verbal system of its language". Therefore, concrete words are more firmly fixed in the memory and are less likely to be failed to recall than the abstract ones (De Groot and Keijzer, 2000). Therefore, concrete words are learned more easily and retained longer because they include more context and they are represented both in the verbal system and image system of the learners unlike abstract words. Ghasemi Bagherabadi (2005) carried out a study in Iran on second language English vocabulary attrition in 25 high school pupils after a summer interval. The results revealed that the summer interval had a harmful effect on student's vocabulary knowledge; in this study verbs were lost faster than nouns and adjectives. Moreover, nouns were least susceptible to attrition in comparison

to verbs and adjectives. Furthermore, vocabulary that pupils learned at the beginning of the year were more retained than the vocabulary learned at the end of the academic year. This supports the view made by Cohen (1974, 1986) who stated that the words which are learned most recently are most likely to be forgotten. Ellis and Beaton (1993) explained that "nouns are easiest to learn …whereas verbs and adverbs are the most difficult to learn in foreign language vocabulary list-learning experiments" (p. 22). Additionally children acquire nouns before other parts of speech like verbs and adjective. De Groot and Keijzer (2000) also assumed that nouns are retained better than verbs because they are easier to acquire. Hence, based on the regression hypothesis, verbs are more susceptible to attrition than nouns because they are learned later. This view is also advocated by Ghasemi Bagherabadi (2005) because in his study nouns were least susceptible to be forgotten.

3.2. Attrition more in production skills

Production skills, speaking and writing are more susceptible to attrition than receptive skills such as listening and reading (Hakuta & D'Andrea, 1992; Weltens, 1988; Weltens & Grendel, 1993, Bahrick, 1984a, 1984b; Hedgcock, 1991; Scherer, 1957; Tomiyama, 1999a, 1999b). No signs of attrition in receptive vocabulary knowledge were observed by the authors. They concluded that recall is much more challenging than recognition. Mainly there is loss in speaking competence and the first evidence is that the speech tempo decreases. Longer and more speech pauses, which disrupts fluency, are observable as well (Moorcraft & Gardner 1987). Weltens and Grendel (1993) conducted a study on Dutch learners of French to examine lexical attrition using a lexical decision task which focused on semantic and orthographic knowledge. They came up with the fact that after a four year interval, attrition was not observed in receptive skills. Therefore, they proposed that productive skills were most vulnerable to attrition. In 1999, Yoshitomi revealed that even after one year of incubation, listening comprehension skill was resistant to attrition. Moreover, the results of her study indicated that within the first year of disuse there was a decline in productive phonological skill. She pointed out that Japanese returnees experienced little attrition in language sub-skills including verb morphology, articles and lexicon. Returnees suffered when they were required to combine these sub-skills for producing difficult structures. Moreover, there were gaps regarding grammatical knowledge particularly conjunction of verbs and tenses occurred quite frequently. Nonetheless, it can be said that productive skills are more affected and receptive skills remain continuously stable (Cohen 1989). Learners are more likely that transfer from L1 when they show signs of language attrition (Berman & Olshtain 1983). Several strategies were examined

in Cohen's study, which learners apply to compensate the lack of sufficient speaking skills, one strategy for example is code-switching, to maintain the communication. Another phenomenon observable is a kind of "mixed-language". Moreover, Müller (1995) states that learners fall back on a mixture between two languages when speaking. Generally because of problems in lexical retrieval, low levels of fluency seem to be the first signs of language attrition, whereby attrition in morphology and syntax comes later. Gerannaz agreed with this hypothesis in that she was able to comprehend speech or any other material in English very well but was unable to produce large stretches of discourse fluently without any hesitations, pauses and compensatory strategies.

3.3 Compensatory strategies

Compensatory strategies are communication strategies which are used as a result of insufficient linguistic knowledge. Attriters use these strategies to compensate for their deficient language. In Yoshitomi's (1999) interview and questionnaire, the subjects reported that they used compensatory strategies such as paraphrasing or circumlocution to compensate for their lack of ability. Circumlocution is defined as using more words than necessary to explain something. Faerch and Kasper (1983) consider compensatory strategies as formal reduction strategies, code-switching and interlingual transfer. When using a formal reduction strategy, speakers communicate by means of a reduced system to avoid using specific linguistic rules and items (Faerch and Kasper 1983). The compensatory strategy of code-switching is an often observed phenomenon in the process of L2 attrition (Tomiyama 1999). In Tomiyama's (1999) research, some changes in learner's code-switching frequency were found. He started code-switching to his L1 from the 8th month since returning to Japan. Code-switching took place with interjections and emotional utterances such as expressing frustration and excitement. Conversational fillers were also seen as susceptible to code-switching. Furthermore, as he started to show some lexical retrieval difficulty, he used a number of strategies to compensate for his deficiency such as code-switching, paraphrasing, avoidance and approximation. Formal reduction strategy as a communicative strategy was also observed in Tomiyama's (2000) research. From the storytelling data, there was a structural change in his modification of nouns, from post-noun modification to pre-noun modification. Tomiyama asserts that the learners structural change was a subtype of formal reduction strategy called "syntactic reduction". The first pattern of the learners structural change observed was the pre-modification of head nouns by other nouns, such as "a tiger mom". The pre-modification of nouns by –s genitives was also frequently seen for example in the phrase, "the window's place". Multiple pre-

modification of nouns such as "a one tire baby car=stroller" was seen as well. Also, changes in a particular structure, vocabulary and morpheme use was observed under a controlled environment. The free conversation interview revealed his increasing use of pre-noun modification patterns. The most frequent compensatory strategies that Gerannaz said she used were code-switching, avoidance and circumlocutions to compensate for her breakdown when conversing in English.

3.4 Motivation and personality

Motivation is involved both during learning and during attrition. There is a relationship between positive attitude toward a language and an ability to maintain it (Moorcraft & Gardner, 1987; Snow et al., 1988). Gardener, Lalonde and MacPherson (1985) using a retrospective design saw the influence of motivation and attitude on second language attrition. Those with high motivation and favorable attitudes revealed little attrition, while those with less motivation and favorable attitudes revealed significant language loss. From this research it can be suggested that, positive attitudes and high motivation are connected with high levels of skills in second language. Yoshitomi (1999) conducted a multiple case study on four Japanese returnee students to examine language attrition pattern. The students differed in incubation period and age. Yoshitomi found differences in the subjects' use of vocabulary due to their personalities. It was found that the more talkative returnees produced more types and tokens of vocabulary items. From this fact, it was concluded that personality plays an important role in the use of communication strategies. For instance, the subject that was a risk taker used the largest number and the widest variety of communication strategies. Yoshitomi claims that the learner was talkative and fluent and showed the strongest motivation to retain the second language. Based on these findings, Yoshitomi concluded that motivation and personality has effects linguistic performance. Personality characteristics play a crucial role in the attrition process. Gerannaz mentioned that one of the factors that prevented her to talk in English classes was her introvert and silent character during childhood. But when she entered university and was forced to talk in English classes since English language teaching was her field of study, she became motivated and gradually returned to her earlier state after four years of practice.

3.5 Attrition more frequent in children

The age at time of acquisition and host country experience is one of the most prominent distinctions in the literature. Children have a good chance of acquiring the second language, particularly in host environments, but they also have a greater chance of undergoing

attrition. Adults do not have the same ease of acquisition as children; though they may have other social, cognitive, and technological resources that facilitate contact with the target language, which would aid retention and prevent attrition (Olshtain, 1986). Even though children are considered as better second language learners, compared to adults their cognitive development is less progressed. Additionally, they haven't acquired to write or read in any language particularly not in the second language at all. Thus children's literacy skill in the second language is very limited. A study was carried out by Cohen (1989) who observed young children. Cohen found out, attrition was stronger in an 8-year old boy than his 12-year old sister. Tomiyama suggested that these children may not lose their knowledge of the L2 completely but their access to such information is unreachable and may disappear with time passing by.

4. Conclusion

Similar to acquisition studies that track change over time, studies on attrition measure change over time as well except that they document losses. The important characteristic of the design of attrition studies is that a comparison is made between data at peak attainment and data after or during attrition. Such studies are mainly longitudinal. Timing is vital, and usually samples in the studies have collected data either just before the learner's instructional setting or the time they leave the host country or after returning to the L1 community. The period of observation of attrition tends to be one to two years for most studies. Alike SLA research, some attrition studies are hypothesis-driven, whereas others are not, however; hypothesis- driven studies are in the minority. Attrition studies include a variety of tasks like interviews, self-assessment, questionnaires, oral task and written tasks. Data collection procedures allow for both direct and indirect assessment. Direct assessment relies on primary language data, whereas indirect assessment does not.

More than 25 years research has concentrated on Second Language Attrition. The first studies dealt with the topic of language attrition or loss which were published in the late 70s (de Bot & Weltens 1995, p. 127). In the 1980s, since the conference "The Loss of Language Skills" in the University of Pennsylvania, language attrition was considered as a field in the research of SLA. The main objective of Language Attrition research in general is to discover how, why and what is lost. The purpose in second language attrition research is to find out why after an active learning process the language competence changes (Berko-Gleason 1982). Various second language attrition studies have focused on skill maintenance (reading, listening, speaking, and writing)

and the relationship among skills in retention and attrition (productive vs. receptive skills). Further studies have provided a general description of L2 attrition. Such studies have investigated the morphology, lexicon and syntax. Retention of the lexicon has been investigated to a greater extent than any other area, maybe for its ease of testing. Recent studies have examined attributes of fluency, including hesitations, hesitation, repetition and filled and unfilled pauses. Few studies have investigated communicative competence, turn-taking, and register. Dugas (1999) has undertaken a study on the attrition of L2 phonology and pronunciation. Researchers such as Olshtain (1986, 1989) and Cohen (1989) have also examined compensatory strategies among language attriters.

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Title

The Impact of Socio-Cultural Conditions on Translation of Tintin Comics Before and After the Islamic Revolution of Iran

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Abstract

This paper was aimed at studying the impact of socio-cultural conditions on translation of Tintin comics before and after the Islamic translation to see if the differences between translations were motivated by ideology or not. The methods followed in this research are CDA as developed by Fairclough (1989) to analyze the grammatical and lexical features of the text as well as the approach proposed by Farahzad (2009) to analyze the visual characteristics of the research corpus. In order to fulfill the purpose of the study, the following research questions were attempted: 1. What are the lexical, grammatical and visual differences between translations of Tintin comics before and after the Islamic Revolution? 2. Are such differences ideologically-driven as suggested by CDA proponents? The study revealed that there are the lexical, grammatical and visual differences between translations of Tintin comics before and after the Islamic Revolution. It appeared that the first versions published before the Islamic Revolution were directed to adult readership (more like the original French) with so many political and ideological points while the second versions after the Islamic Revolution were directed to children readership. Therefore there are made some changes after Revolution in text to accord them to children's age and the ideology of that era. It proved that the representations of ideology in the texts after the Islamic Revolution are limited to religious, ethical, and a bit political issues.

1. Introduction

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) stems from a critical theory of language which sees "the use of language as a form of social practice" (Fairclough, 1989, p.20). Ideology, within the framework of CDA, is seen as an important means of establishing and maintaining unequal power relations. This study will discuss the translation of comics, a topic largely neglected in translation. Above all, as Ahrens and Meteling (2010) pointed out, perhaps the academic disregard of comics is because of the popular belief that comics are the area for children or those adults who think like children. Another reason can be the specific nature of this medium which is the combination of words and pictures.

As Dollerup & Grun hold (2003), translation of comics represents a special challenge in that they have to actively interplay with illustration as well as genre elements, i.e.humor. From translation studies angle, comics have features in common with picture books. Among which, the most important one is the interaction between two semiotic systems, namely a verbal and non-verbal one, as pointed by Oittinen (2001).The limited space and interplay of words and pictures can make translating comics much more difficult than translating prose. Scholors such Oittinen and Kaindl (2003) and Poyatos (1997) are among those who work on the visual and verbal aspects of comics. Oittinen and Kaindl (2003) argued that ,Nowadays, the verbal is not the only means of communicating meaning in many contexts; more often, the verbal and visual modes work together to represent multi-layered and complex messages at the same time.

In Iran little attention has been paid to comics. Persian literature has had a very strong background in picture and graphic book but doesn't have any special work on comic book except those strips published in children magazines and newspaper such as *Golagha* and *Keyhan* recently. Tintin comic books were among the first translated comic books in Iran. In order to fulfill the purpose of the study, the following research questions were attempted:

1. What are the lexical, grammatical and visual differences between translations of Tintin comics before and after the Islamic Revolution?

2. Are such differences ideologically-driven as suggested by CDA proponents?

The corpus selected for this research was a bilingual parallel corpus from Tintin comics translated before and after the Islamic Revolution. The reason for choosing Tintin comics among other translated comics was that before the Islamic Revolution, Tintin was published in Persian by Universal, the only authorized publisher of Tintin books in Iran. After the Islamic Revolution, however, printing of Tintin books was interrupted. It was only a few years ago, nearly a quarter century after the Islamic Revolution, that Tintin found its way back into Iran. This time, however, the publishers were unauthorized, and since there is no copyright law practiced in Iran, no one would stop them. An unfortunate outcome was that they altered a lot of stuff out in Tintin stories, and if they had failed to do so, they probably would never have been granted permission to publish the books.

The original version of Tintin comics was written by Herge. Although the marketing was based on younger readers, an adult readership base always existed as well. Michael Turner and Leslie Lonsdale-Cooper have been translating Hergé's works for more than 40 years into English.

2. Methodology

Textual features were thoroughly described. To this end, features of vocabulary and grammar were investigated as suggested by Fairclough (1989) in "Language and Power". Further to analyze the visual supports and multimedial characteristics of the comics, the study benefited from Farahzad's approach (2009) as elaborated in *Translation Criticism.*

The corpus selected for this research was a bilingual parallel corpus from Tintin comics translated before and after the Islamic Revolution. Two translations of each book into Persian were analyzed in the corpus. Each of the Persian translations rendered during two completely distinct political eras of Iran; one before and the other after the Islamic Revolution. The major items which analyzed and focused on were the comparison of the translation done by *Rayehe-Andishe* Publications of Tintin comics after the Islamic Revolution (TT2) with the ones done by *Universal* Publications before the Islamic Revolution (TT1).The books which were analyzed included:

	English Text(ST)	**Persian Text (TT1)**(*Universal*)	**Persian Text (TT2)**(*Rayehe-Andishe)*
1	Tintin in America	تن‌تن در آمریکا	جدال‌بتبکاران

2	The Blue Lotus	گـل لـبآی	نیلوفربآی
3	The Black island	جزیره سیاه	جزیره سیاه
4	The Shooting Star	ستاره اسرار آمیز	ستاره اسرار آمیز
5	The Secret of The Unicorn	اسب شاخدار	راز کشتی بلب شاخدار
6	Red Rackham Treasures	گنجهای رکهام	گنج راکهام سرخ پوش
7	The Seven Critical Balls	هفت گُی بلورین	هفت گُی بلورین
8	Prisoners Of The Sun	عبد خرشید	معبد زندگیهای خرشید
9	Explorers On The Moon	روی قادم گذاشتیم	گشت و گذار در ماه
1	The Calculus Affair	ماجرای تورنسل	ماجرای کلکلس
1	The Castafiore Emerald	جواهرات کستافیوره	جواهرات کستافیوره
1	Flight 714	پرواز417	پرواز417

3. Exploring differences and hidden ideologies in translations before and after the Islamic Revolution: Answers to Fairclough's Questions

3.1. Lexical Analysis

Concerning the vocabulary in this research, the following questions were attempted:

• What are the lexical differences between translations of Tintin comics before and after the Islamic Revolution?

• Are such differences ideologically-driven as suggested by CDA proponents?

The ideological differences between these two texts could be represented in their vocabulary. Fairclough (1989, p.110-2) suggested a list of possible directions or are as that could be investigated based on vocabularies. Among them, some were more marked in this research which were as follows:

3.1.1.Are there words which are ideologically contested?

Some words seem more ideologically contested such as *Great snake* which was translated into *xeili æddʒibe*(which translates into: very unusual) or expressions like that to show surprise or

excitement, while in TT2 it was translated to *xodaje bozorg*(which literally translates into: *Great God*) (Oh myGod) which is more religious and has a positive connotation.

 Example: ST. *Tintin in America*

TT1. *Tæntæn dær amrica* (which translates into: Tintin in America)

TT2.*dʒedal ba tæbæhkaran* (which translates into: *fight with gangsters*)

The word *America* has been ideologically significant in Iran since Islamic Revolution. On the other hand, in this era, USA is viewed the greatest enemy in the opinion of Iranian official policy-makers. So in the first version (TT1), it was translated the same but in the second version (TT2) it was translated to *tæbæhkaran* (which translates into: *gangsters*) revealing the negative view of the translator towards America.

3.1.2. Is there rewording or overwording?

Overwording or using high degree of wording, often involves many words which are near synonyms. For example expressions such as *thundering typhoon a*nd *blistering barnacles* which were translated to *læ'næt bar ʃeitun* (which literally translates into: *damn to devil)* (damn with devil) in TT1 and TT2, are instances of overwording both in TT and ST. Expressions such as *suffering catfish, Alcatraz,...*which were translated to *læ'næti*(which translates into: *damning*) were also overworded. As seen, the translator of TT2 wanted to overword the expression *Oh my God* while the translator of TT1 preferred to overword expressions which were not related to *God* to show his surprise. Words such as *Whisky, champagne, drink, wine, get drunk* are frequently used and hence are overworded in ST and were translated to their synonyms in TT1, but in TT2,they were translated to the words like *nuʃabe, ab, nuʃidæni, limunad* (which translate into: *soda, water, beverage, lemonade).*

Rewording is the replacing of existing and naturalized wording by another one (Fairclough, 1989, p.113). In an example the pronoun *I* was rendered to *haqir* (which literally translates into: *humble*) (your humble servant) in TT2 when an Indian fakir is talking with his master in '*Blue Lotus*'. It seems that by rendering 'I' to 'your humble servant', the translator wished to despise the position of the fakir. Also *Drug* in TT2 was rendered to its hyponym, *daruje bihuʃi* (which literally translates into: *drug of anesthetic)* (anesthetic drug). *Drug* in its real meaning seems to be taboo based on the ideology of TT1.

Most changes in lexical items seem ideologically driven, such as *Rum* which was retained in TT1 but was reworded in TT2 to *mæhmuleje geranqejmæt* (which translates into: *precious cargo)*, or

the word *drunk* was retained the same in TT1 but was reworded to *dari xab mibini* (which literally translates into: *you are dreaming*) (are you dreaming?) in TT2. Also words such as *Champagne, Whiskey, drink, and wine* were kept in TT1 while reworded to *aab, nuʃidæni, limunad, nuʃabe*

3.1.3. What ideologically significant meaning relations (hyponym, synonym andantonym) are there between words?

Example: ST. *King of Chicago!*

TT1. r*æ'is dozdaje ʃikago* (which literally translates *the boss of the robbers of Chicago)*(the head of Chicago's robbers)

TT2. *ʃejtane ʃikago* (which translates into: *the devil of Chicago*)

Al Capon, a great gangster in "Tintin in America" was named *King of Chicago* in ST. There it had a totally positive connotation. In TT2 instead of King, it was changed to its near antonym which was translated to *ʃeytan* (which translates into: *devil*) to be evaluated more negative, however in TT1, it also has a bit negative meaning by rendering it to the *ræ'is dozda* (which translates into: *head of therobbers*) which is its hyponym.

3.1.4 Are there euphemistic expressions?

The data concerning Euphemism in the translations

Euphemism			
ST		**TT1**	**TT2**
1	Drug	مواد مخدر	داروی بیهوشی
2	Rum	بورش	محمول گرانقیمت
3	Pisco	بورش	نوشیدنی نشاط آور
4	Brandy	کنهاک	آب خنک
5	Paleface	رنگ پریده	سفیدپوست
6	Great Snake!	سکار	خدای بزرگ
7	Whisky	ویسکی	دانه هور ل گنان آب
8	Wine	شراب	آب
9	get drunk	بدمستی	نوشیدنی خوردن
1	Great snake	راک س/ای داهیداد	خدای بزرگ

3.1.5 Are there markedly formal or informal words?

Example: ST. *Captain will you disarm that Indian.*

TT1. *Kæpitan ævæl æslæhe ino begir*(which literally translates into: *captain first weapon of this take*) (captain first take his weapon)

TT2. n*axoda, momkene un sorxpust ro xal'e selah koni*(which literally translates into: *captain, possible is that redskin dispossession of weapon make*) (captain, may you disarm that Indian)

In the first version, the word *Indian* was eliminated and the whole sentence seems more informal than TT2. TT2 tries to be more polite and formal.

Example: ST. *I've done a good many things in my time.*

TT1. *tu in zendegi hame dʒur ghælæti kærde budæm.* (which translates into: *in this life so many varieties of mistakes have done I*) (I have done so many wrong things in this life)

TT2. *Mæn dær tule omræm karhaje ædʒibo ghæribe ziadi ændʒam dadæm.* (Which translates into: *I in during life of me jobs of unusual and strange many did I)* (I did so many unusual things during my life)

TT2 is more formal and polite as it seems to be written just for children. Further, *a good many thing* was translated into *hame dʒur ghalati* (which literally translates into: *all variety of mistakes*) (so many wrong things) in TT1 which has more negative connotation than TT1 and ST.

3.2. Grammatical Analysis

Regarding the grammar in this research, the following questions were attempted:

• What are the grammatical differences between translations of Tintin comics before and after the Islamic Revolution?

• Are such differences ideologically-driven as suggested by CDA proponents?

Fairclough (1989: 110-2) suggested a list of possible areas that could be examined according to the grammatical points; among those areas, some were found to be more marked in this research which are as follows:

3.2.1. Are sentences active or passive?

Example: ST. *He is obviously been drugged.*

TT1.*hætmæn beheʃ mævade moxæder dadæn.*(which literally translates into: *surely to him substances narcotic gave they)*(surely they gave him drugs)

TT2. *beheʃ daruje bihuʃi xorandæn*!(which literally translates into: *to him drug anesthetic fed they*)(they fed the anesthetic drug to him)

Seemingly *drug* is a taboo in TT2 so it was translated to *daruje bihuʃi* (which literally translates into: *anesthetic drug*). Also both sentences were changed to active sentences to emphasize the agency of the action.

Example: ST. *He was kidnapped by the Indian.*

TT1. *Sorxpustha dozdidæneʃ.* (which translates into: *redskins kidnapped him*)

TT2.*be dæste sorxpustha dozdide ʃod*(which literally translates into: *with the hand of redskins was kidnapped*)(he was kidnapped by Indians)

ST is passive but it was rendered to active sentences to stress the agency of the Indian in kidnapping. Maybe this shows the negative view toward Indian in TT1 but in TT2, it was translated to passive sentence like the original. It seems TT2 translator shared the same ideas with ST translator.

Example: ST. *His life is protected by the talisman*.

TT1. *In telesm hamije ust*.(which literally translates into: *this Talisman supporter of him is*)(this Talisman is his supporter)

TT2. Ø

The ST is passive but seemingly, it was changed to active sentence to emphasize the importance of talisman in the life. In TT2 there is no translation. It appears that TT2 translators didn't believe in Talisman or didn't want to disseminate the idea of Telisman's protecting of life among readers.

3.2.2. What modes are used (declarative, question, imperative)?

Example: ST. *Haven't you redskins ever seen one before?*

TT1. *Milo xodeʃo qati sægaje sorxpust nemikone.*(which literally translates into: *Milou itself mingle with dogs of redskins do not*) (Milou do not mingle with Indian dogs)

TT2. *tʃeqædr qæʃængtær æz unam.*(which translates into: *how prettier than them Iam)*

What modes are used? As Fairclough believes (1995) asking, be it for action or information, is generally a position of power. In the above example Snowy is in the position of power in comparison with the Indian dogs as an addressee. By using the words *you redskin* the writer wanted to emphasize the humble situation of these dogs. In both translations, the question was rendered to declarative. In TT2 the *Indians* was omitted and rendered to *tʃeqædr qæʃængtær æz unam.* (which translates into: *how prettier than them I am)*, but in TT1 the question was changed to declarative sentence which had even more negative connotation than the source text and wanted to show the priority of white skins over redskins.

Example: ST. *I think I'll just have a quite drink if you don't mind*

TT1. *Ægær ejbi nædare delæm mixad jek botr viski sær bekeʃam.*(which literally translates into: *if wrong do not have, heart of me wants one bottle of whiskey drink*)(if it doesn't matter I want to drink one bottle of whiskey)

TT2.*mitunim dær kæmale arameʃ æge majel baʃi bahæm jek nuʃidæni meil konim.*(which translates into: *we can in the peak of calm if interested be you with eachother a beverage drink*)(if you wish we can drink a beverage with the greatest calm)

The original version is in the declarative mode. Also both translations are in declarative mode. The modal verb *will* here means that *captain is willing to drink*. This was produced the same in TT1 while in TT2 it was rendered to a request using *mitunim* (which translates into: *can*) instead of *will*; therefore; it is more polite and formal than TT1. Also the word *whisky* as a taboo word was omitted inTT2.

Example: ST. *Someone here just mentioned whisky.*

TT1. *Ki daʃt æz viski sohbæt mikærd?*(which literally translates into: *who had from wiskey was speaking)*(who was talking about wiskey?)

TT2. *ki bud be mæn tohin kærd?*(which literally translates into: *who was to meinsultation do?*)(who insulted me?)

ST is in declarative mode, while both translations are in question mode.

Apparently, it was rendered to question to emphasize the power of the speaker andin TT2 the whole meaning was changed. On the face of it, that is a deliberate mistranslation to eliminate the taboo word which is *whisky*.

3.3. Visual Analysis

With regard to the visual aspects in this research, here come the following questions:

• What are the visual differences between translations of Tintin comics before and after the Islamic Revolution?

• Are such differences ideologically-driven as suggested by CDA proponents?

Here come some visual samples from Tintin comics which seem ideologically changed:

Example1: In ST image the bottle of rum is black and the color of drink is orange. There was no change in TT1 while in TT2; the bottle was changed to white which was more like a bottle of water. Drinking alcoholic drink is forbidden and it is in contrast with ideology of Islam. Therefore it was rendered and censored in the picture as well as words.

Example2: Again snowy, the dug is drunk and suffered from double vision. The two bottles of wine were rendered to one bottle of water in TT2 and therefore the whole idea of the picture was changed.

Example3: As Herge is anti-American, he wishes to show the corrupt society of America. Here a sheriff is drunk and sleeping under the signboard which warns people that they will be sent to a prison if they are found in a drunken state. This statement is announced by the sheriff. This idea was retained in TT1, while in TT2 it was totally changed not to show the taboo word of "drunken". Therefore the whole idea of the source text is devastated.

Example4: In TT1 there was no change while in TT2 women are covered up with long sleeves and collared and high-collared clothes instead of the collarless or open-collared ones to conform to the ideology of the Islamic Revolution.

Example5: In the two other samples, while the original version is in French and TT1 was the translation from the original, the people in the TT1 are black while in TT2 which is a translation from the English version, they are white. In English translation, they remove in three cases blacks from this narrative. They objected to the placing of blacks alongside whites in a story.

4. Conclusion

Critical Discourse Analysis provides researchers and translators with useful tools to investigate translations. This research used CDA to analyze the changes in translated texts and to indicate that these changes can be sometimes the ideological deviation with regard to the source texts.

In this research, as we see, there were lexical, grammatical and visual differences between translations of Tintin comics before and after the Islamic Revolution, although, in most cases, the differences were lexical and visual.

Lexical data revealed that lexical choices in these books were governed by the constraints having their roots in socio-cultural values. TT2 seems to be deliberately more formal, euphemistic, and polite than TT1. In contrast, TT1 seems to have tried to remain the same as the ST, if not making it even more informal, impolite than the ST author himself. The way TT2 chose to handle the passage, containing rewording of some words which seems taboo phrases such as alcoholic drink, might be directly linked to the conservative and spiritual ideologies prevailing in Iranian society after the Islamic Revolution. Haddock is a hard drinker, particularly fond of whiskey, and his bouts of drunkenness are often used for comic effect. When you change Captain Haddock's drinks to *lemonade* or *soda*, you're manipulating and modifying the essence of Captain's character, and this leaves a huge impact on the story. Imagine Captain Haddock drinking *lemonade* all the time instead of *whisky*. So it seems that the change in lexical items changed the ideology of the

texts. The researcher found only few examples of grammatical differences between translated texts in comparison with their source text. Among grammatical examples, those which were related to agency as well as active and passive transformation were found more ideological than others. Seemingly, both TTs were preferred to be active and wanted the agent to be clear, although there are some examples in TT1 and TT2 with passive transformation.

As seen, by changing the image, the balance between word and image was lost in these books. Most of these changes were related to covering up women with long sleeves and high-collared clothes or rendering alcoholic drinks to soda, lemonade, water and so on, these changes seem to be more included in Islamic ideology of Iran after Revolution.

As it was mentioned earlier, it appears that the first versions published before the Islamic Revolution were directed to adult readership (more like the original French) with so many political and ideological points while the second versions after the Islamic Revolution were directed to children readership. Therefore there were made some changes after Revolution in text to accord them to children's age. Looking at the history of Iranian socio-cultural life before and after the Islamic Revolution, we see that the most influential ideologies which could exert constraints on translation were conservative, spiritual, Islamic, social and ethical values, violation of which would result in social sanctions. For example alcoholic drinks are considered as a taboo in Iran but it was less of a taboo in the earlier years.

The detailed analysis of the books under examination showed that there were different presentations of ideology in the translated texts, mainly after the Islamic Revolution. Therefore this research proved that some differences were ideologically driven. However the representations of ideology in these texts were limited to religious, ethical, and a bit political issues.

The way the translator of TT1 chose to handle the passage included some negative remarks about some religious figures, might be directly linked to the non-religious and freer ideologies prevailing in Iranian society before the Islamic Revolution. Today, while religion especially Islam, is highly respected in Iranian society and culture, there are some constraints imposed on translations in respect of the Islamic ideology. We may assume that theTT1 most probably had no reason to worry about ethical prejudices, and censorship. The possible reasons for these differences, could be the pressure not to move against the objectives of clients (mostly publishing houses or government institutions), fear of exposure to governmental censorship due to the concept

of immorality in children's book (as these comics were directed to children'scomics to hide the ideology behind them), personal ideologies, or the taste of the own translator.

Based on the above mentioned argumentation, it can be argued that both original and translated literatures are inevitably governed by the social and cultural institutions particularly the society in which they were produced.

Notes: Also it must be mentioned that the *Universal* translations was from the French original and *Rayehe-Andishe* translation was from English translation of the original version. Therefore, most names in *Rayehe-Andishe* Publications were different from the *Universal* version, e.g. in English version all names were changed to domesticate in English and as Farsi new version is from English, so names are like their English version. For example in old version and original version, the name of the dog was میلو(*Milou*in French). But in the English and new version; it was برفی(snowy).

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Title

Formative Assessment in the EFL Context of Kermanshah: High Schools Teachers' Familiarity and Application

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Abstract

Formative assessment in language teaching classes is gaining significance as one tool for successful teaching. For the teachers, administers, district managers, policy makers, and all those who lend a hand with the learning/teaching process, formative assessment can act as key factor in determining their exact whereabouts, and specifying where to go in the process .The debatable issue, however, is whether English langue teachers , as the key role players of the learning-teaching process, in the formal high schools of Kermanshah district are familiar with and employ realized-as-the-most-significant assessment techniques(questioning, feedback without grades, self-assessment, peer-assessment, and formative use of summative assessment) by Black and colleagues (2004)in their teaching act. With reference to such debate, the present study aimed at eliciting the extent of familiarity and employment of five assessment techniques from high school teachers in the formal context of education in Kermanshah district. To this end, two questionnaires, one open-ended and one 20-item Likert scale was distributed among 200 high school teachers(100 male and 100 female) in Kermanshah province. The results of statistical survey manifested that, despite highly positive perception and evaluation of the five assessment

techniques, high school teachers in Kermanshah province employed just questioning technique in their classes significantly, with the four other techniques remained unemployed to a great extent.

Keywords: Formative Assessment, EFL Context, High Schools, Assessment Techniques

1.Introduction

Assessment , in general, is a key factor which can make teachers, administers, district managers, and policy makers realize where they are with regard to their professional progress, where to go, and how to reformulate and renovate their own specialized tasks. In education, in particular, assessment is one key component which , if applied precisely and concisely, can be of priority in the field of professional pedagogy as students need to know what their abilities are, how much progress they are making and what they can (or cannot yet) do with the skills they have acquired. Obviously, without such knowledge, it would not be easy for them to learn effectively and efficiently.

Regarding the interval between assessment phases, and the kinds of decisions and purposes wanted from, assessment has been classified into three tiers: summative, interim, and formative. Summative assessments are synonymous with high-stakes, one-time tests most often associated with accountability at the school, district, or state levels, and typically are used to measure mastery of a set of prescribed standards or content as a part of accountability system or to inform policy (Perie et al., 2007). Interim assessments, commonly known as medium-cycled assessment, fall between summative and formative assessments and are given multiple times during the year. The results of interim assessments are used for both teacher-learner diagnosis of learning development and pinpointing whether the standards are reached in a timely fashion. Formative assessments, in contrast to the two mentioned ones, is the most instructionally sensitive type of assessment which is considered as an ongoing process or activity. According to Prier et al. (2007), it is embedded within the instructional activity and directly linked to the classroom teaching-learning activities. It has been defined as "making instructional adjustments based on feedback about student performance" (Popham, 2005, P.62), "tools to monitor student progress during learning" (Earl,2003,P.83), "qualifying any set of activities or tools as- "formative"- when information is used to inform or adapt instruction" (Black & William,1998,p.10) . In fact, various definitions of

the term formative assessment sometimes evoke a range of perspectives among teachers, school principals, and district leaders.

Formative assessment has been shown to be highly effective in raising the level of student attainment, thereby increasing the equity of student's outcomes, and improving the student's ability to learn. Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshal, and William (2004) have identified the significant formative assessment strategies as questioning techniques, feedback without grades, peer assessment, self-assessment, and formative use of summative assessment, the strategies which are going to be focused in the present study with regard to both their familiarity and application on part of EFL teachers teaching in Kermanshah high schools.

2-Literature Review

Literature on the effect of assessment in general and formative assessment in particular is not new. However, in recent years, research has highlighted the importance of different kinds of assessment – summative, interim, and formative- on desirable achievement of the learners (Earl, 2003; Harlan, 2007; Stiggins, 2002, & Volante, 2010, among others). In particular, four large reviews on formative assessment (Black & William,1998; Crooks, 1998; Kluger & De Nisi, 1996; Natrielo, 1987) are among the outstanding works that support the claim that using formative strategies such as questioning techniques, feedback without grades, self-assessment, peer-assessment, and formative use of summative assessment can significantly influence the rate of learning in a positive way. More importantly, the research findings by Black et al. (2004) that formative assessment can reduce the gap between high-and low-achievers by helping low-achievers is a finding which can be of high significance if it is looked into more deeply.

In the context of Iran, some work has been done around the current topic. Moradan and Hedayati (2011) investigated the impact of portfolios and conferencing as two versions of formative assessment on writing skills of Iranian EFL learners and found that these two types of assessment were more significant than traditional assessment techniques. Javaherbaksh (2010) found that self-assessment had a significant effect on writing ability of Iranian EFL learners. Hayatdavoudi and Nejad Ansari (2011) found that formative assessment is not only an assessment tool but it also serves as pedagogic tool to improve thinking and learning. However, no research, to the researchers' knowledge, has been conducted on the EFL teacher's extent of familiarity on

those five techniques or their application in the High school EFL contexts, thereby necessitating conducting of the present research.

3. Purpose of the Study

As stated by Brown (2004), teacher's perspective of assessment is important because evidence suggests that teacher's perception of teaching and learning strongly influences what the students learn and achieve. To this end, the researcher is interested in, first, eliciting the types of assessment strategies that are most famous and are of high frequency of application among Kermanshah province high school EFL teachers, and, second, measuring and evaluating perception of high school EFL teachers in formal context of education in Kermanshah Province regarding the five most effective assessment strategies put forward by Black and colleagues (2004).

Based on the purpose of the study, the following two questions will be answered in the planned study:

a- What kind of formative assessment strategies Kermanshah high school EFL teachers apply in their classes?

b- To what extent Kermanshah high school EFL teachers perceive and positively evaluate formative assessment strategies?

4. The Significance of the Study

The introduction of formative assessment into Formal Iranian Context of Education has been around for more than a decade. It has been so highlighted that a significant portion (about one-third)of the requirement for pass mark in standard high-stakes tests depends on the total assessment the instructor considers for the year-long formative performance of the students. Yet, awareness regarding assessment techniques and strategies which seems to be raised as vital in pre-service, in-service, and developmental programs in developed countries lags behind in the teacher evaluation and improvement programs in formal instructional context of Iran. Besides, in Kermanshah province, failure in formal educational EFL courses has been a point of debate for at least a decade. In fact, it has been so sensitive that it has been one of the topics of research plans calling for investigators to work on from the part of Kermanshah Education and Research authorities and experts. So, with so much emphasis on formative assessment in the formal educational context of Iran, and with that lagging behind in the outcome of English EFL courses

in the educational context of high schools in Kermanshah province , the conduction of the present research gains its own significance.

5. Methodology

5.1. Participants

Participants of the present study consist of 200 high school female and male English teachers, 100 of each sex, all over Kermanshah province. They were selected randomly and through classified sampling strategies from different high schools of Kermanshah province and its related cities. Care was taken to involve teachers from different types of schools on the basis of random selection so that the participants be representative of all kinds of schools like schools for the genius, schools affiliated to Kermanshah state and Azad university, technical high schools, and schools in suburbs. The academic degree of the participants included BA and MA in TEFL, Linguistics, English Literature, and English translation, mostly with BA in teaching.

5.2. Design and the instrument

Since the researchers wanted to find out those kinds of assessment strategies applied by high school EFL teachers in the formal context of education, and also find out the degree of familiarity of the high school teachers with five key formative assessment techniques by means of a questionnaire, the design of the research is survey.

The data collection instrument consisted of an open-ended questionnaire eliciting the reaction of the teachers on the assessment strategies they employ in their year-long assessment cycle to see what kind of assessment strategies they apply most in their classes, and also , the degree of homogeneity or heterogeneity in their application of formative assessment strategies. The open-ended question asked" What formative assessment techniques do you as an English teacher use to assess the student's learning?"

Next, a questionnaire containing 20 questions related to five assessment strategies, four questions for each, but not necessarily in order, were given to the teachers to gain insight to the extent of their perception and evaluation of the five proved-to-be most effective assessment strategies in the classroom.

6. Data Collection and Analysis

After collecting the data through the designed questionnaires, frequency and percentage for all the responses were computed.

For the open-ended question eliciting the type of the techniques English teachers apply in high school classes in Kermanshah Province to assess students' attainment, the following frequency and percentage was tabulated.

Table 1: Frequency and percentage of formative assessment techniques applied in formal English classes in Kermanshah high schools

Type of Assesment	Questioning	Feedback Without grades	Peer Assessment	Self Assessment	Formative Use of summative Assessment	Summarizing
Frequency	124	14	32	12	24	7
Percentage	64.0	7.0	16.0	6.0	12.0	3.5.0

As the table one shows, majority of high school teachers, 64 percent, in Kermanshah district employ questioning, one of the five major assessment techniques put forward in the study. With regard to the other four assessment techniques, however, the percentage that seems to employ them is rare. 7 percent employ techniques related to feedback without grades, 16 percent employ peer-assessment techniques, 6 percent employ self-assessment techniques and 12 percent apply techniques related to formative use of summative assessment. Other than the five put-forward techniques, 3.5 percent of the participants use summarizing techniques most often in their classes. Overall, it seems that, as far as application of assessment techniques in Kermanshah high schools is concerned, many of the teachers apply questioning techniques in their classes. But, with regard to the other four assessment types namely feedback without grades, peer assessment, self-assessment, and formative use of summative assessment, the teachers , according to their opinions elicited through the open-ended questionnaire, do not use them in their teaching classes.

Next , the data related to the next question put forward " To what extent Kermanshah high school EFL teachers perceive and positively evaluate   formative assessment strategies? " is going to be tabulated for the frequency and percentage of evaluation that the participating teachers have given to it. With regard to the first assessment technique, questioning technique, the following data was collected based on the questionnaire.

Table 2: Frequency and percentage of the data for items related to questioning techniques

		Fully agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Fully disagree
Item 1	Frequency	98	102	0	0	0
	Percentage	49.0	51.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Item 2	Frequency	136	60	0	0	4
	Percentage	68.0	30.0	0.0	0.0	2.0
Item 3	Frequency	116	80	2	2	0
	Percentage	58.0	40.0	1.0	1.0	0.0
Item 4	Frequency	94	96	2	6	2
	Percentage	47.0	48.0	1.0	3.0	2.0
Total	Frequency	444	338	4	8	6
	Percentage	55.5	42.25	0.5	1.0	0.75

As the data in table two shows, the great majority of the participants are for the questioning technique, which is in line with the data collected by the open-ended questionnaire. 55.5 percent of strong agreement and 42.25 percent of agreement (totally 97.75 percent)is a proof to the fact.

Next formative assessment technique that is going to be dealt with is feedback without grades assessment technique. The data for this technique is manifested in the following table:

Table 3: Frequency and percentage of the data for items related to feedback without grades assessment techniques

		Fully agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Fully disagree
Item 1	Frequency	30	78	58	30	4
	Percentage	15.0	39.0	29.0	15.0	2.0
Item 2	Frequency	20	124	14	36	6
	Percentage	10.0	62.0	7.0	18.0	3.0
Item 3	Frequency	28	46	16	60	50
	Percentage	14.0	23.0	8.0	30.0	25.0
Item 4	Frequency	48	80	28	34	10
	Percentage	24.0	40.0	14.0	17.0	5.0
Total	Frequency	126	328	116	160	70
	Percentage	15.75	41	14.5	20	8.75

With regard to feedback without grades assessment technique, 15.75 percent fully agreed with the idea, 41 percent agreed, 14.5 percent had no ideas, 20 percent disagreed, and 8.75 percent fully disagreed. For the present assessment technique, 55.5 percent of full agreement and disagreement versus 34.5 percent of full disagreement and disagreement, as a whole, is a clear indication of the fact that EFL teachers in formal context of high schools in Kermanshah district positively perceive and evaluate feedback without grades assessment techniques despite the fact that , according to their opinions from the open-ended questionnaire , only 7.0 percent of the participants employed the related techniques in their classes, the point which requires much consideration and thought.

For the next significant formative assessment technique, peer assessment, the data collected is given in the following table:

Table 4: Frequency and percentage of the data for items related to peer -assessment techniques

		Fully agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Fully disagree
Item 1	Frequency	48	86	18	40	8
	Percentage	24.0	43.0	9.0	20.0	4.0
Item 2	Frequency	36	62	48	48	6
	Percentage	18.0	31.0	24.0	24.0	3.0
Item 3	Frequency	40	118	32	8	2
	Percentage	20.0	59.0	16.0	4.0	1.0
Item 4	Frequency	48	54	30	66	2
	Percentage	24.0	27.0	15.0	33.0	1.0
Total	Frequency	172	320	128	162	18
	Percentage	21.5	40.0	16.0	20.25	2.25

With regard to peer assessment techniques, 21.5 percent fully agreed with the idea, 40 percent agreed, 16 percent had no ideas, 20.25 percent disagreed, and the remaining 2.25 percent fully disagreed. As the opinion data in table 4 shows, the same as questioning and feedback without grades, the English teachers in formal context of high schools in Kermanshah province positively perceive and evaluate peer assessment techniques. 61.5 percent of full agreement and agreement versus 36.25 percent of disagreement and full disagreement, as a whole, is a clear indication of the fact that high school teachers in formal context of Kermanshah province high schools, to a significant extent, are in line with peer assessment techniques in their classes in theory. However,

according to their opinions from the open-ended questionnaire, only 16 percent of the participating English teachers in Kermanshah district, in practice, employed the related techniques in their classes, the point which requires more investment and full consideration.

For the next significant formative assessment technique, self-assessment, the data is tabulated in the following table:

Table 5: Frequency and percentage of the data for items related to self-assessment techniques

		Fully agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Fully disagree
Item 1	Frequency	34	84	14	54	14
	Percentage	17.0	42.0	7.0	27.0	7.0
Item 2	Frequency	58	114	18	8	2
	Percentage	29.0	57.0	9.0	4.0	1.0
Item 3	Frequency	40	88	38	32	2
	Percentage	20.0	44.0	19.0	16.0	1.0
Item 4	Frequency	54	96	22	24	4
	Percentage	27.0	48.0	11.0	12.0	2.0
Total	Frequency	186	382	92	118	22
	Percentage	23.25	47.75	11.5	14.75	2.75

With regard to self-assessment techniques, 23.25 percent fully agreed with the idea, 47.75 percent agreed, 11.5 percent had no ideas, 14.75 percent disagreed, and the remaining 2.75 percent fully disagreed. As the opinion data in table 5 manifests, the same as questioning, feedback without grades, and peer assessment, the English teachers in formal context of high schools in Kermanshah province positively perceive and evaluate self-assessment techniques. 71 percent of full agreement and agreement versus 17.5 percent of disagreement and strong disagreement, as a whole, is an absolute indication of the fact that high school teachers in formal context of Kermanshah district high schools, to a significant extent, are in favor of self-assessment techniques in their classes in theory. But, in practice, as the elicited data from the open-ended questionnaire show, only 6 percent of the participating teachers used self-assessment techniques in their classes, the point which needs full consideration and logical attention.

Next, the data for formative use of summative assessment comes in.

Table 6: Frequency and percentage of the data for items related to formative use of summative assessment techniques

		Fully agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Fully disagree
Item 1	Frequency	116	80	0	4	0
	Percentage	58.0	40.0	0.0	2.0	0.0
Item 2	Frequency	70	84	26	20	0
	Percentage	35.0	42.0	13.0	10.0	0.0
Item 3	Frequency	56	48	28	56	12
	Percentage	28.0	24.0	14.0	28.0	6.0
Item 4	Frequency	52	116	16	10	6
	Percentage	26.0	58.0	8.0	5.0	3.0
Total	Frequency	294	328	70	90	18
	Percentage	36.75	41	8.75	11.25	2.25

With regard to formative use of summative assessment techniques, 36.75 percent fully agreed with the idea, 41 percent agreed, 8.75 percent had no ideas, 11.25 percent disagreed, and the remaining 2.25 percent fully disagreed. As the opinion data in table 5 manifests, the same as the previously-mentioned four assessment types, the English teachers in formal context of high schools in Kermanshah province much positively perceive and evaluate formative use of summative assessment technique types. In fact, 77.75 percent of full agreement and agreement versus 13.5 percent of disagreement and strong disagreement is an absolute indication of the fact that high school teachers in formal context of Kermanshah district high schools, to a highly remarkable degree, are in favor of formative use of summative assessment techniques in their classes. However, in practice, as the elicited data from the open-ended questionnaire shows, only 12 percent of the participating teachers used formative use of assessment technique types in their classes, the point which is hotly debatable and requires full consideration.

7. Discussion

The data elicited by both the open-ended questionnaire and Liker-scale opinion seeking questionnaire gave out debatable points. Regarding the open-ended questionnaire, great majority of the participating high school teachers, 64 percent employed questioning as one of the five significant formative assessment techniques in their classes. The other four formative assessment

techniques were rated very poorly with 7 percent for feedback without grades, 16 percent for peer assessment, 12 percent for self-assessment, and 12 percent for formative use of summative assessment techniques. Meanwhile, 3.5 percent of the participants believed in summarizing as a good formative assessment technique.

As for the opinion seeking, the 20-item questionnaire, the following data were elicited. For the questioning technique, 97.75 percent of the participating teachers positively valued and perceived the use of the technique in their classes. Moreover, great majority of the participants, according to the open-ended questionnaire, 64 percent used the technique in their classes. For the second formative assessment technique, feedback without grades, 56.75 percent of the participants had a positive perception towards the technique which is a promising percent. However, 14.5 percent were neutral and 28.75 percent were in disagreement with regard to the technique. In viewpoint of practical use of the technique, however, only 7 percent of the participants claimed that they employed it in their class which is not promising at all.

When it comes to the third formative assessment technique, peer assessment, 61.5 percent of agreement and full agreement with the assumption is a good sign of its being positive. 22.5 percent of participants declined it as a good technique and the remaining 16 percent expressed no idea with regard to it. Interestingly, just 16 percent of the participants, according to the open-ended questionnaire claimed that they applied it in their classes.

For the third formative assessment technique, self-assessment, 23.25 percent of full agreement and 47.75 percent of agreement (71 percent in totality) leaves no room for doubt the ELT teachers in the formal context of Kermanshah high schools enthusiastically embrace such an assessment technique as something valuable. 17.5 percent of non-agreement and 11.5 percent of indifference to the assumption is not something significant enough to be concerned with. Amazingly, with regard to the open-ended questionnaire, only 6 percent of the participating ELT teaches claimed that they employed such techniques in their classes, the point which, for sure, taps the curiosity of those who lend a hand with curriculum development, and teacher pre-service and in-service education in Iran. As for the last question on significant formative assessment techniques, the data seems suggestive, too. 36.75 Of full agreement and 41 percent of agreement (77.75 altogether) makes it crystal clear that the ELT participating teachers much highly positively perceive and evaluate the assumption of formative use of summative assessment in their classes. 13.5 percent of non-agreement and 8.75 percent of neutrality on the issue is not of enough

significance to manure on. Interestingly, only 12 percent of the participants, according to the open-ended questionnaire, employed the technique in their classes.

8. Conclusion

From the participants' responses to the questionnaires ,one can safely claim that the ELT teachers in the formal context of education in Kermanshah district , in fact, highly perceive and very positively evaluate the employment of five significant formative assessment techniques put forward by Black and colleagues (2004). However, the results of the open-ended questionnaire shows that , except from questioning technique which was claimed to be used by the majority of the teachers, the practical employment of the other four techniques , feedback without grades, peer assessment, self-assessment, and formative use of summative assessment, despite being perceived and evaluated positively to a high extent, is not regarded. For the question one of the study, besides the five significant formative assessment techniques put forward by Black and colleagues (2004), summarizing was, also, referred to as a formative assessment technique but just by 3.5 percent of the participants.

To make the significant formative assessment techniques of Black and colleagues (200) practical in the formal context of education in Kermanshah district, the findings of the present study inspire a number of suggestions. First, now that the majority of ELT teachers in the formal context of education in Kermanshah province do not employ all various formative assessment techniques in their classes, much more positive look into the assessment and evaluation techniques in pre-service and in-service training programs is required. In the overall context of formal education in Iran, a lot of attention has been given to formative assessment, despite the fact that enough pre-service or in-service training is not provided in this regard. This could apply to the assessment as a whole in the Iranian educational context since, due to centralized programs of education, the employment of present research countrywide might give the same results. Second, curriculum planners are deemed responsible for not providing required grounds for assessment according to international standards, something which calls for much deeper investigation.

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Title

The Iranian ways of courtesy

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Abstract

Taarof is a Persian word meaning 'courtesies, polite formulas and expressions'. As Persian society is a very politeness-conscious one (and loquacious, too), the Persian language is exceptionally rich in polite, formal ways of saying things. Without knowing them it is virtually impossible to survive in the Iranian society. This paper will define " politeness" and discuss the " politeness" model from the viewpoint of Brown and Levinson (1987). This will be followed by an introduction to the history of Taarof in Persian. In the next stage of the paper, the writer will present different etiquettes and customs in Iran. Finally, the Persian expressions for courtesy or politeness are written in their literary forms. Some of the expressions may seem poetic, or perhaps even baroque, be sure though that in Persian they sound perfectly natural. Be also warned, that often they are almost deprived of meaning and used just rhetorically. Pronunciation of these forms follows in [square brackets]. The /slants/ is used to mark colloquial Tehrani pronunciation when applicable (i.e. when it differs from the literary standard). Following the pronunciations you will find literal translation, then, if needed, an explanation of what is meant and usage notes which tell you what is meant for real. Yes, a bit complicated, but do get used to it, Persian is like that.

Keywords: Iranian, Taarof, Politeness, Ways of courtesy, Social, Etiquette

1. Introduction

"Politeness" is a communicative strategy used in all cultures in daily conversation. From the standpoint of Goffman (Brown and Levinson 1987) politeness is a tool employed to neutralize probable confrontation between two communicating parties. In their definition of politeness,

Brown and Levinson (1987) point at the notion of "face," hypothesized for the first time by Goffman. "Face" has been defined as an individual's self-esteem or the image that a person projects of himself/herself to the world. Therefore, according to this definition, "face" has two types: a positive and a negative one. Positive face means being reaffirmed and receiving encouragement, whereas negative face denotes not being subjected to restriction or compulsion.

In their communications with others, people generally try to avoid deeds or statements that might endanger an addressee's face. That, in turn, would serve to protect the addresser's own face. It is along this line that a speaker tries to employ positive or negative politeness. A speaker would be addressing the positive face of a hearer with positive politeness and the negative face of a hearer with negative politeness. In positive politeness a speaker resorts to such strategies as calling attention to common ideas and common problems or expressing interest in similar activities and topics so as to save addressee's positive face. In negative politeness, on the other hand, the speaker tries to maintain the addressee's negative face by employing such strategies as expressing unawareness about the addressee's desires, making indirect statements, expressing indebtedness to the addressee, and vowing to make up for that as well as lowering himself/herself and elevating the addressee. This mode of saving an addressee's negative face is done generally through the application of suitable expressions to the addressee and the addresser himself/herself Of course, it must be borne in mind that, as Levinson and Brown believe, the dependence of these methods or strategies on each of the two kinds of politeness is a matter very relative in nature, and that even one strategy can exist in either of the two kinds of politeness.

Additionally, either of the two kinds of politeness strategies can show different manifestations in various cultures. On the other hand, Brown and Levinson (1987) point out the fact that politeness strategies can in general be divided into two categories: direct and indirect. Words or expressions used in direct strategies can have only one meaning, whereas those used in indirect strategies are likely to have more than one meaning. In Brown and Levinson's model, three factors have been mentioned that determine the face-threatening act and its level of politeness:

1. The social distance between the addresser and the addressee;

2. The level of the addresser and the addressee's perceived power;

3. The degree of the demand's importance or imposition (Brown and Levinson 1987).

In his study of the Persian language and the application of ta'arof in it, William Beeman (1986) makes reference to two factors: the level of sincerity and the social status of the conversing parties. Beeman's two elements resemble very closely Brown and Levinson's first two of the three factors cited above. Considering these presuppositions, an attempt has been made in this paper to gather and list Persian verbal etiquette and some polite formulas and expressions in Persian language.

1.1. A brief history of taarof

In the Dehkhoda Persian Dictionary (1966), the word Taarof is defined as kind welcoming, praising, and presenting. William Beeman (1986) refers to Taarof as the language of politeness and praise in Persian. As Beeman holds, the root of the notion of Taarof in Persian goes back to the pre-Islamic era. In the Zoroastrian religion the application of kind words and expressions is regarded as one of the most basic principles of the religion. The importance of the use of kind expressions in the Zoroastrianism has been underscored in a book called Ardavirof-nameh and severe punishment is sworn to await those who do not use it (Bahar 1997). In the opinion of Katayoun Mazdapour (personal communication 1997) politeness in the Persian language is rooted in praising in Zoroastrianism. In the literature in the Pahlavi language, we run into a creator called "Dahman-afarin" or "Dahma-fariti," which means `kind prayer said by the pious man'. This creator (Dahman-afarin) is one of the disciples of "Shahrivar," an archangel and one of the principal manifestations of "Hormuzd" or the Zoroastrians' supreme creative deity "Ahura Mazda." Dahman-afarin along with a number of other creators fights evil to uphold the heavens.

We read in the Avesta, the collection of sacred Zoroastrian writing, that "to the delight of Dahman-afarin, praising, worshipping, pleasing and applauding the good is tantamount to enmity with the evil" (Doustkhah 1985). In Zoroastrianism, praising and cursing are two opposing words in meaning. Praise is an Ahura word and curse is an Ahriman (manifestation of evil spirit) word, and in Pahlavi literature words are divided into the Ahura and Ahriman categories. Ahura words, coming with a godly halo and generosity, are used for good deeds. For example, the word ``said'' (goft `said' in Persian) is an Ahura word and is used in the phrase "Ahura Mazda said." But, on the other hand, Ahriman words are used to describe evil deeds. For example, the word dar aeedan, which is an infinitive mean- ing `to enter' in Persian, is an Ahriman word that is used to describe evil deeds, as in Ahriman daraaeed, meaning 'the evil spirit entered'. Of course, gradually Ahura

words prevailed and replaced evil words. In other Pahlavi-era literature, such as the Yadgar-e Zarriran [The Remembrance of the Golden Iran], modern-day welcoming, praising, or politeness are used time and again. We see in the Yadgar-e Zarriran that the Prime Minister uses indirect phrases and expressions to address the king. For example, the Prime Minister tells the king, "If he should like to rise ..." instead of "Stand up." Or the verb "sit" in the expression "Please, sit down"(Befarmaeed neshastan) is used in the infinitive form instead of imperative.

Also the application of the second person plural form of the word is used for an addressee in order to elevate him and to imply respect. In still another Pahlavi book, The Rules of Letter Writing, the appli- cation of suitable addressing phrases, though sometimes complicated, is taught, through which the correct level of courtesy is implied (Amouzegar 1997 Personal Communication).

In his description of Taarof in Persian, William Beeman refers to the concept of zaaher 'exterior' and baaten 'interior' in the Iranian lifestyle. In his opinion, baa-ten is the vessel of deep sentiments, values, and spirituality and is held with high esteem. In their inner (baaten) environment (also called andaroun) individuals maintain a relationship abundant in sincerity and equality with close friends and family members, which excludes the need for the language of ta'arof. The world of zaaher `exterior', on the other hand, is the place of material, physical, and outward life. In the exterior, insincere and unequal (from the point of view of status) individuals use the language of ta'arof, or lowering oneself and elevating others. The operation of ta'arof in the Persian language is conducted through the application of personal pronouns and special address expressions as well as a depository of verbs and words with a view to the desired level of politeness (or the third factor in Brown and Levinson's model). In his examination of ta'arof in the Persian language, Beeman regards that as part of the Iranian people's cunning, prevarication, and nepotism. However, in the analysis presented in this paper, there will be an attempt to demonstrate the opposite of what Beeman believes. As mentioned before, Beeman points at such factors as status and the level of sincerity in his defini tion of ta'arof. Status may be defined as the existence of such factors as age (Hillmann 1981; Brown and Levinson 1987), social situation and profession (Beeman 1986), education (Hodge 1958; Hillmann 1981), and wealth (Hodge 1958).

2. How Polite Are Iranians?

One thing about Iranian culture is that it is a culture of politeness. In public Iranians make great displays of helping one another. I have commented on this to several Iranians and had them answer back with scepticism saying 'that is just a show, when you ask them to do anything serious for you they find excuses.' Fine enough, but every culture on this planet has adopted a public stance of socially acceptable behavior which could be called 'hollow' mannerisms, understanding this to be a cultural mannerism we should look at the mannerism on its own merits. For example, I think that this hollow mannerism is a step up from the 'screw you' attitude many other countries' citizens have towards people they don't know (although I do appreciate the inherent opportunities for humor provided by this attitude sometimes). Manifestations of Iranian polite manners are: People greet each other with the maximum verbal respect, even verging on obeisance by making a big show of being at each other's service and putting themselves below the other's feet. This has been come so routine over the centuries that several verbal expressions have developed which people imploy rapidly, often in conjunction with one another. Some examples are:
-Mokhlessim   - 'I'm purely yours'…………………………………………………………….
-Kuchickitam - 'I'm your junior'…………………………………………………………….
-Nokaritam   - 'I'm your servant'…………………………………………………………
-Chakeritim   - 'I'm your man'…………………………………………………………
- Chamanitam - this is a compound expression meaning superficially 'I'm your lawn (to be walked on by you)' but is also an acronym standing for CHakeritim, Mokhlessim, Nokaritam from the above. Coming in or out of buildings, public or private spaces random people will greet you warmly and shake your hand (Iranians do this with each other; it is not some special treatment for foreigners). People in Iran are less likely to stare at you than other countries (even if you are the strangest sight they have ever laid eyes on). It is very important to not make people uncomfortable and just mentioning the word 'narawhatee' (meaning discomfort) will send anyone marching away apologetically. People always say 'be my guest' or 'its nothing' when you ask the price of something and refuse payment several times and sometimes never accept payment. People in Iran always offer you some of what they are having even if it is inconceivable that you would have some (like if a post office teller behind

the counter is about to have a sip of his tea etc). This particular manner can also be seen in Spain. Iranians are incredibly hospitable and will invite you to their house to eat dinner or have tea at the slightest pretext. If you just know the name of someone they know only distantly then they will practically adopt you as a son! If you are a traveler their hospitality will certainly extend to having you stay the night (or several nights since the next morning they will invariably wake you with a nice breakfast and an outline of all the things they are going to take you to see). In their psychology Iranians are very proud of their good manners. If upon being asked by an Iranian what you think of Iran and Iranians you talk about their good manners the person questioning you will certainly try to be the most hospitable person you have met on your whole trip. This is something you have to experience for yourself!

3. Etiquettes and Customs in Iran

3.1. Meeting Etiquette

Introductions are generally restricted to members of the same sex since men and women socialize separately. Greetings tend to be affectionate. Men kiss other men and women kiss other women at social events. If they meet on the street, a handshake is the more common greeting When Iranians greet each other they take their time and converse about general things. The most common greeting is "salaam alaykum" or more simply "salaam" (peace).

3.2. Gift Giving Etiquette

Iranians give gifts at various social occasions such as returning from a trip or if someone achieves a major success in their personal or business life. On birthdays, businesspeople bring sweets and cakes to the office and do not expect to receive gifts. It is common to give monetary gifts to servants or others who have provided services during the year on No Ruz (The Iranian New Year). Money should be new bank notes or gold coins. If you are invited to an Iranian's house, bring flowers, or pastry to the hosts. When giving a gift, always apologize for its inadequacy. Gifts should be elegantly wrapped - most shops will wrap them for you. Gifts are not generally opened when received. In fact, they may be put on a table and not mentioned.

3.3. Dining Etiquette

If you are invited to an Iranian's house: Check to see if the host is wearing shoes. If not, remove yours at the door. Dress conservatively. Try to arrive at the invited time. Punctuality is appreciated. Show respect for the elders by greeting them first. Check to see if your spouse is included in the invitation. Conservative Iranians do not entertain mixed-sex groups. Expect to be shown into the guests' room. It is usually lavishly furnished with European furniture. Shake everyone's hand individually. Accept any offer of food or drink. Remember to do 'taarof'. Table manners: Iranians are rather formal. Although some meals in the home are served on the floor and without eating utensils, it does not indicate a lack of decorum. In more modern homes, meals are served on a dining table with place settings. Wait to be told where to sit. Eat only with the right hand. Try a bit if everything that is served. Meals are generally served family-style. Most tables are set with a spoon and fork only. There is often more food than you can eat. Part of Iranian hospitality is to shower guests with abundance. Expect to be offered second and even third helpings. Initial refusals will be assumed to be polite gestures (taarof again!) and are not taken seriously. Leave some food on your plate when you have finished eating. Restaurants generally have two sections - "family" where women and families dine and "men only". Tips of between 10 and 15% are appreciated in hotel restaurants.

4. Business Etiquettes and Protocols in Iran

4.1. Relationships & Communication

Iranians prefer to do business with those they know and respect, therefore they expect to spend time cultivating a personal relationship before business is conducted. Who you know is often more important than what you know, so it is important to network and cultivate a number of contacts. Expect to be offered tea whenever you meet someone, as this demonstrates hospitality. Since Iranians judge people on appearances, dress appropriately and stay in a high standard hotel.

4.2. Business Meeting Etiquette

Appointments are necessary and should be made 4 to 6 weeks in advance. Confirm the meeting one week in advance and when you arrive in the country. It is a good idea to avoid scheduling meetings during Ramazan (Ramadan) as the need to fast would preclude your

business colleagues from offering you hospitality. Arrive at meetings on time, since punctuality is seen as a virtue. The first meeting with an Iranian company is generally not business-focused. Expect your colleagues to spend time getting to know you as a person over tea and snacks. Be patient - meetings are frequently interrupted. Written materials should be available in both Farsi and English. Do not remove your suit jacket without permission. Do not look at your watch or try to rush the meeting. If you appear fixated on the amount of time the meeting is taking, you will not be trusted.

4.3. Business Negotiating

It takes time for Iranians to become warm towards foreign businesspeople. Until then, they may appear somewhat stiff and formal. Personal relationships form the basis of business dealings. Decisions are made slowly. Iranians are deliberate negotiators who can drive a hard bargain. Do not use high-pressure tactics. They will work against you. Iranians may display emotion, or even walk out of the meeting, or threaten to terminate the relationship in an attempt to convince you to change your position. Iranians often use time as a negotiating tactic, especially if they know that you have a deadline. Be cautious about letting your business colleagues know that you are under time pressure. Companies are hierarchical. Decisions are made at the top of the company, either by one person or a small council.

4.4. Dress Etiquette

Business attire is formal and conservative. Men should wear dark colored conservative business suits. Ties are not worn by Iranians but it would not be seen as negative if you did so. Dress well to make a good impression. Women should always dress modestly and cover their hair.

4.5. Titles

Address your Iranian business associates by their title and their surname. The title "doktor" is used for both M.D.s and Ph.D.s. Engineers are called "mohandis". These titles are are preceded by the formal titles listed below and are used with the surname. The title "agha" (sir) is used when addressing men. It may be used before or after the first name. The phrase "agha-yeh" is put before a surname. The title "khanoom" (madam) is used when addressing women. It may be used before or after the first name. The phrase "khanom-eh" is used before the surname. Wait to be invited before moving to first names. Only close friends and family use this informal form of address.

4.6. Business Cards

Business cards are only exchanged by senior-level people. Since rank and position are very important, make sure your business card includes your title. Have one side of your card translated into Farsi. Present your card so the Farsi side faces the recipient.

5. Iranian ways of courtesy

Taarof is a system of politeness that includes both verbal and non-verbal communication. Iranians protest compliments and attempt to appear vulnerable in public. They will belittle their own accomplishments in an attempt to appear humble, although other Iranians understand that this is merely courtesy and do not take the words at face value. In adherence to Taarof, if you are ever offered something, like a tea or sweet, even if you want it, at first decline it until their insistence becomes greater. This part is an attempt to gather and list for your reference some of Persian verbal etiquettes. Some of the expressions may seem poetic, or perhaps even baroque, be sure though that in Persian they sound perfectly natural. Be also warned, that often they are almost deprived of meaning and used just rhetorically.

1. Greeting formulas.
    - سلام [salām] 'peace' - a usual way of greeting.
    - سلام علیکم [salām aleykum] 'peace upon you'- a somewhat more formal (and more... uhm, Islamic) version of the above
    - درود [dorud] 'praise; greeting' - a native Persian word (the two above are Arabic in origin), used by non-Muslims and, especially, the anti-Muslims. Actually, I've never heard it.
    - صبح به خیر [sobh be xeyr] 'good morning' - another greeting; as you expected variants with other times of the day are also used
    - صبح شما هم به خیر [sobh-e shomā ham be xeyr] 'your morning also good' - an answer

2. Approaching the farewell - it is considered bad manners to bluntly end conversation. One should first make the interlocutor aware of his intention of bringing the talk to an end.

- o خوشحالشدماز دیدنیشماخیلي [az didan-e shomā xeyli xoshhāl shodam] 'from seeing you I became very happy' - it is a formula used when one wants to politely end conversation.

- o از ملاقاتانخیلیخوشحالشدم [az molāqātetān xeyli xoshhāl shodam] 'from your meeting I became very happy' - variant of above

- o منبنده(هم همچنین) [man (bande) ham hamchonin] /manam hamchenin/ 'me (slave) too, the same way)' ie. I was happy to see you too - a customary answer after which one may safely proceed into the farewell stage.

- o کارينداريد [kāri nadārid] 'don't you have (any other) business (to discuss)' - a somewhat more colloquial way of making sure if your partner is ready to say goodbye

3. Farewell formulas

- o خداحافـظ [xodā hāfez] 'God guardian' ie. may God guard you- usual way of saying 'goodbye'.

- o خدانگهدار [xodā negahdār] 'God safekeeper' ie. may God keep you safe - meaning very similar to the above one, but 'pure Persian' and much less used.

- o بـه اميد دیدار [be omid-e didār] 'in hope of seeing' - a... uhm 'secular' greeting

- o خداحافظشما [xodā hāfez-e shomā] or خدانگهدارشما [xodā negahdār-e shomā] - more elaborate versions of the greetings. شما [shomā] is a polite word for 'you'. Here it means 'your'. Hence 'God your guardian/safekeeper"

- o فعلاً [fe'lan] 'for now; so long' - a colloquial farewell

- o تـا بعد [tā ba'd] 'until later' - another one

- o میبینمت [mibinamet] 'I('ll) see you' - yet another colloquial farewell greeting

- o بـا اجازه [bā ejāze] 'with permission' - what you say when you have to leave somebody's company for a minute

4. Addressing people

- o تو [to] 'you' - informal second person singular pronoun. Used between close friends ie. not so often.

- o شما [shomā] 'you' - formal and plural second person pronoun. This is the one normally used when addressing someone.

- آقا [āqā] 'Mr, sir' - usual polite form of addressing a man. It's plural is آقایان [āqāyān] /āqāyun/

- خانم [xānom] 'Mrs. ma'am' - usual polite form of addressing a woman. It's plural is خانمها [xānomhā] /xānomā/

- جناب آقا [jenāb āqā] 'excellency sir' - even more polite form of addressing a man.

- سرکارخانم [sarkār xānom] 'overseer lady' - even more polite form of addressing a woman.

- جناب آقایان و سرکار خانمها [jenāb āqāyān-o sarkār xānomhā] - a Persian version of 'Ladies and Gentlemen'

- جناب عالی [jenāb-āli] 'highest excellency' - as translation suggests, it's so reverential that it's rarely used

- حاجی [hāji] 'haji' - haji is a title of any man who has performed the Hajj (pilgrimage to Mecca); but it's also used in addressing clergymen or middle-aged or older men of high social standing regardless of whether they have performed the Hajj or not (and how would you know if they have, anyway?)

- حاج آقا [hāj-āqā] 'Mr. haji' - meaning and usage as above, with regard to both real and 'presumed' hajis

- حاج خانم [hāj-xānom] 'Mrs haji' - as above, but for the ladies. The tricky part is... well, remember that "middle-aged or older" above? It certainly carries this sort of connotation and some ladies can be very touchy about their age. So, use it with care and caution!

- برادر [barādar] 'brother' - presumably, 'brother in islam'. It's used by the more Islamic-minded types

- خواهر [xāhar] 'sister' - as above but for the ladies (as if you couldn't figure this one   out)

  Now for some colloquial/slangy adresses:

- داداش [dādāsh] 'brother' or rather 'bro'- this is a very colloquial word, one some people might not find acceptable in polite company

- آبجي [ābji] 'sister; sis' - counterpart of the above; also a blue-collar/slangy word

- رفیق [rafiq] 'friend, mate' - a colloquial term

- o بابا[bābā] 'dad' - this is an interesting word; on one hand, it's how Persian children call their fathers, on the other it's used to address someone informally (esp. with undertones of amusement, impatience or slight irritation); on the third hand - see below

5. Talking about third parties):
   - o او[u] 'he; she' - the 'normal' third person pronoun; note the lack of gender distinctions
   - o وى[vey] 'he; she' - slightly more formal then above; used especially in official/press language
   - o ایشان[ishān] 'they' - a 3rd person plural pronoun used as a mark of a respect to refer to one person.
   - o بنده خدا[bande-ye xodā] 'God's servant' - often used ironically or jokingly
   - o یارو[yāru] 'guy; fellow; chap' - very colloquial word
   - o بابا[bābā] 'daddy; guy' - a colloquial word; yes, it also means "dad" and is used as a term of address
   - o طرف[taraf] lit. 'side' - another not-very-formal term
   - o فلانی[folāni] 'so-and-so; such-and-such' - used when you want to omit the name of the person spoken about

6. The thankyous - note that these sometimes are used one immediately following another. These are 'fit-all' expressions ie. they may be used in place of, or in addition to more situation-specific formulas.
   - o ممنونم[mamnunam] 'I am obliged' - in Afghanistan this means 'I am pleased'.
   - o متشکرم[motashakkeram] 'I am thankful' - if I were to guess, this is the most used one.
   - o سپاسگزارم[sepās gozāram] 'I am a thanks-leaver' - a native Persian word used by the purists.
   - o مرسي[mersi] - yes, it's the French word. Iranians do use it extensively, even though some consider it a bit 'girly'.
   - o تشکر میکنم[tashakkor mikonam] 'I am rendering thanks' - This is probably **the most common** way of saying 'thanks' **in Afghanistan**

- o رحمت [rahmat] 'mercy' - And this is what they thank you with **in Tajikistan and other parts of Central Asia**.
- o دمتگرم [damet garm] 'let your breath be warm' (ie. live long) - another sort of thank you, actually closer to congratulations in spirit ("wow, thanks, you've done great' type of thing)

7. Thanking for favor/service - when eg. thanking a waiter you can use the formula below instead of, or in addition to the simple thankyous above.

- o دستتان درد نکند [dast-e shomā dard nakonad] /dast-e shomā dard nakone/ 'may your hand not ache' - it can also be used when *asking* for e.g. passing the salt or similar 'by-the-table-services'.
- o سرشما درد نکند [sar-e shomā dard nakonad] /sar-e shomā dard nakone/ 'may your head not ache' - routine answer to the above expression.

Thanking for bigger and not-professional favor or kindness.

- o خیلی محبّت کردید [xeyli mohabbat kardid] 'you've made a great kindness (lit. 'love')' - "you've been most kind"
- o خیلی لطف کردید [xeyli lotf kardid] 'you've made a great kindness'
- o شرمنده [sharmande] 'embarrassed' ie. I am embarrassed by your kindness which I don't deserve - used (usually together with other thankyous) when thanking for a favor.
- o باعث شرمندگی [bā'es-e sharmandegi] 'a cause of embarrassment' ie. your kindness is a cause for my embarrassment - the usage is as of the word above
- o خدا عوضتون بده [xodā avazetun bede] 'let God repay you (for your kindness)'

8. Thanking when being complimented. Useful especially for ladies. If someone exclaims, for instance "Oh, what a lovely shawl you're wearing!" it's a good thing to answer:

- o چشمتان قشنگ میبیند [cheshmetān qashang mibinad] - lit. it's your eyes that see pretty

9. Exclamations of support, satisfaction, approval - these are all used to praise or to express satisfaction.

- o به به [bah-bah] 'wow! great!'
- o آفرین [āfarin] 'bravo; well done'

- o دمت گرم [damet garm] 'let your breath be warm'
- o بارک الله [bārekallāh] 'bravo' lit. God bless it"'
- o احسنت [ahsant] 'bravo'

10. The you're welcome and please - yes, the two in one. Another of 'fit-all' polite words.
    - o خواهش می‌کنم [xāhesh mikonam] 'I make a request/wish' - this is the usual answer to 'thank you' AND also a way to ask someone to do something ie. to make requests.

11. Other colloquial ways of answering the thank yous.
    - o وظیفم بود [vazifam bud] 'it was my duty'
    - o کاری نکردیم [kāri nakardim] 'we didn't do a thing'
    - o حرفشم نزن [harfesham nazan] 'don't even talk about it'

12. Agreement, acceptance of a suggestion (or order!)
    - o چشم [chashm] lit. 'eye' = 'ok; yes sir; I'll do it; consider it done' - once it was accompanied by the gesture of putting hands on one's eyelids to show that you'll 'look to it' and not forget to fulfill the request or order
    - o چشمتان بی بلا [cheshmetān bi balā] 'no calamity on your eye' - a customary reply to the above

13. An universal greeting. It's used on plenty of occassions. As a (part of a) greeting or a thankyou for instance.
    - o خسته نباشید [xaste nabāshid] /xaste nabāshin/ 'may you not be tired' - used especially when greeting someone 'on his duty' ie. working or otherwise 'doing his job'.
    - o سلامت باشید [salāmat bāshid] /salāmat bāshin/ 'may you be in health' - used as a reply to the above good-wishing

14. Another almost universal greeting. Used as a thank you or a goodbye.
    - o قربان شما [qorbān-e shomā] or قربانتان [qorbānetān] /qorbānetun/ 'your sacrifice' ie. you're so precious to me that I wish to make sacrifice for you - the more formal greeting
    - o قربان تو [qorbān-e to] or قربانت [qorbānat] /qorbānet/ - the same meaning as above but less formal

- o The above may be used with the word ادفـ[fadā] in place of قربان[qorbān] (the two are synonyms, قربان[qorbān] being more frequent).
- o قربونت برم[qorbunet beram] 'let me go to your sacrifice' - another colloquial version

15. What to say when someone sneezes?
   - o عافیت باشد[āfiyat bāshad] 'let there be health' - the same expression is used to greet someone who has just had a bath - in both cases it is believed that it helps to ward off the evil spirit from entering the body

16. Asking for forgiveness.
   - o بـخشید[bebaxshid] /bebaxshin/ 'pardon !; excuse!; forgive!' - this is a verb in polite imperative form; the usual way of saying 'I'm sorry' in Persian
   - o معذرت میخواهم [ma'azarat mixāham] /ma'zerat mixām/ 'I want/request an excuse' - more formal than the one above
   - o پوزش میخواهم[puzesh mixāham] /puzesh mixām/ 'I want/request forgiveness' - a native Persian expression.

17. اWhat to answer to 'I'm sorry"?
   - o عیب ندارد[eyb nadārad] 'there's no fault / problem'
   - o اشکال ندارد[eshkāl nadārad] 'there's no difficulty / inconvenience'
   - o مهمّ نیست[mohemm nist] 'it's not important' - gdy przewinienie było wyrazem zaniedbania

18. It's considered impolite to turn your back toward someone. When it is unavoidable (like in a car) you can try to excuse yourself:
   - o ببخشید که پشتم به شماست[bebaxshid ke poshtam be shomāst] 'I'm sorry that my back is towards you'
   - o گـل رو و پشت ندارد[gol ru-o posht nadārad] 'the rose (=you) doesn't have neither the front nor the back' - the customary answer

19. Speaking about yourself - the most important and basic rule of Persian etiquette is to speak as highly as possible about one's interlocutors and as humbly as possible about oneself. The others are always 'respected' 'dear' 'revered', whereas the person speaking often calls himself as follows:

- o بنده [bande] - literally 'slave'. The word is used in polite speech instead of the usual 1st person pronoun من [man]. Thus one says in Persian e.g. "A slave see" instead of "I see".
- o این جانب [in jāneb] 'this side' - used eg. in formal letters
- o چاکر [chāker] 'servant' - an epistolar form
- o حقیر [haqir] 'unworthy one' - as above
- o کمینه [kamine] 'the littlest one' - used by women
- o دعای شما [dā'i-je shomā] 'one who prays for you' - another courtesy form
- o ما [mā] 'we' - it is (was) used as *pluralis maiestatis*, and much more commonly, as a polite form, sort of diminishing one's individual importance
- o حقیر و فقرا [faqir-o foqrā] 'the poor couple' - a bit outdated, used by married couples esp. in invitations

20. احوال پرسی [ahvāl porsi] - or asking about one's health and well-being. There can't be a Persian conversation without it.

- o The inquiry about the well-being of an interlocutor usually involves one (and often more than one) of the following expressions حال شما چطور است [hāl-e shomā chetour ast] /hāl-e shomā chetore/ 'what way is your state' ie. "how are you" is very common چطورید [chetourid] /chetorin/ 'what way are you' is somewhat simpler; خوب هستید [xub hastid] /xub hastin/ 'are you well' is something of a question but only little attention is paid to the following answer.
- o Answering the inquiry usually involves: A. thanking B. saying that you're well C. inquirying back. A typical example of a full answer would be: مرسی خوبم خیلی ممنون شما چطورید [mersi, xubam, xeyli mamnun. shomā chetourid] 'thank you, I'm good, very grateful. how are you'
- o If, God forbid (= خدا نکند [xodā nakonad]), something's wrong, you can say: مرسی بد نیستم [mersi, bad nistam] 'thanks, not bad'
- o Next stage is inquiring about the family: خانم چطور است بچه ها چطورند [xānom chetour ast, bachehā chetourand] /xānom chetore, bachehā chetoran/ - 'what way is the lady, what way are the children' ie. how is your wife and children

o خوبند، سلام می‌رسانند [xuband, salām miresānand] /xuban, salām miresunan/ 'they're good, they deliver peace' ie. they are well and they send you their greetings - a customary answer. Note that the greetings are always sent, even if the family members had no idea you were going to meet your interlocutor.

o As the greetings are always sent they're always reciprocated: سلام ایشان به لطف [lotfan be ishān salām beresānid] 'kindly deliver them peace' ie. please greet them for me برسانید

o If your interlocutor is a proud parent of a newborn baby, you can ask: کوچولو چطور است [kuchulu chetour ast] /kuchulu chetore/ 'what way is the little one' ie. how is the baby. And then you can be answered:

o دستبوس شماست[dastbus-e shomāst] 'he/she is your hand-kisser' - as Persian newborn babies can't talk (and therefore can't send greetings) this expression is used to express the baby's respect and warm feelings. Yes, you have to be mad to think someone actually understands this *literally*.

o Asking about the news is also a part of 'ahvāl porsi' چه خبر [che xabar] 'what news' is a much used question. Note that it is also used, often repeatedly, whenever you run out of the conversation topics.

o سلامت [salāmati] 'healthily' is an usual answer, after which the question can be repeated (be prepared to hear lots of دیگر چه خبر [digar che xabar] 'then, what's the other news')

21. Inquiry about the trip - one of the typical conversational situations with a set of customary questions and routine answers.

o If someone has just returned from traveling it's good manners to ask him/her سفر چطور گذشت[safar chetour gozasht] 'how did the travel pass'.

o If the trip was a pleasant one, the expected answer is جایتان خالی بود[jā-ye shomā xāli bud] 'your place was empty', ie. I wish you were there with me and I could share with you a good time I was having.

o To this one should answer saying دوستان به جای ما [dustān be jā-ye mā] 'friends in our place' ie. I am not worthy to be counted as your friend, I wish you'd be there with friends, not unworthy ones like me.

- If the trip wasn't fine an answer to the query might be جاي‌دشمنشما خالي‌بود [jā-ye doshman-e shomā xāli bud] 'your enemy's place was empty' ie. it was so bad that I wish your enemy was there so that he would suffer. To this, quite fortunately, there is no customary answer

22. Buying things - another of the everyday and تعارف [ta'ārof] - imbued situations.

  - After you've asked for the price of item/service (remember that haggling is a custom, and only some prices are pre-set) the vendor usually says: قابلي‌ندارد [qābeli nadārad] /qābeli nadāre/ 'it isn't worthy' or, in fuller form: قابلشما را ندارد [qābel-e shomā rā nadaarad] /qābel-e shomā ro nadāre/ 'it isn't worthy of you' ie. take it free of charge. Don't be misled by this words though. You are expected to insist on paying. Either by simple:

  - خواهش مي‌كنم [xāhesh mikonam] 'I make a request/wish' - ie. I request that I could pay anyway. Or, better yet, you can say to the vendor:

  - صاحبش قابل دارد [sāhebash qābel dārad] /sāhebesh qābel dāre/ 'its owner is worthy' - ie. I want to pay not for the sake of item/service itself but for the sake of you

  - By the way, if someone at first doesn't want to hear about accepting money from you, that doesn't mean he won't try to scandalously rip you off later on. Be prepared and remember that foreign face brings all prices up a lot!

23. Invitation. Some common expressions used when inviting someone for a visit are:

  - مهمان ما باشيد [mehmān-e mā bāshid] /me(h)munemun bāshin/ 'be our guest' - quite literal. Can be used on the guest's arrival as well.

  - قدمتان روى چشم [qadam-etān ru-ye cheshm] /qadametun ru(-ye) cheshm/ 'your footsteps on the eye' ie. you are most welcome - used also on the guest's arrival

  - چشم‌براهيم [cheshm be rāhim] 'we are eye on the road' ie. we eagerly wait for your coming.

  - قدم رنج فرموده به خانه‌ى ما تشريف بياوريد [qadam ranje farmude be xāne-ye mā tashrif biāvarid] /... be khunemun tashrif biārin/ 'do fatigue your feet and bring

the honor (of your presence) to our house' - more elaborate and formal invitation formula.

- o میترسم مزاحم شما باشم [mitarsam mozāhem-e shomā bāsham] 'I fear I would be your trouble-bringer' ie. I don't want to make you incomfortable with my coming - an expected answer to an invitation. Person being invited expresses his fear that his presence would be troublesome for the (would-be, so far) hosts. Of course this is followed by the hosts repeating invitation and solemnly assuring that 'it'll be a pleasure, not trouble'. Which brings us to...

24. Entering somebody's office you can say

- o ببخشید که مزاحم شدم [bebaxshid ke mozāhem shodam] 'excuse that I trouble you'; to which you'll hear:

- o مزاحم نشدید مراحم شدید [mozāhem nashodid, morāhem shodid] 'you didn't trouble but enoble' (sorry for the pun)

25. Denying the ta'arof - often it is important to stress that you are nice to someone not out of politeness but true sympathy, that you really like them and you do mean what you are saying and offering. Of course, denying the ta'arof can be a part of ta'arof itself. Anyway:

- o اهل تعارف نیستیم [ahl-e ta'ārof nistim] 'we are not people of ta'arof' = we mean what we're saying/offering

- o تعارف نکن [ta'ārof nakon] 'don't do ta'arof' = don't try to be polite; accept what we're offering you

6. Conclusion

At last but not least, there is an important cultural note, don't fall in the pit of taking all these too literally. Yes, the Persians are incredibly nice and polite. It's a great feeling to be treated with all that politeness and courtesy But don't expect it's anything more than a figure of speech - it might be, but just as well it might be not. Be aware that exchanges soaked with Taarof and smiles are often less than half-hearted. Elegant wording is not always matched by warm feelings and sincere intentions. The former is a must in Persian society, the latter... simply aren't. It is no hypocrisy, no -it's simply how this language and this society work. The

primary meaning of "Taarof" is "treat; offering; sharing" as in "sharing your food with others; treating others". The fact that Taarof exists allowed even the poor people to avoid humiliation of not being able to treat their guests properly. They could offer them anything knowing that their initial offer will be met with polite refusal and all they have to do is not insist that much on it so we can say that Taarof is a way for face saving.

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Title

A Contrastive Study of Ellipsis in Persian & English in Journalistic Texts

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Abstract

This study examines and compares the use of ellipsis in English and Persian texts. The English texts were taken from Kayhan international and Iran. In order to make the corpus comparable, 50 short texts were analyzed. In order to accomplish the purpose of the study which is English and Persian corpus, the classification of ellipsis suggested by Halliday and Hassan (1979) was utilized. The results indicate that there is a significant difference between the use of nominal and verbal ellipsis in English and Persian. The analysis of the corpus of the study provides sufficient evidence to conclude that all subtypes of ellipsis under investigation occurred in the two languages. This finding can prove the universal nature of ellipsis.

1. INTRODUCTION

Theoretical and pedagogical implications are considered as constituting two main values of any contrastive study. The first values are considered with the description of similarities and differences of any two languages and it supplies information to the general theories of linguistic descriptions. The second reveals the different points of linguistic systems of any two languages, predicts the difficulties and provides a useful basis for the development of materials in the EFL/ESL programs (Fallahi, 1991).The contrastive analysis presented here is mainly concerned with pedagogical implications. It addresses a certain aspect of cohesion in English and Persian, selects components of the related structures, contrasts them, and thus hopefully will have pedagogical value in TEFL practices and specifically in revealing the sources of errors by Iranian students. As Firkins et al (2007, p.341) believe students have to create a text that is both rhetorically and linguistically appropriate but students usually have low proficiency at sentence level and they have minimal awareness at the level of complete texts.

1.1.REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In spoken and written English discourses, accordingly, individual clauses and utterances are linked semantically by grammatical connections (McCarthy, 1991), which make a text cohesive. According to Malmkjar (2004,p.543) cohesion concerns "the way in which the linguistic items of which a text is composed are meaningfully connected to each other in a sequence on the basis of the grammatical rules of the language" and formal devices signal the relationship between sentences. According to Malmkjar (2004), in English cohesion is built in four ways by: reference, ellipsis (including substitution), conjunction and lexical organization. Ellipsis among other cohesive devices, not only creates difficulties in learning the structural omissions which are permissible, but also does not seem to be readily used even by proficient learners in situations where native speakers employ it (McCarty, 1991). Yet, despite the specific need for the common experience, at least of EFL teachers that most students fail to learn these devices adequately in the target language.

   Malmkjar (2004) postulates that "ellipsis works anaphorically by leaving out something mentioned earlier, as in Help you (for instance, to some apples mentioned earlier)" (p.543). Clark

et al (1977) also introduce ellipsis as one of the tools of reducing sentences. They further state that among different ways of reducing surface structures into very compact forms is the use of ellipsis. To clarify the meaning of ellipsis, they pointed out that certain words can be omitted in the sentence by ellipsis (p.16).

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p.142) viewed ellipsis as "something unsaid", or in fact as "something understood" which means going without saying. They note that ellipsis refers to sentences, a clause, etc. whose structure can be presupposed form the preceding items. These items can serve as the missing information. It implies that ellipsis is considered as substitution by zero. In comparing substitution with ellipsis, Halliday and Hassan (1976) state that ellipsis is a special case of substitution. They believe that in the former the difference between substitution and ellipsis is a substitution counter which appears in the slot, and if the presupposed item is replaced, then, there will be the omission of the substitution counter, whereas in the latter the slot is empty.

Thompson (1996) claims that substitution and ellipsis are so interrelated that one can be taken for another. He defines ellipsis as "a set of resources by which full repetition of a clause or clause element can be avoided, and by which it can be signaled to readers that they should repeat the wording from a previous clause" (p.148).

Halliday (1985) treats this two in one corpus and states that substitution and ellipsis can be various forms of the same type of cohesive relations. Halliday and Hasan (1976) maintain that there are three types of ellipsis:

a. Nominal ellipsis: Nominal ellipsis is considered as ellipsis within the Nominal group.
b. Verbal ellipsis: Verbal ellipsis is considered as ellipsis within the Verbal group.
c. Clausal ellipsis: with clausal ellipsis, individual clause elements may be omitted.

On the other hand, Thompson (1996) suggests that there are two kinds of ellipsis:

a. Ellipsis proper
b. Substitution

In ellipsis proper, "the element is simply missed out" (p.148), as illustrated in the following example:

"How old is he? Two months."(p.148).

Here the reply presupposes the wording 'He is … old'. So, in ellipsis proper "a gap is left to be filled by carrying over elements from a previous message" (p.148).

Thompson (1996) clarifies the meaning of substitution as this: "A substitution marks the place where the earlier elements need to be brought in" (p.152). Thompson uses the example below to illustrate the definition:

"It's large for five months, but not abnormally so" (p.148)

He further mentions that a linguistic marker is placed where the repetition of the wording occurs. For instance "large for five months" in the above sentence. Hendriks (2004) describes ellipsis as one source of ambiguity in language, and explains that the presence of ellipsis is one of the main reasons why natural language is as ambiguous as it is (p.133). Hendriks notes that the reason for the ambiguity of elliptical sentences is that there are various choices in order to recapture the components that have not been pronounced.

However, he provides an example which shows that, in a number of cases, ellipsis decreases the number of reading sentences. The example is as follows:

Sue become upset and van become downright angry.

Sue become upset and van Ø downright angry (p.133).

On the other hand, James (1980) proposes that the ellipsis effect is to create cohesion for the text. He refers to the paradoxical view of the elimination of part of the message and providing textual cohesion by suggesting that "one expect the opposite to happen and the speaker or reader to lose the threat" (P.107). When the speaker / writer eliminates a segment of the speech / text, it reveals his /her willingness to accept the explicit contributions of the receiver as "given" and if she / he repeats it, it shows that the speaker / writer values it as taken for granted (Hardt & Romero, 2004). Bloor et al (2007, p. 7) argue that "text is a product of discourse." It is normally used to describe a linguistic record of a communicative event. "They refer to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) and propose seven standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, acceptability, intentionality, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality.

Shahabi and Baptista (2011) found out that Shahabi and Baptista (2011) found out that, in some cases, instead of a verb, a pro-verb is used. For light verb constructions in Persian, the light verb is retained and the nominal component is zeroed. For a residual number of cases the strategies were non-literal. According to Gunther (2012) there are many monolingual counts of ellipsis while corpus linguistic studies on ellipsis are rare and usually focus on specific subcategories such as: nominal ellipsis after adjectives in English.

Jantunen (2013) in his research discusses several grammatical contexts which especially favor ellipsis in Finnish Sign Language. He concluded that there are a wide variety of elliptical phenomena in FinSL clauses. More specifically, it has been shown that all core -internal clausal elements may be elided in FinSL and that, although ellipsis in general is widely permitted.

In another study Merchant (2014) examines the variable behavior of gender features under nominal ellipsis in Greek. He discovered three classes of nouns, parallel in kind to those identified in earlier literature on the Romance languages: those that permit no gender mismatches under predicate ellipsis, those that permit gender mismatches in either direction, and those that permit mismatches only in one direction (masculine antecedents for elided feminines).As to date very few studies in Iran have been conducted to address the topic, and it seems that there is more to be known about this phenomenon. Thus the following study was conducted to analyze ellipsis in Persian and English texts.

As previously mentioned there is extensive research done on ellipsis. All aspects of its existence and use have been debated for years and that debate will continue for many years. Our interest concerns the use of ellipsis in English and Persian texts. The study presented in this essay will analyze the 50 texts of Kayhan International and Iran. To be able to achieve our aims the following research questions were formulated:

- Is there a significant difference between the use of nominal ellipsis in English and Persian?
- Is there a significant difference between verbal ellipsis in written English and Persian?

2. METHODOLOGY

Since it was important that the texts analyzed in this study be comparable, an effort was made to select the novels which according to the knowledge of the researching were on general topics and accordingly could be treated as being similar in some respects. That is, regarding the content it will not be far-fetched to categorize the four newspapers .And, in this regards, again it can be claimed that, the language used in both English and Persian corpus is the same as unmarked variety of language which are comprehensible for ordinary contemporary Persian and English readers. The English texts were taken from Kayhan international and Iran. In order to make the corpus comparable, 50 short text were analyzed.

In order to accomplish the purpose of the study which is English and Persian corpus, the classification of ellipsis suggested by Halliday and Hassan (1979) was utilized. To illustrate how the corpus was analyzed, some samples are below

2.1. SAMPLE DATA

Nominal ellipsis in English, taken from "Iran and Kayhan newspapers.

1. Iran's state broad casting used to widely cover revolutions in the Arab world but (it) refers to report a single word about scores of deaths in Syria.

2. Iran and Egypt are important countries and have a close ties and (they) help each other in many fields.

Verbal & nominal ellipsis in Persian, taken from "Iran and Kayhan(newspapers).

Aya **nezam banki** dar iran tagir miyabad?

Does the Iranian Bank system change?

According to lawyers, yes, (it) changes.

Baleh, bana be gofteyeh nemayandegan majles (nezam banki) tagir miyabad.

Mizan daramad arzi keshvar sale gozashteh 102 milyard boud.

Rate of income has increased this year.

Vali in mizan **daramad arzi** keshvar emsal afzayesh yafteh ast.

But this rate (**of exchange income**) has increased this year.

Che chizi moshkel arag ra hal khahad kard?

What will solve the Iraq problem?

Ravabet dostane bartaraf kardan moshkelat egtesadi **hal khahad kard**.

Che chizi terafic Tehran ra **bartaraf mikonad**?

What will remove traffic of Teharn?

Kam kardan tedad taradod terafic ra **bartaraf mikonad**.

Decreasing the number of traffic   (**will solve**)

Verbal & nominal ellipsis were taken from Iran news& Kayhan

Ali Daei won gold ball but his rivals did not (*win*) it.

Putin came to Middle East countries such as Iran, Iraq and Pakistan and (**he**) visited many places.

In 1849, thousands of people went to California in search of gold, (**they**) hoping to get rich.

To analyze the data obtained from the thorough study of the texts, Chi-square measure was applied.

Chi-square analysis is usually applied when the data consists of frequencies. Consequently, in

order to find out if there is any significant difference between the use of ellipsis in English and Persian data, Chi-square tests as appropriate nonparametric statistical tests were administered.

Table 1: Frequency and percent of the use of ellipsis in the Persian and English corpus

	Types of ellipsis	Frequency	Percent
Persian corpus	Nominal	130	37
	Verbal	220	63
English corpus	Nominal	685	48
	Verbal	735	52

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

To test the hypothesis that there is no difference between the use of different types of ellipsis in English and Persian corpus, a number of Chi-square tests were carried out. The first compared results of this Chi-square are summarized in Table 2:

Table 2: Results of Chi-square tests of nominal ellipsis in English and Persian

	Value	Df	P
X^2	465.8	1	001

As the results show, the value of Chi-square was significant meaning that there is a significant difference between the use of nominal ellipsis in English and Persian. Thus, the first null hypothesis of the present study stating that "There is no significant difference between nominal ellipsis in written English and Persian " was rejected .The findings clearly indicate that nominal ellipsis was used in the English corpus more than the Persian one. Another Chi-square was carried out, this time comparing the use of verbal ellipsis in these two languages.

The summary of the results of this Chi-square is as follows:

Table 3 shows the results of Chi-square tests of use of verbal ellipsis in English and in Persian.

Table 3 Use of verbal ellipsis in English and in Persian

	Value	Df	P
X^2	423.15	1	001

What these results indicate is that the value of Chi-square was significant meaning that there is a significant difference between the use of verbal ellipsis in English and Persian data.

Thus, the second null hypothesis of the present study stating that "There is no significant difference between verbal ellipsis in written English and Persian "was rejected.

Also, it was found that in the English corpus, verbal ellipsis was used slightly more than the Persian one. Finally, another Chi-square was run to examine the probable difference between these two languages in the use of clausal ellipsis.

4. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

James (1980) claims that it is essential for contrastive analysis to identify constants and variables, he argues that "the formal devices differ from language to language" (p.104). Since ellipsis is one of the subdivisions of these formal grammatical devices, in the present study basic patterns and component of these patterns of ellipsis in English and Persian have been contrasted.

The analysis of the corpus of the study provides sufficient evidence to conclude that all subtypes of ellipsis under investigation occurred in the two languages. This finding can prove the universality nature of ellipsis. Generally speaking, clausal ellipsis was the most frequent devices in both English and Persian data. Comparing both languages, in was revealed that in the English corpus, nominal ellipsis was used more frequently than verbal ellipsis but in the Persian one, the use of verbal ellipsis was more than nominal. Also, all subtypes of ellipsis were used more frequently in English than in Persian.

The fact that syntactic mechanism of sentences is different in Persian and English ellipsis, in turn, results in the selection of the form of ellipsis in these two languages. It should be mentioned that the reason for the different use of ellipsis in Persian end English refer to the respective cultures and the way of applying words and their orders which is not the issue of this study. However, given the fact that ellipsis occurs both in English and Persian with some similarities, the danger of negative transfer from Persian to English for Iranian students somehow decreases.

The findings of this study proved that ellipsis is a frequent phenomenon in English and Persian. Therefore, EFL teachers can make their students conscious about this phenomenon. Also, they can

make them aware of ellipsis as speakers or writers choice made on a pragmatic assessment of the situation. Moreover, material developers can use the findings of this study to make EFL learners familiar with ellipsis by highlighting the differences in their books. Findlay, it is hoped that researchers and EFL teachers can employ the results of this study to improve the present situation of EFL learning by Iranian students.

It should also be mentioned that the finding of this study, will help novice writers benefit not just from process-oriented practices in producing texts but also from guided investigation of how texts work. Teachers can also provide sample texts for their students and ask them to count elliptical structures they find and discuss them in the class. It is even possible for the students to ask their teachers about their own writing practices. These feedback discussions are very useful to be utilized by the learners. This kind of analysis of the texts is a useful means for the teachers to help students control there writing practice.

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