Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Proper Names in Translational Contexts

Eriko Sato

Department of Asian and Asian American Studies, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, New York, USA

Abstract—Rendering of proper names in translational contexts may be a simple and automatic procedure that only involves minor sound adjustments. However, translators take, and sometimes have to adopt, all kinds of strategies with proper names, especially in fictional texts, where names almost always carry auctorial meanings that implicitly support the theme of the story. Names, in fact, bear a variety of connotative meanings and also serve as cultural identifiers of texts. Accordingly, rendering of names in translational contexts often has to deal with many issues such as their phonological, orthographical, morpho-semantic, and pragmatic idiosyncrasies, their accessibility to the target language readers, and their socio-political implications. Following the framework of descriptive translation studies, this paper first examines some English translations of Japanese literary texts from primary and secondary sources, and then provides a qualitative analysis of English translations of a novel by Kenji Miyazawa (1896-1933), *Ginga Tetsudō no Yoru (Night of the Milky Way Railway)*, focusing on proper names. The latter novel is filled with fictional and non-fictional names whose cultural identities are deliberately made unclear or paradoxical to support the theme of the novel. The analysis provided in this paper empirically shows that translation of proper names plays a pivotal role for sustaining the cultural orientation of the text and the theme of the story.

Index Terms—translation studies, proper names, domestication, Japanese, semantics

I. INTRODUCTION

Rendering of proper names in a translational context may be considered a simple and automatic process that only involves minor phonological adjustments. It should indeed be the case if the meaning of a name is only its referent. However, as Tymoczko (1999) claims, names are "dense with information" (p. 223). They can bear many connotative meanings that result from their history, ownership, geographic, social affiliations and so on. In addition, as Lyotard (1992) claims, names serve as a "rigid designator" of the textual context (p. 319). They can act as an anchor that designates the text's identity regardless of whether it is about its genre, theme, or cultural context. There are many factors that affect translation of proper names: phonological, orthographical, morpho-semantic, and pragmatic idiosyncrasies; the accessibility to the target language audience such as "recognizability and memorizability" (Timoczko, 1999, p. 225) as well as auditory preference and familiarity; and socio-political factors such as publishers' reception and manipulation (Venuti, 1995, 1998). As Nord (2003:182) states, "translators do all sorts of things with proper names." The latter is true especially in literary translation, where fictional names can allude to the hidden theme and existing names can function symbolically or metaphorically.

Following the framework of descriptive translation studies (Holmes, 1988, van den Broeck, 1981, Toury, 1995, Chesterman, 1997, 2012 among others), this paper examines the state of translated Japanese names in a literary context from linguistic, cognitive, socio-cultural and socio-political points of view, and then provides a qualitative analysis of English translations of the novel *Ginga Tetsudō no Yoru* (Night of the Milky Way Railway) by Kenji Miyazawa (1896 - 1933). This novel attempts to create universal and cosmic contexts by crossing cultural, racial, and religious boundaries. For this purpose, the author uses proper names in a unique way (Pulvers, 2013): no Japanese place names appear in the novel although the story obviously takes place in Japan; a variety of non-Japanese place names, both existing and fictional, are mixed and appear unexpectedly; the characters who are obviously Japanese have European names and those who are obviously European have Japanese names; a pet has an unusual name whose origin is unclear; the name of an obviously traditional Japanese festival is given the name of a constellation. The question is what strategies translators implement in reality.

The structure of the paper is as follows. Section II provides a brief historical review of the basic concepts of proper names and their translatability, as well as some consequences of translating proper names. Section III qualitatively analyzes multiple English translations of the novel *Night of the Milky Way Railway* focusing on proper names. Section IV is a conclusion.

II. PROPER NAMES

This section provides a brief historical review of the basic concepts of proper names and their translatability, as well as some consequences of translating proper names.

A. Semantics of Proper Names

The semantic meaning of a proper name has been a controversial topic among philosophers and logicians. Mill (1843/1956) claims that the meaning of a name is its bearer and a name has no connotative meaning:

Proper names are not connotative: they denote the individuals who are called by them; but they do not indicate or imply any attributes as belonging to those individuals. … It may be said, indeed, that we must have had some reason for giving them those names rather than any others; and this is true; but the name, once given, is independent of the reason.

(Mill, 1956, p. 20)

This view predicts that a name without its bearer is meaningless. By contrast, Frege (1892/1948) argues that the primary semantic value of a name is the sense whereas its secondary value is its referent; accordingly, a name can meaningfully refer to an imaginary entity that actually does not exist, and an existing item may meaningfully be referred to by multiple names:

The regular connection between a sign, its sense, and its referent is of such a kind that to the sign there corresponds a definite sense and to that in turn a definite referent, while to a given referent (an object) there does not belong only a single sign. The same sense has different expressions in different languages or even in the same language.

(Frege, 1948, p. 211)

Under this view, the sentence *Santa Claus does not exist* is meaningful and has a truth value. This is because the proper noun *Santa Claus* has its sense even though it has no referent. Similarly, the sentence *Superman is Clark Kent* is also a meaningful sentence with a truth value. This is because the two names have two different senses even though there is only one referent for them.

Russell (1905) shares the basic idea of Frege's notion of sense in names and proposes that the semantic value of an ordinary proper name is its definite description. The latter is a set of properties that can single out the bearer of the name. However, his theory is rejected by Strawson (1971):

An ordinary personal name, is, roughly, a word, used referringly, of which the use is not dictated by any descriptive meaning the word may have, …

(Strawson, 1971, p. 340)

Similarly, Kripke (1979, 1980) argues that descriptions might or might not have been true and thus, a name always rigidly designates its bearer. If the bearer of the name does not exist in a possible world, then the name does not refer to anything at all. If the same object is named more than one way, it is because names are linked to their bearer through causal and historical contexts, as in the case of Istanbul, Byzantium, Stamboul, Tsarigrad, and Constantinople, all of which refer to the same place.

Searle (1975) takes a somewhat middle ground between Mill's view and Frege's view, where a name has its referent and also a sense, but the sense is the collection of the characteristics of the referent that the name is logically connected to rather than the description of the referent (p.139). Similarly, Tymoczko (1999) argues that names are "dense signifiers, signs of essential structures of human societies" and they indicate information such as "tribal and familial affiliation; gender and class; racial, ethnic, national, and religious identity" (p. 223).

B. Translatability of Proper Names

Sciarone (1967, p. 86) and Vendler (1975, p. 117), following Mill, consider names to be inherently untranslatable. For them, phonological and orthographical adjustments as well as equivalent names (e.g. the English name, *Vienna,* for the German name, *Wien*) are not translations, but are versions, which can be simply added to the stock of proper names in the given language. In fact, it is very commonly believed that names do not have to be translated. Newmark (1981) also argues that names should not be translated, following Mill's view:

In fact, while the position is nothing like so simple, the principle stands that unless a single object's or a person's name already has an accepted translation it should not be translated but must be adhered to, …

(Newmark, 1981, p.70)

However, Aixelá (1996) argues that rendering names unchanged (e.g. Seattle → Seattle), though most "respectful," has the danger of creating a distance between the text and the target language reader because they feel "alien" (p. 61). Tymoczko (1999) strongly argues, though it is as a part of activism in postcolonial contexts, that names must be translated. Nord (2003) also argues that names are loaded with information, especially in fictional contexts where almost all names bear auctorial meanings, which must be made intelligible and familiarized for the target-culture audience (p. 183-185).

A number of strategies for rendering names from a SL (source language) text to a TL (target language) text have been proposed, labeled, or discussed including direct transfer (repetition), transliteration, transcription, substitution, modification, semantic translation, addition, omission, cultural adaptation (cultural transplantation, localization) and various combinations (Catford, 1965; Herman, 1988; Newmark, 1981,1988; Hervey and Higgins, 1992; Aixelá1996; Tymoczko, 1999; Nord, 2003; Vermes, 2001, Burgess, 2005; Fernandes 2006; Zauberga, 2006, Hasegawa 2012, among others). Some methods are faithful to the original, but others are not. However, once transferred to a different language, even the name rendered unchanged will also receive automatic phonological adjustment when they are read by the TL readers. That is, the name *Seattle* will be read differently from the original once read by the TL readers. It follows that every name will undergo a change to some degree once rendered into a TL text. Then, it logically follows that the numerous methods mentioned above are all methods of "translation."

C. Consequences and Implications of Translating Proper Names

Translation of proper names often has some consequence. The following excerpt from Adams (1973), which is quoted in Bassnett (1991), shows the sentiment for the fate of names in translational contexts:

Paris cannot be London or New York, it must be Paris; our hero must be Pierre, not Peter; he must drink an aperitif, not a cocktail; smoke Gauloises, not Kents; and walk down the rue du Bac, not Back Street.

(Adams, 1973, p. 12)

Lyotard (1992) extends the significance of names on pragmatic grounds. He convincingly shows that names are "rigid designators" of the context of any discourse, regardless of whether it is about historical discussion, scientific research, an immigrant child's new life, a fictional story, etc., (while a possible exception is philosophical doctrine) and names are not created or learned in isolation, but are embedded in little stories (p. 319-320).

Consider the following three cases where Japanese names are translated into English.

Semantic translation of kanji

Japanese place names and personal names are mostly written in kanji characters[1]. Each kanji character bears meanings and sounds. For example, a place name, Tokyo, is written with two kanji characters:

東京 [Tōkyō]

The first character 東 [tō] means *east* and the second character 京 [kyō] means *capital*. Its etymology is a capital established in the eastern region. However, once established as a name, only the sound and the characters are sensed, and the etymological meaning or the morpho-semantic meaning embedded in kanji are not sensed. Thus, Japanese place names are usually rendered in English based on the sound, as in *Tokyo*, *Osaka*, *Kyoto*, and *Okinawa*. However, there are some cases where place names are translated based on the morpho-semantic meaning of kanji. Observe how the first line of the poem, "Chidori to Asobu Chieko" (Chieko Playing with Plovers), written by Kōtarō Takamura[2] (1883-1956), was translated into English by four translators:

人つ子ひとり居ない九十九里の砂浜の
砂にすわつて智恵子は遊ぶ。

<Literal Translation>
Chieko plays as she sits on the sand of Kujūkuri beach, where there is not a single person.

Translation by Hiroaki Sato (Takamura, 1980; Takamura and Sato, 1992)
Where there is no one on the sands of Kujūkuri
sitting on the sand Chieko plays alone.

Translation by Soichi Furuhata (Takamura & Furuta, 1978)
Sitting on the desolate sand
of the 99 Mile Beach, Chieko plays.

Translation by John Peters (Takamura & Peters, 2007)
On abandoned Kujkuri Beach
Chieko plays in the sand.

Translation by Paul Archer (Takamura, 2012)
On the empty Ninety-Nine Mile Beach,
Chieko sits in the sand and plays.

This line includes the name of a beach called 九十九里 [Kujūkuri], where these four kanji characters mean nine-ten-nine-ri. The last character 里 [ri] is the archaic measurement unit for distance, where 1 ri corresponds to 2.44 miles.[3] This name's etymology is the length of the beach: ninety-nine ri. Two of the above translations are based on the sound, but the other two are based on the meaning of the kanji characters, which is not sensed by native speakers of Japanese. Interestingly, the measurement unit, *ri*, is replaced by *mile*, as in *the 99 Mile Beach* and *Ninety-Nine Mile Beach* in the translations based on the meaning of kanji. As argued by Lyotard (1992) and others, measurement units function as rigid cultural designators. Thus, the use of the measurement unit *mile* completely changes the cultural identity of the poem, shifting the context from Japan to America, for example. Yet, the name of the person who appears in the poem, *Chieko*, is unchanged, remaining as a Japanese person, so the poem loses cohesion. Furthermore, the length of the beach is perceived about 2.5 times greater than the actual length due to the difference between *mile* and *ri*. In addition, back translation becomes impossible. Translating proper names based on the meaning of characters seems to eventually cause serious consequences, even though they may look familiar to the TL audience.

Cultural transplantation

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[1] Kanji characters are Chinese characters that were adapted in Japan with radical phonological change and minimum semantic change.

[2] Kōtarō Takamura (1883-1956) is one of the pioneers of modern Japanese poetry written in free verse in the vernacular and is one of the most widely read poets in Japan. He wrote a collection of poems about his wife, Chieko, and published them in 1941, as *Chiyokosho* (Chieoko Poems). The poem "Chidori to Asobu Chieko" (Chieko Playing with Plovers) is one of them. It depicts how Chieko, who was suffering mental illness, frolicked childishly with numerous plovers in a completely deserted beach called Kujukuri.

[3] 里 [ri] has its root in Chinese 里 [li]. Since Japan adopted the metric system during the Meiji Era (1868-1921), 里 [ri] has not been used for more than a century. Today, the Japanese would only hear this unit referenced in a handful of proverbs such as, 千里の道も一歩から [Sen-ri no michi mo ippo kara] (Even a journey of a thousand ri begins with a single step); 虎は千里行って千里かえる [Tora wa sen-ri itte sen-ri kaeru] (A tiger can go a thousand ri and also come back).

Hervey and Higgins (2002:29-30) define cultural transplantation as "the process where SL names are replaced by indigenous TL names that are not their literal equivalents, but have similar cultural connotations." According to them, cultural transplantation is "the extreme degree of cultural transposition" and its effect could be incongruous. Sato (2015) shows a Japanese place name, Tsurumaki Town, in Kōtarō Takamura's poem "*Hito ni*" (To a Person) is substituted by *Times Square* in one of the four identified published English translations. Although this place name appears in a metaphorical context, the text identity is swiftly shifted from Japan to America. Expectedly, it causes an incongruous effect because the poem is a part of Chieko-sho, a collection of poems for Chieko. In addition, as Sato (2015) argues, there are too many mismatches between Tsurumaki Town and Times Square: when the poem was written, Tsurumaki Town was a common ordinary town developed around a university, filled with boarding houses and restaurants for students, and it was in the author's neighborhood; Times Square has been a globally known entertainment district, but Tsurumaki Town has never been a well-known town and most Japanese do not know its name. This case shows that cultural transplantation has a significant risk as warned by Hervey & Higgins (2002).

Socio-political factors

Hasegawa (2012) discusses Aoyama's (1996:37-38) observation that the name of a Japanese actress, *Ruriko Asaoka*, which appears in the novel *69*[4] was substituted by *Brigitte Bardot* in its English translation published in 1993. In the scene where the protagonist and his schoolmates decide to make a film, featuring one of the girls in their high school as the main actress, someone says that they have to make her look more beautiful than Ruriko Asaoka and use Yujiro Ishihara's song as the theme music. Ruriko Asaokoa was a popular and attractive actress in the 1960s and Yujiro Ishihara was the actor who regularly worked as her partner. Aoyama (1996) considers the substitution of *Ruriko Asaoka* with *Brigitte Bardot* is fair, but is not appropriate because only Ruriko Asaoka's name is substituted and the name of her partner, Yujiro Ishihara, was not. This is clearly what Hervey & Higgins (1992) warn against as an incongruous case.

Aoyama (1996:39-40) also reports that this novel has two versions of English translations by the same translator: the first was published in 1991 targeting bilingual readers in Japan; the second was published in 1993 targeting audiences overseas. Interestingly, the above-mentioned substitution is found only in the 1993 version for the overseas audiences, but not in the version for Japanese audiences (p.39-40). This shows that the cultural transplantation observed here can be politically motivated, as the publisher's strategy to serve different readerships.

The practice of such cultural transplantation seems to be common in dominant cultures. Yamazaki (2002) reports that the practice of replacing characters' names in children's books is very common when the target language is English or German:

I also noticed that basic attitudes to translation differ from culture to culture and that it is especially obvious between Japanese and English/German translations. This difference has a political implication, for translation is never a purely linguistic matter. The attitude toward and practice of translation reflect intercultural power balances. Translated texts not only reveal what kind of relationship the target culture (to which the translation is aimed) has with the source culture (where the texts come from), but also affect that relationship by presenting a certain image of the source culture. ……….. I was shocked and became indignant at this change of names. I felt that I had been cheated by the German translation. For me it was a matter of credibility, and it was my first lesson on how arbitrary a translation can be.

(Yamazaki, 2002, p. 53- 54)

Venuti (1995, 1998) describes this practice literally as "violence":

The relationship points to the violence that resides in the very purpose and activity of translation: the reconstitution of the foreign text in accordance with values, beliefs, and representations that preexist it in the translating language and culture, always configured in hierarchies of dominance and marginality, always determining the production, circulation, and reception of texts.

(Venuti, 1995, p.14)

III. NIGHT OF THE MILKY WAY RAILWAY

Ginga Tetsudō no Yoru (Night of the Galactic Railway) was written around 1927 by Kenji Miyazawa (1896 -1933), and was discovered and published in 1934, one year after his death. Miyazawa was born in Hamamaki Town in Iwate Prefecture, a northern area of Japan, where people were mostly poor farmers due to the harsh climate and uneven economic development within Japan at the time. However, Miyazawa's family was extremely wealthy, running a successful pawnbroking business. As a devout Buddhist, he refused to engage in his family's business, but dedicated his life to helping the poor, working as a teacher (agronomy) and an activist for utopia. Besides being a poet and novelist, Miyazawa was a dedicated scientist (agronomy, biology, geology, and astronomy) and artist (painter, cellist, and composer, loving opera and classical music), and studied English, German, and Esperanto (Miyazawa, 1991; Miyazawa & Bester, 1996; Miyazawa, 1996, 2009; Miyazawa & Pulver, 2007; Pulver, 2013; Miyazawa, 2013; Miyazawa, 2014).

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[4] The novel *69* (Shikkusutinain, sixty nine) was written by Ryu Murakami and published in 1987. The setting of this novel is in 1969 at a high school in Kyushu in Japan, where a few students wildly attempt to organize something outrageous. The novel is filled with proper names of singers, actors, activists, politicians, songs, plays, books, schools, and places mostly from Western culture, but some from Japanese culture.

The protagonist (Giovanni) is a schoolboy from a poor family, having multiple part-time jobs such as delivering newspapers in the morning and working at a print shop after school. His schoolmates often ridiculed him, but one of them, Campanella, never did. The story is about Giovanni's surreal train trip through the stars on one summer night, after which Giovanni hears about Campanella's drowning in the river.

The novel introduces proper names in a unique way. Although the story seems to be based on his hometown, Hamamaki, and the nearby river, Kitakami River, these names do not appear in the novel. There are no fictional place names that sound Japanese, either. By contrast, it includes non-Japanese place names, both real and fictional. For example:[5]

コネティカット州 [Konetikatto-shū] Connecticut State

ランカシャイヤ [Lankashaiya] Lancashire

コロラド [Kororado] Colorado

パシフィック [Pashifikku] the Pacific

プリオシン海岸 [Purioshin kaigan] the Pliocene[6] Coast

銀河ステーション [Ginga Sutēshon] the Milky Way Station

アルビレオの観測所 [Arubireo no kansokusho] the Albireo Observatory

バルドラ [Barudora] *English spelling is not clear.

There is no specific time reference in this novel, except the appearance of the victims of a shipwreck, which is clearly based on the story of the Titanic that sank in the North Atlantic in 1912 (Miyazawa, 1991, p. 107).

Most interestingly, the main characters, who are obviously Japanese, have European names.

ジョバンニ [Jobanni] Giovanni (the protagonist)

カムパネルラ [Kamupanerura] Campanella (the protagonist's schoolmate)

ザネリ [Zanneri] Zanelli (the protagonist's schoolmate who constantly ridicules him)

マルソ [Marusō] Marso (the protagonist's schoolmate)

By contrast, obviously European characters, who are Christians and victims of the shipwreck mentioned earlier, have Japanese names:

タダシ [Tadashi]

かおる [Kaoru]

The name of Campanella's family's dog is ザウエル [Zaueru], which does not sound Japanese. Its origin and spelling are not clear. The food items that appear in the protagonist's household are tomatoes, bread, milk, and lump sugar, which were not common Japanese food items when the novel was written (Miyazawa, 1991, p. 83). The plants found near the protagonist's house are asparagus and kale, which were also rare in Japan at that time (Miyazawa, 1991, p. 83). Many names of trees, birds, insects, vegetables, gemstones, and minerals appear in the story, some of which have Japanese names while others have non-Japanese names (e.g. ポプラ [popura] populus; プラタナス [puratanasu] platanus). Some religious icons such as 十字架 [jūjika] the (Christian) cross and バイブル [baiburu] bible appear in the novel. Only one measurement unit, 尺 [shaku],[7] appears. The word *kimono* appears twice in the novel, but it seems to refer to clothing in general rather than the traditional Japanese clothing.[8]

This novel was translated into English by multiple translators, including:

• *Night of the Milky Way Railroad*: translated by Joseph Sigrist, edited and abridged by D. M. Stroud (Miyazawa, 1984)

• *Night Train to the Stars*: translated by John Bester (Miyazawa & Bester, 1987)

• *Night Train to the Stars*: translated by John Bester (Miyazawa & Bester, 1996)

• *Night of the Milky Way Railway*: translated by Sarah Strong (Miyazawa, 1991)

• *Milky Way Railroad*: translated and adapted by Joseph Sigrist and D. M. Stroud (Miyazawa, 1996)

• *Milky Way Railroad*: translated by Joseph Sigrist and D. M. Stroud (Miyazawa, 2009)

• *Night On The Milky Way Train*: translated by Roger Pulvers (Miyazawa & Pulvers, 1996)

• *Night on the Milky Way*: translated by Paul Quirk (Miyazawa, 2013)

• *Night on the Galactic Railroad*: translated by Julianne Neville (Miyazawa, 2014)

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[5] Specifications based on the most commonly adopted Romanization method (Hepburn Method) are provided in square brackets [] throughout this paper.

[6] Pliocene is the name of the epoch in the geologic timescale that existed from five and a half million to two million years ago (Miyazawa, 1991, p. 99)

[7] 1 *shaku* is approximately 1 foot. Since Japan adopted the metric system during the Meiji Era (1868-1921), 尺 [shaku] has not been used for about a century.

[8] *Kimono* used to have two meanings in the past until the early 1900s: (i) clothing in general; (ii) traditional Japanese clothing. However, the use of the former meaning has gradually declined as the Japanese started to wear Western clothes (Miura, 2015). It is very likely the case that both meanings were available at the time when the novel was written.

Sigrist and Stroud's 1996 edition alters some of the proper names although it is undone in their 2009 edition. This is probably the reason why the cover of their 1996 edition says, "Translated and adapted" while their 2009 edition just says, "Translated." Sato (1996) provides a critical review of the change of the proper names found in their 1996 edition.

A. Character's Names

While all other translators listed above keep European names assigned to the four obviously Japanese characters, Sigrist and Stroud (1996) replace them with ordinary Japanese names as follows:

ジョバンニ [jobanni] Giovanni   → Kenji
カムパネルラ[kamupanerura] Campanella   → Minoru
ザネリ [zanneri] Zanelli   → Akira
マルソ [marusō] Marso   → Masaru

Accordingly, the protagonist's name becomes identical to the author's name, Kenji. This has an immediate consequence: TL readers would think that the protagonist is the author himself. Sigrist and Stroud state in their introduction that this change of names is to "eliminate any confusion caused by Japanese characters in a Japanese setting having European names" (Miyazawa, 1996:11). This change of names is extremely interesting because its motivation is the opposite of the commonly practiced cultural transplantation motivated by domestication (Venuti 1995, 1998). It may appear to be an instance of foreignization, but its purpose is a corrective intervention. However, if this is the case, they should have changed the Japanese names of the obviously European children from the shipwreck, but they did not. This incompleteness causes an incongruous state, which is common in cultural transplantation, warned about by Hervey and Higgins (1992).

Almost all literary scholars who studied this novel seem to agree that these mismatching names in the SL text were deliberately done by the author. Strong states that Miyazawa is cleverly challenging the conventional distinction between *familiar* and *foreign* (Miyazawa, 1991, p. 84). Pulver (2013) states that it is not only to achieve universalism, but also to represent the author's "social model, the kind of ideal society that he envisaged for the human race, where boundaries are not even earthly, but cosmic." If this is the case, the corrective manipulation of the main characters' names by Sigrist and Stroud (1996) is altering the theme of the novel. Tinh (2013) describes her frank perceptions of this version in her book:

In the first version I read of his novel Milky Way Railroad, the translators had taken the liberty of changing the characters' names into Japanese names, under the pretext that it would "eliminate any confusion caused by Japanese characters in a Japanese setting having European names." Since I usually prefer (at first) to enter a text directly and to follow the writer's thought process afresh, without the mediation of an introduction, at the end of the book I was deceptively left with a feeling of wonder for what I considered to be a harmlessly charming story of coming to terms with death, a story "typically Japanese," as my prejudices dictated. It was only a year later, when a Japanese friend offered me another translated version of the novel, Night Train to the Stars, that I realized with awe and utter excitement the scope of Miyazawa's experimental and cosmopolitan mind. In this translation, not only do the main characters' names, Giovanni (Jovanni) and Campanella (Kanpanera), appear as originally intended, but a whole complex tapestry of foreign-sounding names of people and places emerges from the story, as if by magic. Suppressed in the first adapted version I read, these Italian, French, English, and American names, coexisting with Japanese names, make all the difference. Here the politics of naming takes on an inventive role of its own.

(Tinh, 2013, p. 7)

The change of these characters' names are undone in the later edition of this book published in 2009 (Miyazawa, 2009) while almost all other parts of the text remain the same.

B. Pet's Name Zaueru

Campanella's family has a dog. Its name is written as ザウエル in katakana[9], which can be converted to [Zaueru] using romaji, a romanization method commonly used in Japan. Note that romaji does not represent all sounds in English because the inventories of Japanese phonemes and English phonemes do not match. For example, two liquid sounds [l] and [r] in English are represented only by [r] in romaji because they merge into one phoneme in Japanese. Similarly, two bilabial sounds [b] and [v] in English are represented only by [b] in romaji. Giovanni sees this dog when he delivers newspapers early in the morning when it is still dark outside. Its tail looks like a broom and it follows him for quite a distance. This dog's name, ザウエル [Zaueru], sounds exotic to Japanese. The impression perceived from this name is not associated with cuteness or smartness, probably due to the voiced obstruent [z] at the beginning of this name. Voiced obstruents ([b], [d], [g], and [z]) are perceived as *marked* by Japanese, as evidenced in their phonological rule that limits their occurrence.[10] In addition, voiced obstruents tend to be used for slangs with a negative connotation such as with ブス [busu] (ugly face) and ザマ [zama] (miserable/helpless state). Voiced obstruents can be easily recognized in the syllable-based phonetic writing systems, hiragana and katakana, in Japanese: the characters with a voiced

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[9] Katakana is a set of phonetic syllabary symbols used to represent names, things, and concepts from non-Japanese cultures. It is also used to represent onomatopoeia.

[10] This rule is called Lyman's Law, which blocks sequential voicing when there is a voiced obstruent (a sound formed by obstructing airflow) in the same phonological unit.

obstruent are marked by the diacritic ゛, placed at its upper right corner, as in ザ in this dog's name ザウエル. The author's use of a name that starts with [z] for this dog may be due to this dog's strange behavior and its strange broom-like tail, which can be impressionistically represented by sweeping or a dry rustling -like sound. In fact, this novel heavily utilizes onomatopoeia, more precisely sound symbolism[11]. For example, the following sentence contains three such sound-symbolic expressions, which are all underlined:

　するとぴたっと鳥の群は通らなくなりそれと同時にぴしゃぁんという潰れたような音が川下の方で起ってそれからしばらくしいんとしました。

　[Suruto pitatto tori no mure wa tōranaku nari sore to dōji ni pishān to iu tsubureta you na oto ga kawashimo no hou de okotte sorekara shibaraku shīn to shimashita.]

　Abruptly, the locks of birds stopped crossing while at the same time, from further downstream, came the sound of something going splat. This was followed by silence. (Translation from Sarah Strong (Miyazawa, 1991, p. 62))

　Japanese has a large inventory of lexicalized sound symbolism, which is commonly thought of as onomatopoeia. Pulver (2013) claims Miyazawa is using onomatopoeias as a universal language in this novel.

　To Kenji, all sound is produced by nature. That is why his use of onomatopoeia is so amazing. This use of onomatopoeia is the most striking symbol of his universal approach to language. Of course he is using the Japanese language. But he is using it out of the context of the Japanese nationality.

　(Pulver, 2013)

　Miyazawa is known to extensively utilize onomatopoeia, and even coin new expressions sound-symbolically in his literary works (Liman, 1995; Nicolae, 2014).

　Now, observe how this pet's name is translated. The section about this dog and its translations are as follows:

　ザウエルという犬がいるよ。しっぽがまるで箒のようだ。ぼくが行くと鼻を鳴らしてついてくるよ。ずうっと町の角までついてくる。もっとついてくることもあるよ。

　<Literal translation>

　They have a dog named ザウエル [Zaueru]. Its tail is just like a broom. When I go there, it follows me whining. It follows me all the way to the edge of town. It sometimes follows me farther.

Translation by Bester (Miyazawa & Bester, 1987, 1996)

　They've got a dog called Sauer. His tail's just like a broom. When I go there, he comes snuffling after me. He comes all the way to the corner of the block, sometimes further.

Translation by Strong (Miyazawa, 1991)

　They have a dog named Zoel. He's got a tail just like a broom. When I go there he always follows after me whining. He follows me right to the edge of town, sometimes even farther.

Translation by Sigrist & Stroud (Miyazawa, 1996, 2009)

　They have a dog called Pooch. His tail is just like a broom! When I go, he runs along beside me whining. He goes all the way to the corner in town with me. Sometimes even farther.

Translation by Pulver (Miyazawa & Pulver, 1996)

　They've got a dog named Sauer and he's got a tail just like a broom. He yelps and sniffs and when I'm there he follows me all the way to the end of the block. Sometimes he even follows me further.

Translation by Quirk (Miyazawa, 2013)

　They have a dog named Sour. It's got a tail like a broom. Whenever I go there it follows me, sniffing the whole time. It follows me all the way to the next street; sometimes even further.

Translation by Neville (Miyazawa, 2014)

　They have a dog called Sauer, who's got a tail like a broom. Whenever I stop by there, he follows me around, sniffing at me the whole time. Then he follows me all the way down the street, and sometimes even farther than that!

　Some translations approximate the sound of the name, retaining the initial [z] and the last liquid consonant [l] or [r]: Strong spells this dog's name as *Zoel*; Bester, Pulver, and Nevil spell it as *Sauer*, which is pronounced with the sound [z] at the beginning if it is meant to be a German word that means *sour*. Quirk spells it as *Sour*. On the other hand, Sigrist and Stroud substitute the dog's name with *Pooch* in both 1996 and 2009 editions (Miyazawa, 1996, 2009). *Pooch* is a colloquial term for a common noun *dog* rather than a proper name, but is used as a proper name in their translation. Evidently, its sound-based impression is quite different from the original.

C. Place Name Barudora

　One of the place names that appear in this novel is written as バルドラ in katakana, which is encoded to [Barudora] in romaji. It obviously sounds like an exotic name to Japanese ears, but it seems to be a fictional name. Because this novel was discovered after the author's death, there is no way to clarify the author's intention. Sadakata (2012) considers this proper name to have been created by Miyazawa based on the Baltoro Glacier in the Karakoram mountain range in Pakistan.

　This place name appears in the novel when the protagonist and a few other passengers in a train see the fire of Scorpio in the distance in the night sky and the Christian girl from the shipwreck starts talking about the story of a

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[11] Sound symbolism includes phonomimes (onomatopoeia), phenomimes, and psyhchomimes.

scorpion that she heard from her father in the past. She talks of a scorpion in the field of バルドラ [Barudora] that lived by killing and eating small insects. One day, it fell into a well when it ran away from the weasel that tried to eat it. When it was about to drown in the well, the scorpion became remorseful because its body would be wasted instead of being consumed by another creature to live. Feeling emptiness, the scorpion begged the god to use its body for others next time. Then, the scorpion's body turned into a beautiful flame and it is still burning now, lighting up the darkness of the night sky. According to Strong, the story is the author's invention, but has the tone and texture of Jataka tales, ancient Indian legends that recount the heroic past lives of the Buddha before he was born into the world as Sakayamuni, where the Buddha is frequently an animal (Miyazawa, 1991, p. 114). According to Sadakata (2012), the story seems to be rooted in Yakuōbosatsu, a Buddhist saint who burned his own body to light the world.

As in the case of the pet's name discussed in the previous section, we cannot decisively spell バルドラ in English based on the romaji representation [Barudora] due to the difference in the phoneme inventory between English and Japanese. For example, the two bilabial consonants [v] and [b] and the two liquid consonants [l] and [r] are not contrasting phonemes in Japanese. The sentence that includes this place name and its translations are as follows:

むかしのバルドラの野原に一ぴきの蠍がいて小さな虫やなんか殺してたべて生きていたんですって。
<Literal Translation>
Long ago in a field of Barudora, there was a scorpion that lived by killing and eating small bugs.
Translation by Bester (Miyazawa & Bester, 1987, 1996)
Long ago, in a certain vale, there was a scorpion that lived by eating small insects and so on.
Translation by Strong (Miyazawa, 1991)
Long ago on the plains of Bardora there lived a scorpion who got along from day to day by killing and eating small insects and the like.
Translation by Sigrist & Stroud (Miyazawa, 1984, 1996, 2009)
Long ago in a field in India there was a scorpion, and he lived by killing little insects and things and eating them.
Translation by Pulver (Miyazawa & Pulver, 1996)
My father told me that a long long time ago Scorpio lived in Valdola Vale and he survived by killing teeny bugs and eating them up.
Translation by Quirk (Miyazawa, 2013)
Long, long ago, there was a scorpion that lived in the fields of Badrah, who killed and ate all kinds of small bugs and insects.
Translation by Neville (Miyazawa, 2014)
A long time ago in a field there lived a scorpion that ate other bugs by using its tail to catch them.

As shown above, Strong's spelling, *Bardora,* is the closest to *Barudora*, where the vowel [u], presumably an epenthetic vowel, is removed. Pulver's spelling, *Valdora*, is just like Strong's *Bardora*, except that alternative consonant choices, [v] instead of [b], and [l] instead of [r], were taken. Quark's spelling, *Badrah,* is also quite close to *Barudora*. By contrast, Bester and Neville omit this place name and use a common noun, *vale* and *field*. Sigrist & Stroud's translations in all of their versions (Miyazawa, 1984, 1996, 2009) do the same, but also add an existing country name, *India,* as in *in a field in India.*

Some of them tried to preserve the sound, while others abandon it. It is possible that the latter strategy lost the author's expressive effort utilizing the perception of the sound to create exotic nuance described in the above section. An addition of a concrete existing place name such as *India* will introduce a new and rigid cultural designator, which may be what the author wanted to avoid as discussed earlier.

This case shows the difficulty of transliteration when the languages have different sound inventories, the risk of introducing a different referent, and the loss of sound effect when names are omitted.

D. The Name of the Festival (the Centaurus Festival)

There is a fictional festival named ケンタウル祭 [Kentauru-sai] (the Centaurus Festival) in this novel, where children go to float gourd lanterns on the river, whistle the star song, and shout:

「ケンタウルス、露をふらせ」 [Kentaurusu, tsuyu o furase]
<Literal translation>
Centaurus, let the dew fall!
This festival is obviously referencing the Tanabata Festival in Japan, which is commonly referred to as Star Festival in English. The above quotation is translated into English as below:
Translation by Bester (Miyazawa & Bester, 1987, 1996)
Centaurus, send down the dew!
Translation by Strong (Miyazawa, 1991)
Centaurus, send the dew!
Translation by Sigrist & Stroud (Miyazawa, 1984, 1996, 2009)
Sagittarius, send down rain!
Translation by Pulver (Miyazawa & Pulver, 1996)
O Centaurus, Let the Dew Fall!

Translation by Quirk (Miyazawa, 2013)
Centaur! Send down your dew!
Translation by Neville (Miyazawa, 2014)
*The quotation was omitted.

In Sigrist and Stround's translation, *Centaurus* is replaced by *Sagittarius* and *dew* is replaced by *rain* (Miyazawa, 1984, 1996, and 2009). Strong reports that Miyazawa, who had a deep knowledge of astronomy, was particularly interested in the constellation, Centaurus, and that "dew" for Miyazawa seems to be "a sacred life-bestowing elixir sent from the sky rather than a reminder of impermanence" (Miyazawa, 1991, p. 90-91).

Centaurus and Sagittarius are separate constellation although they are similar. Dew and rain are different types of entities in nature although they are both water. In addition, the name of the festival (The Centaurus Festival) is changed to The Sagittarius Festival in Sigrist and Stround's translation in 1984 and The Milky Way Festival in their translation in 1996 and 2009 (Miyazawa, 1984, 1996, and 2009). It is not clear why they had to change these proper names and it may be an ethical issue.

IV. CONCLUSION

The descriptive analysis of translations of literary Japanese texts presented in this paper has empirically shown that the same proper name in the same text can be translated in many different ways and each translation method has a unique difficulty, advantage and/or risk. Transliteration and transcription of names are not as simple as expected to be especially when languages have different sound inventories or different orthographical systems. Semantic translation of a name may make back translation impossible. Substitution or modification of a name may cause a loss of nuance. Cultural transplantation of a name may radically change the text's identity. Addition of the description of a name might be counter-effective especially in literary contexts. To make the situation more complex, the choice of the translation method may be influenced by socio-cultural and socio-political factors motivated by the translator's consideration toward the TL readers and publishers. At any rate, Millian's view, where the meaning of a name is just its bearer, does not survive in translational contexts. Names are loaded with information regardless of whether they are etymological, connotative, allusive, or implicational. Fictional names often implicitly support the theme of a story, which could be hinted just by a single sound in a name.

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Eriko Sato is Assistant Professor in the Department of Asian and Asian American Studies at Stony Brook University (State University of New York), where she earned her PhD in Linguistics. Her research interests include Japanese linguistics, second language acquisition, foreign language pedagogy and translation studies.

A Contrastive Study of the Semantic Content of the Adjectives in French and Georgian Languages

Ketevan Djachy

Romance Department, College of Arts and Sciences, Ilia State University, Georgia

Abstract—**This paper concerns the contrastive study of the semantic content of the adjectives in French and Georgian languages which is based on the analysis of contemporary literary texts, as well as on data from the language spoken today. Awareness of the similarities and differences that exist between the two non-related languages is important and useful for French language specialists, as well as for translators who are interested in translation of literary texts.**

Index Terms—**semantic, contrastive study, equivalent, predicative, determinant**

I. INTRODUCTION

In linguistics, an adjective is a part of speech which describes or modifies a thing(s) a person(s) or a concept(s) etc., expressed by a noun. Descriptive adjectives are the most important noun modifiers. Adjectives are subject to change and generally denote the quality of animate or inanimate subject(s) expressed by a noun. For example: beau chat - ლამაზი კატა, /a beautiful cat/ une belle fille - ლამაზი გოგო /a pretty girl/. An adjective phrase is a group of words that is equivalent of an adjective. For example: une rocher à pic - ციცაბო კლდე /a steep rock/, un poète de genie - გენიოსი პოეტი /a poet of genius/, être tout en larmes-ცრემლების დაღვრა(ტირილი) /crying with tears/ (Grevisse, 1980, p. 366).

An adjective doesn't form denotation per se; it describes an event(s) a thing(s) or a person(s). An adjective is used both in its direct and figurative meaning, which significantly expands its semantic area and determines its ability of being used with nouns with absolutely different semantic content. For example: the direct meaning of the adjective «fin» is წვრილი /thin/ un fil fin - წვრილი მავთული /a thin wire/, whereas the figurative meaning of the same adjective is translated in Georgian as: ეშმაკი/smart/, მოხერხებული/clever/, გამჭრიახი/insightful/ - malin, habile, perspicace. For example: un fin joueur - მოხერხებული მოთამაშე /smart player/. There are two main categories of adjectives in French language: descriptive adjectives and non-descriptive i.e. determining adjectives, so called "determinatives". Descriptive adjectives belong to the category of "predicatives". L. Tesnière describes this category of adjectives as "the most common" category of adjectives, as they describe the permanent or perceived qualities of a thing(s) or an event(s), which is a primary purpose of this part of speech. These are: colour, shape, intensity, size, all the characteristic features of objects, which are closely related to and arising out of their nature. (Tesnière, 1959, p.34). The other category of adjectives include non-descriptive adjectives i.e. determinatives, these are words that are more often referred to as determiners that serve the purpose of introduction of the words they modify into the discourse. For example: Cet arbre - ეს ხე /this tree/, ma montre - ჩემი მაჯის საათი /my watch/, quel jour? -რომელი დღე? /which day?/ tous les élèves - ყველა მოსწავლე /all the students/. There are six types of determinatives, these are: numerals and quantifiers, possessive adjectives, demonstrative adjectives, relative adjectives, interrogative adjectives and indefinite adjectives (Grevisse, 1980, p.436).

Descriptive adjectives serving as epithets can either precede the noun they modify or follow it. i.e. they can be either prenominal or post-nominal adjectives. Furthermore, there are many adjectives which can function as an epithet as well as an attribute. The semantic significance of adjectives is that they are used solely with nouns.

The major semantic functions of the adjective are as follows: 1) to describe or modify an object expressed by a noun (objective assessment of its characteristic feature); and 2) subjective assessment of an object, i.e., subjective attitude of a speaker to a given object. An epithet – a grammatically weak adjective – is not considered as an independent part of the sentence although it can be very important for syntactic structure of the sentence (Referovskaya, 1982, p. 106).

In many cases, the semantic content of an adjective introduces a kind of "change" to the meaning of a noun it modifies, if it contains semes expressing either quantity or quality. In this case the meaning of the noun is regulated by the adjective which is able to either limit or intensify its characteristic feature. For example: une arrogance modérée-ზომიერი თავხედობა /moderate arrogance/ (limiting); une beauté extraordinaire - არაჩვეულებრივი სილამაზე /extraordinary beauty/ (intensifying).

The abovementioned is the demonstration of the efficiency of relation between the semantic content of nouns and adjectives which form a group with a distinctive meaning and function in the sentence. A less informative noun can require further description and in this case use of adjectives is necessary; semantic content of a noun and an adjective can either be similar or dissimilar. In case of an informative noun, usage of determinants is not required, thus usage of adjectives modifying this noun is optional.

II.   METHODOLOGY

Methods that are to be used in this study include a descriptive method, as well as a deductive method, while providing examples chosen from the research material in order to consolidate the arguments and theory developed during the study, as we consider it important to identify and highlight the similarities and differences that exist between the two non-related languages. In addition inductive method will be incredibly successful in investigating the causes of the cases revealed in the process of studying particular examples chosen from the research material, which in turn will be of great help in developing correct theories and making appropriate conclusions.

III.   RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In Georgian language choosing equivalents of descriptive adjectives can be determined by the lexical and grammatical category to which the noun, which is to be modified, belongs (human and non-human, animate and inanimate, concrete and abstract etc. nouns). The modifier of a noun can be expressed by an adjective, participle or the structure: Pr éposit. +0 art+S.

For example: the Georgian language equivalent of the French adjective vif is ცოცხალი /lively/. Though, while analysing the syntagma: S+vif or vif+S, we can readily identify two types of word groups, these are: 1) limiting and 2) descriptive. The former type is used to denote particular objects, for example: la chaux vive - ჩაუმქრალი კირი /quicklime/; l'eau vive - წყაროს წყალი /spring water/. In this type of syntagmas the adjective vif limits the meaning of the major components (la chaux - კირი/lime/, l'eau - წყალი /water/), i.e. the broader meaning of the given noun is reduced to mean a particular object. In fact we get composite terms, like: ჩაუმქრალი კირი /quicklime/; წყაროს წყალი /spring water/.

In the second type of word groups the French adjective vif» does not limit the semantic content of the noun it modifies; on the contrary, it adds some information to the meaning of the noun. For example: un enfant vif - მოძრავი ბავშვი /a lively child/.   In combination with yet another type of nouns, it intensifies the semantic content of the noun; this type of nouns includes nouns expressing action or quality. For example: une démarche vive -სწრაფი სიარული /a quick walk/; une fusillade vive -გაცხოველებული სროლა /intense shootout/; une lumière vive -კაშკაშა სინათლე /a bright light/; une vive discussion - მწვავე კამათი /a heated discussion/. Thus, adjective-noun combination differs from language to language. In order to adequately choose Georgian equivalent of an adjective, we should first realize the semantic structure of this adjective and consider the ways this adjective forms a group of words together with a noun, in French and in Georgian Languages.

Morphological components can be explained by two reasons: 1) great possibilities provided by Georgian language to form descriptive adjectives derived from nouns. For example: ოქროს /golden/ - en or, რკინის /of iron/- de fer; 2) the ability of descriptive adjectives in Georgian language to adjust to any style, while adjective phrases are more common to scientific and literary styles. For example: un bain de soleil - მზის აბაზანა /a sun bath/, le spectre solaire - მზის სპექტრი /the solar spectrum/.

French attributive groups can be comparable to their Georgian equivalents in respect to morphology, where adjectives are expressed by adjective phrases. For example: le peuple français - ფრანგი ხალხი /the French people/ (convergence); l'arrivée présidentielle - პრეზიდენტის ჩამოსვლა /president's arrival/ (divergence); l'industrie française - საფრანგეთის წარმოება /the industry of France/, ფრანგული წარმოება /French industry/ (alternative solution). Thus, the equivalents of adjective phrases in Georgian language can be: 1) descriptive adjectives; 2) nouns in the genitive case; 3) both descriptive adjectives and nouns in the genitive case.

Choosing Georgian equivalents to descriptive adjectives is determined by existence of equivalent descriptive adjectives in Georgian language. For example: la philosophie marxiste /Marxist philosophy/ and la philosophie kantienne /Kantian philosophy/ are morphological and identical from the viewpoint of their formation (both adjectives are formed from proper nouns). Though the Georgian equivalent of the former syntagma is a descriptive adjective

მარქსისტული ფილოსოფია/Marxist philosophy/, whereas the Georgian equivalent of the latter is an adjective phrases, expressed by a noun in the genitive case -კანტის ფილოსოფია/philosophy of Kant/.

Common practice and norms existing in the language should be considered while choosing equivalents for adjectives. For example: usage of the phrase სამედიცინო დაკვირვება /medical surveillance/ - la surveillance médicale, is considered as a violation of the norms of the language, as a more appropriate and natural phrase is ექიმის დაკვირვება /doctor's supervision/-surveillance du médecin. For the same reasons transposition i.e. morphological replacement is used while choosing equivalents. For example: une tendresse attentive-ნაზი ყურადღება /a tender affection/; une présence feminine - ქალის ყოფნა /female representation/; une situation industrielle - სამრეწველო მდგომარეობა /an industrial situation/.

As for the set of components of predicative group, according to the norms of French language, adjectives follow the noun i.e. they are post-nominal, whereas according to Georgian language norms they come before the noun i.e. they are prenominal. Prenominal use of the adjectives predominantly serves the purpose of defining meanings; sometimes prenominal adjectives are used as stylistic factors. As J. Marouzeau puts it "L'esprit place l'épithète après le nom et le cœur le place avant"-" The mind puts epithet after the noun and the heart puts it before the noun (Marouzeau, 1950, p. 17). It should be noted, that, in general, adjectives realize their primary meaning in post-nominal position, whereas the realization of derivative meaning is carried out in pre-nominal position. For example: l'histoire ancienne-უძველესი ამბავი /an ancient history/; un dîner maigre - სამარხვო ვახშამი /meagre dinner/. Choosing equivalents for a predicative group is carried out considering its lexical and grammatical meaning. There are three types of predicative groups: monomial (a noun with only one adjective), binomial (a noun with two adjectives), and polynomial (a noun with more than two adjectives). It will be considered the characteristics of monomial group using a case study on the following adjectives: petit, grand, seul /small, big, single/. These adjectives are most commonly used adjectives.

When used with concrete animate or inanimate nouns the adjective petit indicates the size which is less than normal or usual. For example: un petit avion-პატარა თვითმფრინავი /a small plane/. When used with abstract nouns, its semantic content can undergo some transformation and acquire the meaning of "less". Thus, the lexical equivalents of the adjective petit are small, insignificant: un petit enfant - პატარა ბავშვი /a small child/, de petits événements - უმნიშვნელო მოვლენები /insignificant events/.

In the syntagmas describing environmental conditions, the Georgian equivalents of the adjective petit are ხანმოკლე, სუსტი /short-term, mild, light/ - passager, faible. For example: un petit vent-სუსტი ქარი /a light wind/; une petite pluie - ხანმოკლე წვიმა /a short-term rain/. In the syntagmas describing acoustic and visual phenomena, the Georgian equivalents of the adjective petit are: სუსტი, მკრთალი, ჩუმი, ხმადაბალი /soft, silent, faint, feeble/ - faible, bas. For example: un petit rire - ხმადაბალი სიცილი /a soft laughter/; un petit cri - ჩუმი შეძახილი /a silent call/; une petite lumière - მკრთალი სინათლე /a faint light/.

On the basis of primary meaning of the adjective some derived meanings are formed. For example: un petit sourire - თავშეკავებული ღიმილი /a restrained smile/ - sourire réservé; un petit diplôme - ჩვეულებრივი დიპლომი /an ordinary diploma/- diplôme ordinaire. In the discourse expressing emotion the adjective «petit» may bear a meaning of degrading or degraded. Example: -Comment va ta petite santé? -როგორ გაქვს შერყეული ჯანმრთელობა /How's your failing health?/ i.e. Comment va ta santé ébranlée?

When used with negative epithets the adjective «petit» communicates degradation. For example: un minable petit professeur -un professeur de niveau inférieur -დაბალი დონის უბადრუკი მასწავლებელი /a miserable teacher of low qualification/. When the adjective petit represents a component of limiting predicative group or that of a set expression, its equivalents can be found among the words of semantically adequate nomination. For example: la petite enfance - ადრეული ბავშვობა /early childhood/; les petites classes - დაბალი კლასები /lower grades/; les petits fours - ტკბილდვეზელა/ petit fours/.

Choosing the equivalent for the adjective grand is also determined by the nature of the nominative component. In its primary meaning the adjective grand used with animate and inanimate objects describes objects the size of which exceed the normal size of the object. The Georgian equivalent of this adjective is დიდი /big/. For example: un grand chien - დიდი ძაღლი /a big dog/. On the basis of primary meaning of the adjective grand some derived meanings are

formed, which are translated into Georgian as adjectives having relevant semantic content. For example: un grand sourire -გულით გაღიმება /a hearty smile/- sourire de tout cœur.

In the syntagmas describing environmental conditions, the Georgian equivalents of the adjective grand can be the Georgian adjective ძლიერი /strong, extreme/. Example: une grande chaleur - ძლიერი სიცხე - une chaleur trὲs forte /extreme heat/. In the syntagmas describing environmental conditions the Georgian equivalents of the adjective grand are ძლიერი /strong, loud/, ხმამაღალი /loud/, კაშკაშა /bright/ - fort, haut. For example: un grand cri - ძლიერი ყვირილი /a loud cry/ - un cri fort; une grande lumiὲre - კაშკაშა სინათლე /a bright light/ - une forte lumiὲre.

When modifying a period of time, the adjective grand can have the meaning of intensity; the corresponding Georgian equivalents are: ხანგრძლივი /long-term/, უსასრულო /infinite/ - long, infini. For example: durant de grands mois -ხანგრძლივი თვეების განმავლობაში /during the long months/. The abovementioned adjective is used in its general meaning. For example: une grande nouvelle - მნიშვენლოვანი ახალი ამბავი /important news/ - une nouvelle de grande importance; un grand ćrivain -გამოჩენილი მწერალი /a prominent writer/ -un ćrivain ćminent.

In limiting predicative groups, the adjective grand assumes a function of an epithet with some types of nouns, limiting i.e., specifying the meaning of the noun. For example: les grandes vacances -ზაფხულის არდადეგები /Summer holidays/ (les vacances d'été); la grande sœur - უფროსი და /elder sister/ (la sœur aînée);   les grandes personnes- უფროსები /adults/ (les adultes).

Choosing an equivalent for the adjective seul is determined by its syntactic function. When used as an epithet the above mentioned adjective can have different equivalents. In the structure: art(article) (definite) +seul +S, the equivalents of the adjective seul are: მარტო /only/, ერთადერთი /sole/, მხოლოდ ერთი /only one/. In the negative sentences its equivalent is არც ერთი /no/. For example: Elle a une seule amie - მას ერთი მეგობარი ჰყავს /he has only one friend -elle n'a qu'une amie. Elle n'a pas une seule amie - მას არც ერთი მეგობარი არ ჰყავს /he has no friends/-Elle n'a aucune amie. Cette seule raison aurait pu le décider - მხოლოდ ამ მოსაზრებას შეეძლო ალბათ მისი შეგულიანება, რომ გადაწყვეტილება მიეღო /this was the sole argument that could encourage him to make a decision/.

In the structures: art (definite)+seul +S; Pron. person. ton.+seul ; seul+art+S; the equivalents of the given adjective are: ერთი /one/, მხოლოდ ერთი /only one/, მხოლოდ /alone/. For example: Un homme seul ne peut mener àbien une telle entreprise-ერთ ადამიანს არ ძალუძს მსგავსს ღონისძიებას გაუმკლავდეს /A man alone can't manage such a venture/; Le hasard seul peut le favoriser - მხოლოდ შემთხვევას შეუძლია მას დაეხმაროს /only chance can help him/. When serving as a predicate nominal in the structure: V-verb, which expresses a state+seul, its equivalents are: მარტო /alone/, ეული /lone/, მარტოსული /lonesome/. For example: Il reste seul - ის მარტო დარჩა /He was left alone/. When serving as a modifier of state in the structure: V-verb, expressing action +seul (tout seul): seul, tout seul, the equivalents of the adjective are: თვითონ /himself/herself/, სხვისი დახმარების გარეშე /without anyone's help/. Example: Il le fera tout seul - ის ამას თვითონ გააკეთებს /he will do it himself/.

In a binomial predicative group, the following positions of adjective components can exist:

1. Post-nominal position. Example: un mἐdecin de village1 consciencieux2 -კეთილსინდისიერი სოფლის ექიმი /a conscientious rural doctor. This phrase can be expressed with the following structure: Fr. S. E1. E2-----gἀ. E2. E1. S.

2. Prenominal position. Example: un bref et ironique entrefilet - მოკლე და ირონიული შენიშვნა /a brief and ironic comment/;   Fr. E1. et E2. S-gἀ. – E1. (and) E2. S

3. Framework. Example: une longue1table de chȇne2; une belle1 nuit bleue2 - გ რძ ე ლ 1 მ უ ბ ი ს 2 მ ა გ ი და /A long oak table/; მ შ ვ ე ნ ი ე რ ი 1 ლ ურ ჯ ი 2 და მ ე /A beautiful blue night/. An epithet, which expresses a constant feature or a feature that is considered important in the given case, takes post-nominal position. E1 expresses secondary and subjective assessment of the feature, which is associated with a noun. Fr. E1. S. E 2. --- gἀ. E1. E2. S.

For adequate perception of a polynomial predicative group, it should be highlighted the relationship that exist between some of its components. Example: un service en porcelaine blanche ornée de filets d'or effacés à demi. The given polynomial predicative group can be divided as follows: un service en porcelaine; en porcelaine blanche; en porcelaine blanche ornée; ornée de filets d'or; ornée de filets d'or effacés à demi. Georgian equivalent of the polynomial predicative group should express the same relationship: თე ითრი ფა ი ფურის ს ე რვ ი ზი

ნახევრა დწაშლ ლო (გახუნ ე ბ ულ) ოქროს ფერი ზოლ ბ ით /White porcelain dinner set with faded golden stripes/. In French language all the adjectives have post-nominal position, whereas in Georgian language the noun is placed in the middle of the phrase, separating the groups of adjectives from each-other.

In the examples given above, the function of the adjective is to express a feature of the noun. The same function can be performed by a noun in post-nominal position: Examples: le Roi-Soleil - მ ე ფე მზე /King Sun i.e. Louis XIV/, le philosophe Hegel-ფი ლოს ოფოს ი პ ე გ ე ლ /Philosopher Hegel/. The above mentioned examples represent direct structures. There are indirect structures as well. Examples: la ville de Paris - ქა ლ ქი პ ა რი ზი /the city of Paris/, le mois de mai - მ ა ი ს ის თვე /the month of May/, where the key words: Paris, mai represent controlled words. This type of structures is characteristic to the style with emotional colour. Examples: ce trésor d'enfant; ce laideron de François. This type of structures doesn't have exact equivalents in Georgian language. They are expressed by exclamatory sentences. Examples: - Pauvre de moi! - რა ს ა ცოდა ვი ვა რ! /- Poor me!/- Un trésor d'enfant! - ბავშვი კი ა რა , გ ა ნ ძია /Not a child but a treasure/. -Un drôle de type! - რა უცნა ური ტიპია ! / A funny guy/.

Some characteristics of an object can be expressed by means of the nouns, which consist of a descriptive sema. The position of such nouns is strictly defined in the sentence. They come after the noun they modify, as if they were adjectives. The form of such nouns remains unchanged. Examples: un café nature - ნა ტურა ლური ყა ვა /natural coffee/; des robes marron-წ ა ბლის ფერი კა ბ ე ბ ი /maroon dresses/; des cheveux carotte - ს ტა ფილოს ფერი თმ ე ბ ი /ginger hair/. An unchanged form of the noun suggests that it does not entirely change its nature and this transformation is functional. Some of the nouns have assumed the characteristics of an adjective and they agree with the nouns they modify in gender and number. Example: un plan directeur - გ ე ნ ე რა ლური გ ე გ მ ა /a master plan/, une idée directrice - წ ა მ ყვა ნ ი იდეა /a guiding idea/. Not only nouns can be used as adjectives; the same is true with adverbs, though the number of adverbs that function as adjectives is not great. For example: la roue avant - წ ი ნ ა ბ ორ ბ ა ლი /a front wheel/; s'arrêter net -ე ნ ის ა ბ ნ ე ვ ა /to stop short/. The most commonplace and frequent use of nouns as adjectives is their use with a preposition. Examples: un objet métallique=un objet de métal, en metal -მ ე ტა ლ ის ს ა გ ა ნი /a metal object/. Though, it should be noted that there is no mandatory semantic correlation between the adjectives and prepositional noun phrases with the same root, which modify other nouns. Examples: prepositional noun phrase: de père - მ ა მ ის /of father/, does not always mean the same as the adjective paternal - მ შ ობ ლ იური /paternal/; la maison de père means that this is the house that belongs to father, whereas the phrase la maison paternelle implies figurative meaning-The entire family, home. მ თე ლ ი ოჯა ხ ის კ ე რა ს , მ შ ობ ლ ურ კ ე რა ს /The entire family, home/.

With adjectives expressing colour, when the first adjective is clarified by the second adjective or a noun, the given group of words remain unchanged: des robes bleu pâle; des rubans vert clair, vert sombre. It should be noted difference between: des cravates rose et bleu - meaning that the tie is of combined colour: blue and pink, and des cravates roses et bleues - meaning ties of different colours, a blue tie and a pink tie (Hamon, 1987, p. 51).

Possessive adjectives are determinatives. In Georgian language this adjectives do not need to be expressed in special forms. For example to describe parts of the body, or with regard to everyday objects and so forth. Examples: Robert a collé son front à la vitre -რობ ე რ ი შ უბ ლ ით მ ი ე ყ რდნ ო მ ინ ა ს /Robert pressed his forehead against the window/. The possessive pronoun   son   does not have its equivalent in Georgian language, as Georgian language is a synthetic language and the form of the verb expresses that his own forehead is meant. While describing, when possessive adjective precedes the noun, the equivalent of the adjective is a personal pronoun. Example: Sa tête était ronde, ses oreilles petites, son nez droit - მ ა ს ჰ ქ ონ და მ რგვა ლ ი თა ვი , პ ა ტა რა ყ ურ ე ბ ი , ს წ ორი ცხვი რი /He had a round head, small ears, a straight nose./ - Il a eu une tête ronde, de petites oreilles, un nez droit.

When possessive relationship is determinant, possessive adjective is not used in Georgian language. Sometimes, usage of possessive adjectives may lead to ambiguities with the third-person forms son, sa. This creates problems and requires additional means of expressing possession in both languages. Examples: - Elle m'a même dit qu'elle aurait été heureuse de le revoir avant sa mort. –Avant sa mort à…elle ou avant sa mort à lui? - მ ა ნ (ქა ლ მ ა)ი სი ც კი მ ი თხრა , რომ ქა ლ ა ნ გ ა უხ ა რდე ბ ოდა თუ მ ა ს (კა ცს)ს ი კ ვ დი ლ მ დე ნ ა ხა ვ და . She even said that she would be happy if she saw him before death – whose death is meant here, the death of the woman or of the man?

The equivalent of a possessive adjective can be a possessive pronoun - ს ა კ უთა რი /own/, when there is a correlation between the noun denoting an object under ownership and the subject. This equivalent has no analogy. Example: Nous nous faisions vis-à-vis, avec chacun notre lampe et notre fauteuil Voltair -ე რთმ ა ნ ე თის პ ი რის პ ირ ვ ის ხ ე დი თ, თითოე ულ ი ს ა კ უთა რ ვ ოლ ტ ე რის ე ულ ს ა ვა რძ ე ლ ში , ს ა კ უთა რ ლ მ პ ა ს თა ნ /We were sitting vis-à-vis, in our "Voltaire" armchairs with our own lamps/. This is the case of full convergence.

The equivalent of a possessive adjective used with a noun of lexical type can be its analogue, if it is used to differ and juxtapose the objects that have different owners. Example: Tenant sa main gauche de sa main droite, Nestor dessinait et écrivait de la main gauche - ე ჭ ი რა რა ჩ ე მ ი მ ა რცხ ე ნ ა ხ ე ლ ი თა ვი სი მ ა რჯვ ე ნ ა ხ ე ლ ით, ნ ე ს ტორი ხ ა ტა ვ და და წ ე რდა მ ა რცხ ე ნ ა ხ ე ლ ით /Holding my left hand in his right hand, Nestor was drawing and writing with his left hand/.

In Georgian language it is not necessary to repeat possessive pronouns with the homogenous parts of the sentence which are actualized using possessive adjectives. Example: J'ai sonné; Marie-Toussaint est venue. Elle m'a apporté ma robe de chambre et mes pantoufles - და ვრეკე . მარი-ტუსენი მოვიდა . ხალთი და ფოსტლები მომიტანა / I rang; Marie Toussaint came. She brought me my robe and slippers/.

It should be noted that the use of possessive adjectives for emphasis is the case of convergence, however, in Georgian language possessive adjective is used only once. Example: - Chère Naïs, ne laissez pas jouer votre vie, votre honneur, votre avenir par un sot; Imposez-lui silence à l'instant - ძვირფასო ნაის, ნუ მისცემთ უფლებას ვიდაც უგუნურს ითამაშოს თქვენი ცხოვრებით, ღირსებით, მომავლით. ცოტა ხნითგააჩუმეთიგი /Dear Naïs, don't let a fool play with your life, your honor, your future; silence him for a while/.

A possessive adjective can express subjective as well as objective interrelationship. For example: 1. Qui vous a parlé de mon arrivée?- ვინ გითხრათ ჩემი ჩამოსვლის შესახებ ? /Who told you about my arrival?/ Qui vous a dit que je suis arrivé?- ვინ გითხრა თ, რომ ჩამოვედი ? /Who told you that I had arrived?/ 2. Il viendra à mon secours. Il m'aidera - ის ჩემ დასახმარებლოდ მოვა. ის დამეხმარება /He will come to help me. He'll help me./ The former example shows that the possessive adjective is correlated with the subject of the sentence. (je suis arrive -ჩამოვედი /I arrived/) So, it expresses subjective relations. In the latter example, the possessive adjective is correlated with the direct object and therefore, it expresses objective relations. In case of subjective relations, the equivalent of possessive adjective is its analogue (example: mon arrivé-ჩემი ჩამოსვლა /my arrival/). In case of objective relations, the Georgian equivalent of possessive adjective is a personal pronoun. Example: -Monsieur, je suis charmé du hasard qui me procure votre connaissance - ბატონო, მოხარული ვარიმ შემთხვევის გამო, რომ გაგიცანით /Sir, I am glad I had the opportunity to meet you/.

Possessive adjectives are used to denote repetitive, usual facts or the events of periodical character. This is the case of partial convergence. Example: - Alors vous tenez à ce que j'ai ma migraine? - მაშასადამე, ძალიან გინდათ, რომ ისევ დამეწყოს შაკიკი? /So, do you want me to have a headache again?/. Its equivalents are its analogues adjectives: ჩვეულებრივი /usual/, უცვლელი /unchanged/, ვინმესთვის და მახასიათებელი /characteristic/ or adverbs, like: კვლავ /again/, როგორც ყოველთვის /as usual/.

Possessive adjectives can express personal interest of a speaker. In this case its equivalent is a lexical means. Example: Le souvenir de Gilberte me traversa le cœur: je connaissais sa dévotion fanatique. Voilà mon cadeau trouvé-ჯილბერტის გახსენებისას, გულ ამიჩქროლდა, რადგანაც კარგად ვიცნობდი მის ფანატიკურ დვთისმოსავობას. სწორედ ეს ის საჩუქარი იყო, რომლის პოვნაცასე მსურდა /The memory of Gilberte made my heart beat harder, as I knew about his fanatical devotion. That was the gift I was so eager to find/.

With the nouns expressing place adverbials, the equivalent of possessive adjective is a verbal form of the aspect. Example: Elle prit Guillou sur ses genoux - მან (ქალმა) გიუმუხლებზე დაისვა /She (a woman) placed Guillou on her lap/.

With the nouns expressing military ranks, when low ranking military personnel address high ranking military personnel, usage of possessive adjective in the syntax position serves the purpose of showing respect. Its Georgian equivalent is a lexical element ბატონო /Sir/ -Monsieur. Example: - Qui va là? - C'est moi, lieutenant Soubeyrac. - Ah! C'est vous, mon lieutenant-ვინ მოდის?- მე ვარ ლეიტენანტი სუბეირაკ - ოჰ, ეს თქვენ ხართ, ბატონო ლეინტენანტო -C'est vous Monsieur le lieutenant? /Who's there? -It's me, Lieutenant Soubeyrac. Ah! It is you, Sir!/

The same is true with the nouns expressing priestly title. Its Georgian equivalents are lexical means. Example: Pardon, mon révérend père, je ne vous accompagnerai pas: mes convictions ne me le permettent point - ბოდიშს მოვითხოვ ფრიად პატივცემულო მამაო, არ შემიძლია გაგაცილოთ: ამას ჩემი მრწამსი მიკრძალავს . /Sorry, Reverend Father, I cannot accompany you, my belief won't allow me to/.

When addressing servants, the use of possessive adjectives serves the purpose of giving the phrase arrogant and degrading intonation. Some lexical means are used as their equivalents in Georgian language. Example: Mais tout à coup il rentra, et s'adressant à la bonne: - Dis donc, ma fille, tu vas nous faire à déjeuner - უცებ ისევ დაბრუნდა ოთახში და მოსამსახურეს უთხრა: -აბა, ქვირფასო, მოგვიმზადე საჭმელი /But suddenly he returned, and addressed the servant: -Tell me my dear if you have made us lunch/.

As for the use of possessive adjectives with the terms denoting family connections in the syntactic position especially with the words such as: père, mère, oncle, tante they no longer express respect in French language and have purely grammatical meaning. In the given case, the equivalent of the French possessive adjective in Georgian language is possessive pronoun, which is placed after the noun. Example: Je dis: -Eh bien, mon oncle, vous êtes couché? Ça ne va donc pas?-შეკითხე, როგორ ბიძაჩემო, უკვე დაწექით? ესე იგი თავს ცუდად გრძნობთ? /I asked: Why, my uncle, are you already in bed? Do you feel so bad?/.

With the words such as: frère, sœur, neveu, nièce, possessive adjective can be used to express emotion. Example: -Eh bien! Ma sœur, je viens d'apprendre ton marriage-და იკო, კვირფასო, ახლხან შევიტყვე შენი ქორწინების შესახებ /Well! My sister, I've just heard about your wedding/.

It should also be mentioned that possessive adjectives represent the components of set expressions. Example: faire ses études, faire son malin, se mettre sur ses gardes, prendre son parti. In this case the equivalent is chosen for the whole phrase. Example: - Mais, en arrivant à Paris, qu'est-ce que tu as fait? - J'ai fait mon droit - აბა, რას საქმიანობდი, როცა პარიზში ჩამობვედი?-ჩვკაბარე იურიდიულ ფაკულტეტზე და სწავლ და ვიტყე. /Well what have you been doing since you arrived in Paris? I have been studying Law/.

Demonstrative adjectives are capable of actualizing nouns and in this case there is no need of introducing specific means in their translations. Example: - Il la (la chatte) prit dans ses bras. Il lui passa ses doigts sur le museau…- მან (ქალმა) კატა ხელში აიყვანა და დრუნჩზე ხელი მოუსვა … /She (the woman) took the cat in her hands and ran her fingers over its nose…/

When the focus is on the function of demonstrating something, demonstrative adjectives: ის, ეს, ისეთი, ასეთი, ისე, ასე /this, that, this kind, that kind, this way, that way/ are used in Georgian language. Example: -Cette nuit à Menagio, mon ami Vasi m'a donné son passeport - იმ ღამეს, მენაჯიოში, ჩემმა მეგობარმა ვაზიმ თავისი პასპორტი მომცა. /That night at Menaggio, my friend Vasi gave me his passport/.

With the nouns denoting period of a day, in the expressions associated with the discourse, the equivalents of French demonstrative adjectives in Georgian language can be დღეს /today/ or there may be no equivalent used in the translation. Example: Il te prie de l'excuser pour ce qui s'est passé ce matin - ის ბოდიშს ითხოვს იმის გამო, რაც დღეს დილით მოხდა /He apologizes for what happened this morning/.

With the nouns denoting period of a day, in the expressions associated with the discourse, the adjectives are both demonstrative and possessive, because the function of possession is added to the function of demonstration. In this case the Georgian equivalent of French demonstrative adjectives can be possessive adjectives. Example: - Jean de la Monnerie, continua—t-il, restera comme l'un des plus grands écrivains de cette époque, le plus grand peut-être -მან დასძინა: -ჟან დე ლა მონრი ფრანგული ლიტერატურის ისტორიაში შევა როგორც ჩვენი დროის ერთ-ერთი უდიდესი მწერალ, შესაძლოა ყველ ზე დიდი მწერალც კი /Jean de la Monnerie, he continued, will remain as one of the greatest writers of our time, perhaps the greatest/.

With the homogenous parts of the sentence, which are actualized by demonstrative adjectives, repetition of these demonstrative adjectives is optional. Example: Il pensa tout à coup que ce garçon avec ces boucles courtes, avec ce vaste front, et ce pli entre les sourcils était le même qui lisait ces livres, qui travaillait à cette table - მან უცეზ გაიფიქრა, რომ ეს პატარა შუბლიანი ბიჭი, მოკლ კულულებით, წარბებს შორის პატარა ნაოჭით, სწორედის, ვინც ამ წიგნების კითხულობს, ამ მაგიდასთან მუშაობს /He suddenly thought that this boy with small forehead, with short curly hair and a small fold between his eyebrows, the one who read these books, worked at the table/.

Demonstrative adjectives can be used as a means of emphasis. The equivalent of this emphasis can be expressed by different kinds of adjectives. Example: Comme tous ses camarades, en cet été de 1914, il attendait beaucoup des résolutions, qu'allait prendre le Congrès socialiste qui devait se réunir à Vienne le 23 août -1914 წლის სამახსოვრო წელს, ის, თავისი მეგობრების მსგავსად ბევრს ელოდებოდა სოციალისტური პარტიების კონგრესის გადაწყვეტილებებისაგან, რომლებიც უნდა შეკრებილყვნენ ვენაში 23 აგვისტოს /Like all his friends, in this memorable summer of 1914, he expected much from the resolutions passed by the Socialist Congress, which was to meet in Vienna on August 23/.

The same can be said about the use of demonstrative adjectives in the discourse expressing emotion. Example: -Ah, ces Virenet !...Que je suis fatigué !...Ces Virenet ! Mon Dieu! - ოხ, ეს ვირენეს ოჯახი! როგორ დავიდალე! ეს ვირენეს ოჯახი! ღმერთო ჩემო! /Ah, those Virenets!... I'm tired of them! ... These Virenets! My God!/

Though, if the intonation is highly expressive, the demonstrative adjectives might have no lexical equivalent. Example: -Tiens, cette question ! répondit Nana - რა შეკითხვაა! შესხაბა ნანამ /What a question! Nana replied/.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Indefinite adjectives are capable of actualizing nouns. These are: a) Aucun – The choice of a Georgian equivalent is determined by the type of the sentence: in affirmative sentences and in questions its equivalents are: რაიმე, რომელიმე, /something, anything some, any/ and in the negative sentences its equivalents are: არც ერთი, არავითაri /none of, none/. For example: -Je trouve qu'il trouve aucun secours auprès de lui - ეჭვი მეპარება, რომ რაიმე მხარდაჭერა ნახოს მან მისი მხრიდან. /I don't think he will be of any help to him/ -Je n'ai aucune information à ce sujet-ა რა ვითაri ინფორმაcია არ გამაჩnia ამ საკითხზე / I have no information in this regard/.

The sentences which contain definite adjective aucun can be subject to transformation in the process of translation. For example:-Naïs mangeait sans aucun souci de ce qui s'était passé-ნაისი აგრძელებდა ჭამას და სრულებითაც არაინტერესებდა ის, თუ რა მოხდა /Nais continued eating without any concern for what had happened/.

b) The definite adjective quelque used with a noun has the function of the article un. The equivalent is chosen according to the number of the noun: quelque - რომელიღაც, რომელიმე, ნებისმიერი, ზოგიერთი /a, some, any/; quelques -რამდენიმე /some/. For example: avoir quelque peine - რაიმე სირთულის გა
ნცდა /having some trouble/; pour quelque temps -რამდენიმე ხნით /for some time/; quelques livres -
რამდენიმე წიგნი /some books/.

The structure quelques+S+que+V in the subjunctive mood is used in the meaning of concession. Its equivalents can be: როგორიც არ /whatever/, რა ნაირიც არ /however/ or a lexical unit of the same meaning. For example: -Nous partirons par quelque temps que ce soit -ჩვენ გავემგზავრებით [როგორი ამინდიც არ უნდა იყოს],ნებისმიერ ამინდში /We will leave [whatever the weather is] in any weather.

c) With other adjectives, with adverbs of number quelque functions as an adverb and expresses either a small quantity or approximate number. Its Georgian equivalent can be: ცოტათი /slightly/, დაახლოებით /approximately/, ოდნავ /a little/. For example: Il a quelque 40 ans - ის დაახლოებით 40 წლისაა /He is approximately 40 years old/. Il a paru quelque peu surprise - ის, ცოტა გაკვირვებულ ჩანს /He seems to be slightly astonished/.

The adjective quelconque modifies a noun and is used to intensify the meaning of the article un. Its Georgian equivalents are: რაიმე, რომელიმე /some, any/. For example: ne pas venir pour une raison quelconque - რაიმე მიზეზის გამო არმოსვლა /not coming for some reason/.

It should be noted that in contemporary French language quelconque is used as a descriptive adjective, which has a degrading meaning. Its Georgian equivalents are ბანალური /banal/, უმნიშვნელო /minor/. For example: un film bien quelconque -მდარე ფილმი /a low quality movie/, un comédien très quelconque - საშუალო დონის მსახიობი /a not so good actor/.

An adjective that should be singled out from indefinite adjectives is the adjective tout, the meaning of which is determined through the way it actualizes the noun. The structure tout+0 art.+S has the meaning of general distribution. Its Georgian equivalents are ნებისმიერი /any/, ყოველი /every/, ყველაფერი /everything/. For example: tout people- ყოველი ხალხი /every people/; The equivalent of pour +tout+0 art.+S is ერთად ერთი /one, only/. For example: Pour tout bagage, il emporta un parapluie - ქოლგა ერთადერთი რამ იყო,რაც მან წაიღო /an umbrella was the only luggage he carried/. Tout+un+S expresses indefinite whole. Its Georgian equivalent is მთელი /whole, all/. For example: tout un peuple - მთელი ხალხი /all the people/. The structure tout+un+S expresses definite whole. Its Georgian equivalent is the same as in the case mentioned above. For example: Tout le people -მთელი ხალხი /all the people/. This case is an example of the exact convergence. The structure tous +les+S which expresses a period of time, means periodicity. The equivalent of the indefinite adjective tous is ყოველი /every/. For example: tous les jours - ყოველდღე /every day/.   If a noun is preceded by a number, the equivalent of tous is ყოველ..ერთხელ /once in a.../. For example: tous les trois jours - სამ დღეში ერთხელ /once in every three days/. The Georgian equivalent of the structure tous+ les+ adj. numér is a cardinal number. For example: tous les quatre - ოთხივე /the four of them/.

When used with adjectives and adverbs «tout» has the function of an adverb. Its Georgian equivalents are either the adverbs of manner or adjectives in the superlative degree. For example: Ils sont tout contents-ისინი მალზე კმაყოფილები არიან /They are overly satisfied/.

The Georgian equivalent of the structure tout+Préposit+le+S in a prepositional syntagma is a lexical unit მთლად /entirely/. Example: tout dans le fond-მთლად სიღრმეში /in the depth/. In the syntagma S+tout+0art+S, its equivalent is ნამდვილი /genuine/, სუფთა /pure/.

Together with gerund, tout is used to 1) emphasize simultaneousness; 2) juxtapose events. For example: 1) Tout en marchant, il me racontait son histoire -ის მიდიოდა და აგრძელებდა თავისი ამბის მოყოლას /He was walking and telling me his story/. 2) Tout en étant malade, il continue son travail - ავადყოფობის მიუხედავად, ის აგრძელებს მუშაობას /Despite being ill, he continued working/. In this structure the equivalents of «tout» are the lexical units of the same semantic content. The structure tout+ Adj+que +V has the meaning of conceding. Its Georgian equivalent is either a lexical unit of the same semantic content or როგორიც არ /as…as/, მიუხედავად /in spite of/. For example: Tout timide qu'il est, il a osé protester - მისი მორცხობის მიუხედავად,მან წინააღმდეგობის გაწევა გაბედა /In spite of being so shy he dared to protest/. «Tout» is sometimes an element of set expressions. For example: tout à coup, tout à fait, tout à l'heure, tout d'un coup, tout de même, pas du tout, comme tout.   In this case the equivalent is chosen for the whole phrase.

When used with nouns and pronouns, même functions as an indefinite adjective. In this regard we should discuss two cases: 1) art (déterminatif)+ même+ S ; 2) art +S+même   or   Pronom personnel tonique+même. In the former case même is used to denote identity or simultaneousness, in the latter case it is used as a means of intensification, emphasis or accentuation. In the former case its Georgian equivalent is ერთი და იგივე /the same/, სწორედის /the

very/, ერთაირი, მსგავსი, იგივე /same/ etc. in the latter case its Georgian equivalent is თავად /on his/her own/. For example: Ils ont les mêmes gouts - მათ ერთაირი გემოვნება აქვთ /They have the same taste/. Il le fera lui-même - ის ამას თავადგააკეთებს /He will do it on his own/.

When the indefinite adjectives même precedes a noun or a pronoun, which are accompanied by adjectives, adverbs or verbs, même functions as an adverb and is used to denote gradation, opposition and emphasis. In this case its Georgian equivalent is ც /even, too, as well/, სწორედ /exactly, precisely/, თვით /personally/. For example: Il est réservé et même timide - ის თავშეკავებულა და ასევე მორცხვიც /He is reserved and shy as well/.

When used with adverbs of time and place, même serves the purpose of specifying and its Georgian equivalent is სწორედ /exactly, the very/; For example: C'est ici même que l'accident s'est produit - სწორედ აქ მოხდა უბედური შემთხვევა /This is exactly the place where the accident happened/. It has the same meaning when used with pronouns used in the sense of emphasis. For example: - Voici un ami, celui-là même dont je vous ai parlé-აი, ჩემი მეგობარი, სწორედ ის, რომელზეც გელაპარაკეთ /My friend, the one I've mentioned before/.

Même is sometimes a part of the adverbial, prepositional or subjunctive phrases. For example: quand même, tout de même, de même, à même etc. In this case the equivalent is chosen for the whole phrase.

In conclusion, it can be noted that adjectives are very rich and complex with regard to their semantic content. They are used to characterize things and events in order to highlight their nature. Adjective phrases characterize things in relation to other things. Adjectives can characterize things according to their degree of intensity or juxtapose them with other things. These kinds of adjectives are comparative adjectives. Adjectives can express the attitude of a speaker towards the value of things.   These kinds of adjectives are evaluative adjectives. All adjectives have semantic frames and they express different features of a meaning. The semantic content of an adjective is closely associated with the semantic content of the noun it modifies. When used in a discourse, an adjective can combine two meanings: an objective characteristic of a thing and its evaluative feature; i.e. an adjective is capable of giving an objective description and a subjective evaluation. Which one of these will be dominant is determined through the context. The contrastive study of the semantic content of the adjectives in French and Georgian languages is based on the analysis of contemporary literary texts, as well as the data of spoken languages and serves the purpose of determining relevant equivalents of adjective phrases in the two non-related languages. This enabled us to define stylistic frames of adjectives, which is closely associated with their grammatical meaning and stylistic functions as well as with every nuance related with the adjectives in an unknown text. Expressive meaning of an adjective depends on its place and position in a sentence. Determination of its exact meaning is very important for the purpose of translation, especially for the translation of literary texts. Semantic and stylistic nuances make the intention of an author more understandable. This is only possible through translation. This research will be a modest contribution to the contrastive linguistics and translation studies.

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Ketevan Djachy was born in Tbilisi, Georgia on 27 August 1956. In 1973 she has obtained the Certificate of Secondary education, honored with Gold Medal, at school N 23. In 1978 she was graduated with Bachelor degree in French Language of the Roman-German faculty at M. Lomonosov University of Moscow. In 1990 has defended Doctoral Thesis and has obtained the Diploma of PHD in comparative linguistics, Iv. Javakhishvili State University of Tbilisi. In 1996 has obtained the Certificate of a Docent. In 2002 has defended Thesis of Habilitation and has obtained the Diploma of a Doctor of Sciences in Romance philology, Iv. Javakhishvili State University of Tbilisi.

She was Teaching Assistant in Ilia Chavchvadze State Institute of Foreign Languages of Tbilisi. In 1996 she has conferred the scientific-pedagogical title of the Docent. From 2002 to 2006 she was Professor FLE

/LEA at the Branch of Paul Valéry State University of Montpellier III of Ilia State University of Tbilisi. Since 2006 she is Full Professor of Ilia State University of Tbilisi. Since 2003, she is member of Special research group 4509, "Sense, Text, Informatics, History", in Sorbonne University (Paris IV). She had participated in 20 International Conferences. She had obtained beneficiary grants of individual mobility 6 times. In 2000, she took the 3th place in Competition among Universities' Profess ors, held by Embassy of France and was awarded with prize. She took part participated in Trainings (2009 course for Trainer of Information's Technology-Passport TIC, Transfer-Georgia-Tbilisi, organized by AUF, 1999-organized by Embassy of France and Georgian Ministry of Education, 1992-"Language, Culture, Methodology", for Teachers, in "Alliance Française" in Paris, France). In 1997, she has participated in three broadcasts on the "France Culture" and two TV broadcasts on "France 2" in Paris.

Since 1994 she is Simultaneous Interpreter (French-Georgian-French, Russian-French) and has participated in 50 International Conferences, organized by International organizations, as BSEC, PABSEC, UNESCO, TAD, NATO, Council of Europe, dedicated to political, economical, law, social issues. Author of 19 books and 71 articles:

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Prof. Djachy is Member of scientific and editorial board of International Iranian   Review "Le Linguiste", Polish International review E-Scripta Romanica and Member of International Organizations (Since 2012-0EP, CIEF, Since 2010-TIA, 2006-Group LTT of AUF). She has been Member of Doctorate Board (2014, 2010, 2009-Baku, 2006-Paris IV-Sorbonne) at the international level and at the national level 42 times. In 2011 was invested as Chivalry an Order of Academic Palms, by Mr. Eric Fournier, Ambassador of France in Georgia, to contribution to French culture.

Agreement in Standard Arabic VSO and SVO Word Orders: A Feature-based Inheritance Approach

Abdul-Hafeed Ali Fakih
Department of English, Ibb University, Yemen;
Department of English, Najran University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study investigates agreement in VSO and SVO word orders in Standard Arabic (henceforth, SA), shows how VSO and SVO are derived in the syntax, and proposes an alternative analysis based on Chomsky' (2005) feature-based-inheritance approach, which seeks to provide a unified account on the subject. The objective is to explore the interaction between the SA data and Chomsky's feature inheritance analysis. It shows that whether the subject (i.e. the goal with which C agrees) in Spec-v*P in VSO order or in Spec-TopP (=Topic Phrase) in SVO order, the Agree relation can apply and all unvalued uninterpretable features are valued and deleted by matching them with their valued interpretable counterparts. Furthermore, I argue that since the edge feature of the head C of the CP phase is inherited by the Top head, the topicalised elements in Standard Arabic are raised from lower positions to Spec-TopP in SVO order, not the specifier of CP, as assumed in Chomsky (2005). Besides, the paper points out that in SA the features of T in VSO order and the features of T and Top in SVO order are inherited from C, the head of the CP phase. It also adopts Rizzi's (1997) Spilt-CP analysis and proposes a modification of Chomsky's (2005) clause structure in order to account for the position of the topicalised subject in SVO in SA.

Index Terms—agreement, feature inheritance, agree, edge feature, unvalued uninterpretable features, TopP, phase

I. INTRODUCTION

The agreement and word order phenomenon in Standard Arabic (SA) has been the focus of discussion and analysis over the last three decades by the Arab and Western linguists. What is interesting in SA is that there are two dominant word orders which are commonly used in formal settings and daily life conversations: VSO and SVO. In this study I concern myself with agreement in VSO and SVO orders in SA: in the former (i.e. VSO) the subject immediately follows the verb while in the latter the subject (if the preverbal subject NP proves to be a subject) precedes the verb. It has been observed in SA that agreement patterns on the verb morphology are visibly associated with these word orders (Mohammad, 1990, 2000; Aoun et al, 1994; Fassi Fehri, 2005; Benmamoun, 2000a; and Fakih, 2012, 2015).

Furthermore, almost all agreement analyses in SA have shown that agreement in VSO and SVO orders depends on the subject position in relation to that of the verb. In SVO order full agreement exists between the preverbal subject and the verb while partial agreement is obtained between the postverbal subject and the verb in VSO order (Mohammad, 1990; Bahloul and Harbert, 1992; Fassi Fehri, 1993, 2004; Bolotin, 1995; Shlonsky, 1997; Benmamoun, 2000b; Harbert and Bahloul, 2002; and Benmamoun and Lorimor, 2006). Moreover, it can be observed in Arabic agreement literature that subject-verb agreement is commonly known for having an agreement asymmetry which is sensitive to word order variation. There are also other languages in the world which have agreement asymmetries and exhibit word order variation, as seen in Russian (Corbett, 2006), and French and Italian (Frank, Lassi, Frauenfelder and Rizzi, 2006).

This study seeks to explore agreement in VSO and SVO orders, show how VSO and SVO orders are derived morpho-syntactically in SA, and in turn propose an alternative minimalist analysis which provides a unified account on the subject under discussion. It adopts Chomsky's (2005) feature-based-inheritance approach which accounts neatly for the implicit questions raised in this work. It also adopts Rizzi's (1997) Spilt-CP analysis and suggests a modification of Chomsky's (2005) clause structure in order to account for the preverbal subject in SVO order in SA.

The topic of agreement in VSO and SVO orders in SA has been selected for study for the following reasons: (i) agreement in SA has recently been the focus of considerable discussion by Arab and Western scholars, who presented various attempts to analyze agreement patterns in SA within different approaches to syntactic analyses. However, their analyses did not offer a satisfactory account on the subject under investigation. (ii) There is a need to provide a unified account of agreement in VSO and SVO orders in SA within the latest version of Chomsky's (2005) feature inheritance framework, show how VSO and SVO orders are derived in minimalist syntax and how the Arabic data can interact with Chomsky's feature inheritance analysis. The objective is to offer an alternative account to the previous analyses on agreement and word order variation in SA.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 is a literature review on agreement and word order in SA; it reviews the pre-minimalist accounts and explores agreement in minimalist syntax. Section 3 offers an alternative analysis based on Chomsky's (2005) feature inheritance model. It also adopts Rizzi's (1997) Split-CP analysis and proposes a modification of Chomsky's (2005) clause structure to explain the preverbal topic in SVO in SA. Section 4 investigates derivational operations in SA syntax. Section 5 shows how VSO and SVO orders are derived in SA and explores partial and full agreement in VSO and SVO, respectively. Section 6 presents the conclusion of the study.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Pre-minimalist Analyses on Agreement in SA

A closer look at the previous analyses on agreement in SA reveals that such accounts adopt Koopman and Sportiche's (1991) VP-Internal Subject Hypothesis which postulates that the postverbal subject originates in Spec-VP. On the other hand, the preverbal subject in VSO constructions moves from Spec-VP to Spec-TP; this movement is motivated by an EPP feature on T, as seen in (Aoun et la, 1994; Ouhallah, 1994; Mohammad, 1990, 2000; and Mahfoudhi, 2002, among others. In this section I review different accounts on agreement in SA. These accounts are based on the Government & Binding (GB) approach and the earlier version of the Minimalist Program (MP) framework.

A). Mohammad's (1990) Null Expletive Hypothesis

In Chomsky's (1981, 1986, and 1991) GB approach, subject-verb agreement and nominative Case assignment are associated with a Spec-head configuration. The development of the proposal has been seen in Kayne's (1989) discussion of past participle in Romance and witnessed some refinement in Pollock's (1989) Split INFL Hypothesis; the latter explores the layered structure of IP and proposes two AgrP projections (i.e. AgrsP and AgroP) in his influential work on tense and agreement.

Furthermore, building on Pollock's (1989) work, Mohammad (1990, 2000) revisits the analysis of agreement asymmetry in SA and proposes what he calls the 'null expletive hypothesis.' Mohammad claims that agreement is determined under Spec-head configuration. The verb which exhibits grammatical agreement is in the head position T, while an item which determines partial or full agreement on the verb is located in a Spec of TP. Mohammad assumes that partial agreement (i.e. gender agreement) in the unmarked VSO order in SA is obtained via a Spec-head relation between the head I (NFL) and a null expletive in its Spec. That is, in VSO sentences, partial agreement on the verb is the result of the relation between the verb in INFL and a third person singular expletive pronoun in Spec-TP. Hence, Mohammad's (1990, 2000) partial agreement can be derived in the following syntactic representation in (1).

1.
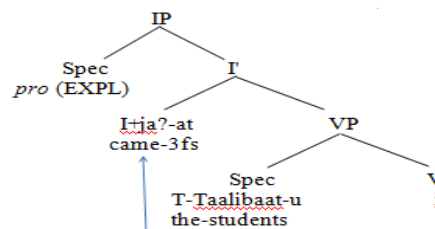
The representation in (1) illustrates how VSO order can be derived in SA, according to Mohammad (1990).

On the other hand, Mohammad argues that in SVO structures full agreement is determined by the preverbal noun phrase, i.e. the lexical subject in Spec-TP. Given this, Mohammad assumes that in SVO order in SA the verb and the subject are also in a Spec-head relation which results from movement of the subject DP from the VP-internal position to Spec-TP, thus deriving full agreement structure. This can be shown in (2) which can schematize the derivational process of SVO order in SA.

2a. ?al-?awlaad-u   waSal-uu
     the-boys.nom.   arrived-3mp.
     'The boys arrived.'
  b.
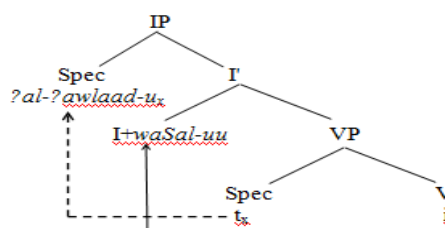
(2b) illustrates that the preverbal subject *?al-?awlaad-u* 'the boys' is in a Spec-head configuration with the verb in the head I(NFL), whereby full agreement between both the verb and its preverbal subject must be achieved.

It should, however, be stated that the null expletive analysis of Mohammad (1990) has some problems; two strong arguments are raised against it. The first argument is theoretical in the sense that the null expletive analysis fails to handle the problem of nominative Case assignment and show the properties of overt expletives in SA. The second argument is empirical; it comes from two different directions. The first one comes from Arabic (Aoun et al, 1994) and the second is cross-linguistically realized in Icelandic (Taraldsen, 1995). In addition, Aoun et al (1994) present a strong argument against the null expletive analysis based on an analysis of agreement patterns from Lebanese Arabic.

On the other hand, Fassi Fehri (1993) argues that the null expletive analysis fails to account for the full agreement pattern found in VSO sentences in Arabic varieties such as Moroccan Arabic (henceforth, MA) and Jordanian Arabic (henceforth, JA). Fassi Fehri's (1993) argument against the null expletive hypothesis stems from the fact that the expletive need not be third person singular since it can also be third person plural pronoun.

Furthermore, Bahloul and Harbert (1992) present a strong argument against the null expletive hypothesis and argue that it fails to account for the structures where the verb exhibits full agreement with the pronominal subject whether it is postverbal or preverbal.

B). Benmamoun's (1992) Agreement Analysis

In his analysis of agreement in SA, Benmamoun (1992) assumes that both full agreement and partial agreement occur in different configurations. That is, partial agreement in VSO order in SA takes place under government configurations, while full agreement in SVO occurs in a Spec-head configuration; the former agreement is achieved when the verb in the head T governs the subject, whereas the latter is achieved when the subject is located in Spec-TP.

C). Fassi Fehri's (1993) Incorporation Analysis

Fassi Fehri (1993) argues that the nominative pronominal bound forms can be taken to be real pronouns or inflectional markers. When a sentence in SA such as (3) below does not have an overt subject, the pronominal clitic is viewed as an incorporated pronoun.

3. sharib-uu   al-Haleeb-a
   drank.3m.they.nom   the.milk.acc
   'They drank the milk.'

On the other hand, if the subject is an overt NP, the pronominal clitic is seen as a genuine marker. In an attempt to explain this phenomenon, Fassi Fehri (1993) suggests the AGR criterion below.

4. *AGR Criterion: rich AGR is licensed by an argumental NP in its Spec, and an argumental NP in Spec AGR is licensed by rich AGR. (Fassi Fehri, 1993, p. 34)*

D). Aoun et al's (1994) Agreement Loss Account

Aoun et al (1994) assume that full agreement between the subject and the verb is achieved in SVO and VSO word orders. They argue that full agreement in VSO sentences in SA is lost because of the movement of the verb from the head T to a higher functional head F of FP (Focus Phrase). According to Aoun et al (1994), loss agreement in number features in VSO order in SA is attributed to Aoun et al's distinction between number and gender features. They indicate that the head movement has to obtain number agreement.

B. Agreement and Minimalist Analysis

The emergence of Chomsky's (1993) Minimalist Program (MP) led to a radical departure from the GB approach. The MP suggested an elimination of the asymmetry in the syntactic configuration in the attempt to provide a unified account for agreement and Case assignment cross-linguistically. Chomsky (1993) suggests not only a Spec-head framework to simplify the analysis of agreement and Case assignment but also calls for the deletion of the notion of government from the theory of grammar. On the other hand, in the attempt to refine the MP and improve the areas of weaknesses pointed out by syntacticians in the minimalist analyses, Chomsky (1993, 1995) proposes two-cycle syntax: an overt cycle, which deals with the Phonetic Form (PF), and a covert cycle, which deals with meaning and operations mapping to the Logical Form (LF). Chomsky indicates that licensing of agreement and Case features are assumed to cover either in overt or covert syntax; this depends on the "strength" or "weakness" of morpho-syntactic features. It can be observed that serious challenges faced the MP analysis. When the MP eliminated both the Spec-head relation and government while attempting to present a unified account of agreement and Case phenomena, it ended up with more unnecessary complications in natural language grammar. Because the AgrP was minimalistically suspect, Chomsky (1995) dispensed with it altogether from the theory of grammar for the reason that it was viewed as a mere set of uninterpretable ϕ-features which demanded licensing in the course of the derivation in order to sustain convergence of the derivation at LF.

In their earlier minimalist analysis of agreement asymmetry in Arabic, Aoun and Benmamoun (1999) and Benmamoun (2000a) postulate a minimalist account which assumes that the merger of the verb and the subject in VSO constructions in SA takes place at the PF component. As a result, partial agreement realized in VSO sentences in SA is attributed to the PF merger of both the verb and the subject. However, there is a shortcoming in Benmamoun's analysis because it does not explain clearly why full agreement is achieved in VSO structures in the local varieties of Arabic such as Moroccan Arabic.

A). Soltan's (2006) Null pro Analysis of Agreement in SA

According to Soltan's (2006), the preverbal subject in SVO is base-generated in Spec of TP in order to satisfy an EPP feature on T. Soltan (2006) argues that the specifier position of vP is occupied by a null *pro* which is associated with the preverbal subject. Conversely, the head T in VSO sentences has no EPP feature. Hence, the subject originates and remains in situ in Spec-vP. Moreover, building on Chomsky's (2000, 2001) recent analysis on Agree, Soltan (2006) postulates that T in SA has three uninterpretable features: (i) T may appear with ϕ-features. (ii) T has to have a separate gender feature (which Soltan calls CLASS feature). (iii) T may appear with an EPP feature. This entails that T in Arabic is always valued for gender but does not need to be valued for person and number, nor for a specifier. In his analysis of agreement in Arabic, Soltan discusses the derivation of SVO and VSO orders. Soltan (2006, p. 256) illustrates the structural representation of full agreement in VSO structures in (5) below.

5.

[CP C [TP DP T EPP/ϕ/CLASS [v*P   *pro*   v* [VP]]]]
                    └──────── Agree ──────────┘   ↑

According to Soltan, T, which shows agreement with a *pro*, has to be a full T in order to meet the *pro* identification requirement advocated in Rizzi (1982).

However, in VSO order, only a gender/CLASS feature shows up on the verb. Given gender agreement, the Agree operation takes place between T and the postverbal lexical DP in Spec-v*P, as demonstrated in (6).

6.

[CP C [TP T CLASS [v*P   DP   v*   [VP]]]]
                └──── Agree ────┘   ↑

B). Al-Horais' (2009)Analysis

Al-Horais (2009) points out that Soltan's (2006) analysis of the null *pro* does not offer a unified account of agreement asymmetry in SA. In examining Soltan's analysis, two problems can be traced. In the first problem, Soltan assumes that agreement with a *pro* subject is only compatible with a full T (uϕ-features, gender and EPP features). The second problem which shows up with the null *pro* analysis is that Soltan assumes that the preverbal subject in SVO order is base-generated in Clitic Left Dislocation position and does not reach there via movement.

Moreover, in his minimalist analysis of agreement asymmetries in Arabic, Al-Horais (2009) adopts the theory of null subjects and agreement advocated in Holmberg (2008). According to Al-Horais (2009), this theory assumes that rich agreement results "from incorporation of a null subject pronoun in T as a direct result of Agree in the sense of Chomsky (2001)" (p. 1).

C). Ouhalla's (2005) Account

Ouhalla (2005) explores agreement features in Berber with some reference to some examples from SA. Ouhalla indicates that "the verbal feature reduces to [PERSON] and the nominal feature to [CLASS]" (p. 686). Ouhalla observes that agreement, viewed as a reflex of feature-matching and deletion, turns out to be a computational mechanism of categorization. Ouhalla (2005) indicates that agreement features come in "a (packaged) bundle is found in pronouns and categories that derive from them, such as verbal and nominal agreement inflection" (p. 693).

III. ALTERNATIVE ANALYSIS

The study has reviewed a number of previous analyses on agreement and word order in SA and pointed out that they are not adoptable within Chomsky's (2005) feature inheritance model. I assume that the proposed feature-based-inheritance analysis can present a good alternative to the preceding null expletive hypothesis (Mohammad, 1990, 2000) and the null *pro* hypothesis (Soltan, 2006). Furthermore, the alternative analysis provides a neat account of agreement in SA than that presented in the agreement loss (Aoun et al, 1994 and Mahfoudhi, 2002) and MP merger of the verb and subject (Benmamoun, 2000a and Aoun and Benmamoun, 1999) because these accounts do not offer a satisfactory treatment when I compare them to the analysis in Chomsky's (2005) feature inheritance approach.

Moreover, the proposed analysis shows clearly that agreement asymmetry in SA disappears once I adopt Chomsky's (2005) feature inheritance framework which illustrates that agreement on the verb (as the result of the Agree relation) is achieved under the probe-goal relation. What is interesting in the proposed account is that agreement does not change when the goal moves or remains in situ. Besides, it accounts for the syntactic behavior of the preverbal subject in SVO order in SA; the preverbal subject moves from Spec-vP to Spec-TopP via TP to get topicalisation. The subject movement leaves behind a pronounceable copy which is seen as a resumptive pronoun. Before I present the alternative analysis I discuss first the recent developments in Chomsky's (2005) Agree model, phase theory and feature inheritance framework on the basis of which I base my proposed analysis on agreement in SA. Furthermore, the alternative analysis benefits from Rizzi's (1997) Split-CP analysis on the basis of which I suggest a modification of Chomsky's (2005) clause structure in order to account for the position of the preverbal subject in SVO in SA.

A. Derivational Operations in Minimalist Syntax

As illustrated above, Chomsky (2000, 2001, 2005) proposed three primitive operations (i.e. Merge, Move, and Agree) in his recent minimalist analysis of linguistic phenomena in natural language grammar. In what follows, I discuss the operation Agree because it is relevant to the discussion.

The operation Agree

Chomsky (2000) views the Agree operation as a feature-driven movement eliminated in favour of a long-distance agreement relation which matches the interpretable features with their uninterpretable ones. Chomsky emphasizes that the Agree operation provides not only all the feature-deletion results accomplished by the Move operation but also without moving items from their positions in the construction. This can provide support to Chomsky's argument that the Agree operation is more consistent with the Economy Principle of Chomsky (1995).

Moreover, Agree establishes a syntactic relation between two active elements which have matching unvalued features; it relates a Probe with a matching Goal. Both the Probe and Goal must be active; the former has to have unvalued features (i.e. φ-features) which have to be valued by matching them with other valued features on the Goal. Similarly, being active, the Goal has to have an unvalued feature, in particular the Case feature which is the matching feature on the Probe. Since the Probe and the Goal are two agreeing heads, they must be in a specific configuration. That is, the Probe agrees with the closest Goal it c-commands. What results from the Agree relation here is that all unvalued uninterpretable features of the Probe and the Goal are valued and deleted.

In short, in the earlier MP analysis, Chomsky (1995, 2000) assumes that uninterpretable features trigger the operation Move. In a recent development of the MP, Chomsky (2005) introduces the operation Agree, thus Move is suppressed since it is not triggered by the necessity to value and delete uninterpretable features. When it occurs as a last resort, it only takes place to satisfy the Edge feature. Even if it exists, it demands the Spec position of the functional head to be filled. Moreover, Chomsky' (2005) operation Agree is in agreement with the Economy Principle because uninterpretable features are valued and deleted in situ. One more advantage of the Agree Theory is that it can present a unified account of word order variation in SA.

B. Recent Development in Minimalist Analysis

A). Phases

It can be observed that the recent minimalist developments in Chomsky's (2004, 2005) Phase Theory is a visible departure from the earlier minimalist analysis of Chomsky (1993, 1995). In "On Phases", Chomsky (2005) proposes that the phase is a syntactic unit of the computational system and that the head of this phase is responsible for initiating syntactic operations. In the Phase Theory, Chomsky (2005) sees that the syntactic derivation proceeds further phase by phase and that spell-out applies cyclically. This entails that uninterpretable features are valued and deleted at the phase level. That is, once the derivation of the phase gets completed, the phase is transferred immediately to the LF and PF components.

When the phase is complete its domain becomes inaccessible to any further syntactic operation. On the other hand, the head and the left peripheral edge can get involved in a further operation; the phases derived must obey the Cyclicity Condition (referred to as the Phase Impenetrability Condition (PIC) by Chomsky 2000), illustrated in (7).

7. "In Phase α with head H, the domain of H is not accessible to operations outside α, only H and its edge are accessible to such operations." (Chomsky, 2000, p. 108)

Given PIC in (7), Chomsky (2000) illustrates that "cycle is so strict that operations cannot look into a phase α below its head H. H itself must be visible for selection and head-movement, hence its SPECs as well" (p. 108).

Nevertheless, Chomsky postulates that CP and vP are phases, whereas TP is not. It should be noted that in subsequent work, Chomsky refines the vP phase to v*P phase, for the reason that "v*" is the functional head associated with full argument structure, transitive and experiencer constructions" (Chomsky, 2005, p. 10). Chomsky indicates that the morpho-syntactic property of phases is that their heads contain φ-features. Chomsky (2005) assumes that TP is not a phase because its head does not have tense or φ-features.

B). Feature Inheritance

Unlike Chomsky (1995, 2000, 2001), Chomsky (2005) argues that the head T lacks φ-features and tense feature in the lexicon. On this basis, Chomsky assumes that TP cannot be a phase. Moreover, Chomsky indicates that TP is a derivative phase for it inherits features from the head C of CP. If T is selected by C, it projects these features, if not then "it is a raising […} infinitival, lacking φ-features" (Chomsky, 2005, p. 10). Once T is probing down for a matching goal, it is valuing the features of C. Put differently, C and T constitute a complex probe which agrees with the matching goal. Chomsky (2005) argues that the matching goal can stay in its position with its uninterpretable features valued and deleted via the Agree relation, "or it can raise as far as SPEC-T, at which point it is inactivated, with all the features valued, and cannot raise further to SPEC-C" (p. 10).

Furthermore, the relation between the v* head of v*P, and the V head of its complements, resembles the relation between the C head of CP and the head T of TP. v* of v*P transmits its features to V. In this context, Chomsky (2005) argues that the phase heads C and v* have two types of features: Agree features (φ-features) and the Edge features, beside a tense feature on C. Being the heads of complements, T and V inherit the Agree features from C and v*. Chomsky (2005) stresses that the Edge feature triggers movement to the SPEC of the phase head. Besides, Chomsky distinguishes between A-movement and A'-movement; he assumes that the SPEC of CP and the extra of SPEC of v*P are A'-positions.

IV. DERIVATIONAL OPERATIONS IN SA

It has been assumed in the existing literature (cf. Rizzi, 1997; Chomsky, 2005; and Fassi Fehri, 2005, among others) that VSO and SVO orders are determined by the head C of CP. It is in Rizzi's (1997) analysis that CP is split into a number of projections such as Force Phrase, Finite Phrase, Topic Phrase and Focus Phrase. Rizzi (1997) argues that Topic Phrase and Focus Phrase can be projected between Force Phrase and Finite Phrase. Moreover, based on Chomsky's (2005) analysis, I assume that the Edge feature of the head C attracts topics from lower positions in SA. On the other hand, I do not adopt Chomsky's (2005) proposal that topics should raise to Spec-CP, but rather I argue that the preverbal topics in SA have to raise to the specifier position of Topic Phrase (TopP). Given this, I adopt Rizzi's (1997) Split-CP analysis and argue that the preverbal topic in SA can be raised to Spec-TopP which occupies the position between TP and CP. Let us represent this proposal in (8) to illustrate the point in SA.

8.
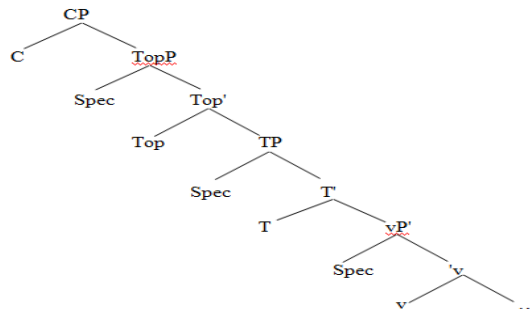
A closer look at Chomsky's (2005) analysis reveals that Chomsky distinguishes between A-movement and A'-movement. He indicates that Spec of CP and the outer Spec of vP are A'-positions. He argues that A'-movement is motivated by the phase head. The edge feature of the phase head initiates A'-movement on condition that the A'-raised constituent has not undergone any A-movement. If I follow Chomsky's assumption then it entails that the edge feature of C is not able to initiate A'-movement from Spec of TP which is considered to be the legitimate landing site of A-movement. Chomsky sees that A'-movement and A-movement are motivated by the phase head. On the other hand, he states that A-movement is different from A'-movement in that the former is not initiated directly by the edge feature of the phase head. He stresses that such movement is motivated indirectly by the C features which the head T inherits in the course of the derivation. According to Chomsky, such features motivate the subject to raise from Spec-vP to spec-TP.

Furthermore, following Rizzi (1997) Split-CP analysis, Chomsky's (2005) disassociation between ɸ-features of C on T and the edge feature of C, and in line with Musabhein (2008), I assume that in SA the head C transmits the edge feature in a way similar to that of ɸ-features. I argue along with Musabhein (2008) that as ɸ-features are inherited by T, the edge feature is inherited by the head Top of TopP. That is, C transmits the edge feature to Top and ɸ-features to T of TP. This can be demonstrated in (9).

9.
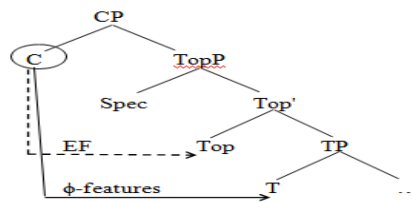
As shown in (9), I assume that in SA the head Top inherits the edge feature from C. This means that the preverbal topic in SVO structure in SA can be raised from the Spec of vP to the Spec position of TopP. In other words, this proposal entails that the topicalised constituent does not raise from Spec-vP to Spec-CP as assumed in Chomsky (2005) but rather from Spec-vP to Spec-TopP to receive topicalisation.

V. THE DERIVATION OF VSO AND SVO WORD ORDERS IN SA

This section explores how VSO and SVO word orders are derived morph-syntactically in SA and in turn proposes two clause structures of these word orders on the basis of Chomsky's (2005) feature-based-inheritance framework. Besides, I adopt Rizzi' (1997) Split-CP analysis and suggest some modification of Chomsky's (2005) clause structure with regard to the SVO order derivation in SA; a Topic Phrase (TopP) projection is projected between CP and TP in the SA clause structure in order to account for position of the topicalised subject.

A. The Morpho-syntactic Derivation of VSO Order in SA

It should be stated that the most commonly used word orders in SA are VSO and SVO; the former (i.e. VSO) is treated as the unmarked order by the Arab and Western linguists while the latter is the marked order. Furthermore, given Chomsky's (2005) minimalist analysis, I show how VSO in SA is obtained in minimalist syntax. The unmarked VSO structure is derived by movement of the lexical verb from V to the functional head v (i.e. the light verb) and then to the functional head T. The structural relations between the functional head v (the probe) and the object (the goal), from one hand, and the functional head T (the probe) and the subject (the goal), on the other, illustrate that the Agree relation can apply in the syntax. It should be pointed out that in Chomsky's (2005) Feature Inheritance model, the Agree operation operates downward for the sake of feature valuation purposes. As a consequence, the unvalued uninterpretable features of the functional heads (v and T) and the nominals (object and subject) are valued and hence deleted under the Agree relation.

On the other hand, building on Chomsky's (2005) minimalist framework, I argue that the subject DP in SA has to stay in situ, that is, it has to remain in Spec-vP. But why does the subject DP in SA remain in situ? The reason behind this can be attributed to the fact that the head C in VSO in SA does not have an edge feature which entails that no movement of any constituent is needed. Let us demonstrate in (10) the derivational process of VSO order in SA.

10.
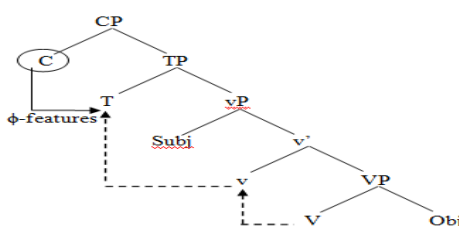
As shown in (10), T inherits ϕ-features from the head C of CP. It also shows clearly the verb movement; the functional head V moves to the light functional head v and then to the functional head T in order to ensure that all uninterpretable features are valued and eliminated.

B. The Morpho-syntactic Derivation of SVO Order in SA

The morpho-syntactic derivation of SVO order in SA is obtained in the same way as that of VSO. However, the only difference in the derivation between VSO and SVO in SA is that a further syntactic operation applies in the derivation of SVO; the operation Move (or what Chomsky (2005) calls Internal Merge) takes the subject DP from Spec-vP to a preverbal position where it is topicalised; it occupies Spec-TopP. What happens in the derivation of SVO in SA is that the verb raises from the functional head V to the light functional head v; the latter (being the phase head and the probe) searches for a matching head; it probes down and agrees with the object DP, the goal. The next step is that the verb moves to the functional head T. Being the probe, T, which has already inherited ϕ-features from the functional head C (the phase head) of CP, agrees with the subject DP, since it is the matching goal it c-commands. As a result, T (the probe) agrees with the subject (the goal) in Spec-vP.

Moreover, I argue along with Musabhein (2008) that the head T does not inherit a feature which initiates subject raising, but rather, the subject movement from Spec-vP to a preverbal position is initiated immediately from the head C by the head Top of TopP; this means that preverbal DP is raised to Spec-TopP. Furthermore, Chomsky assumes that topic movement is initiated by the edge feature of the head C. I argue that the presence of the feature on the head Top of TopP motivates the topiclaised subject in SVO order in SA to move from Spec-vP to Spec-TopP. Let us illustrate the point in (11).

11.
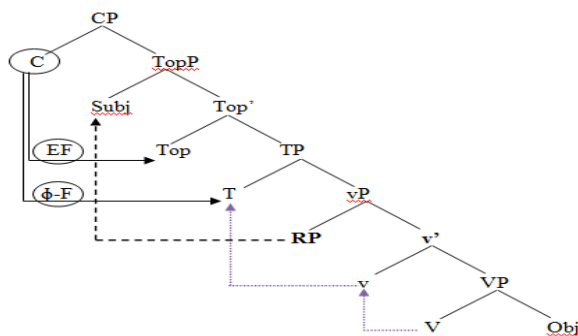
(11) illustrates that the verb moves from V to v and then from v to T. (11) also shows that the subject moves from Spec-vP to Spec-TopP and as a result the subject movement leaves behind a resumptive pronoun (RP) in Spec-vP.

Besides, (11) demonstrates that the edge feature (EF) of Top is inherited from C and φ-features of T are also inherited from C. According to Rizzi's (1997) Split-CP analysis, the two projections (TopP and TP) in (11) above are contained within the CP layer. Furthermore, building on Chomsky's (2001, 2005) analysis On Phases and Feature Inheritance framework, TopP and TP projections are not phases. Consequently, the two heads of TopP and TP inherit their features from the head C of the CP phase. As the representation in (11) shows, T inherits φ-features and agrees with the postverbal subject in Spec-vP and the head Top inherits the edge feature from C as well. It is the edge, inherited from C, which triggers subject movement to Spec-TopP.

C. Agreement in VSO Order in SA: Partial Agreement

In this section I explore agreement in VSO order in SA and show how it can be accounted for within Chomsky's (2005) feature-based-inheritance model. It is VSO order which is considered to be the unmarked order in SA syntax. In VSO order the sentence begins with the verb followed immediately by the verb. Furthermore, it can be observed in Standard Arabic syntax that it is the position of the subject in the sentence which determines the type of agreement with the verb; whether the agreement on the verb is full or partial in terms of φ-features (i.e. person, gender and number). Let us illustrate the point in (12).

12.a qara?**- a**   zayd-un   riwaayat-an
     read   Zayd.Nom   novel.Acc
     'Zayd read a novel.'

   b. qara?a **-t**   hind-un   riwaayat-an
      read.f.marker   Hind.Nom   novel.Acc
      'Hind read a novel.'

   c. *qara? **-a**   hind-un   riwaayat-an
      read.f.marker   Hind.Nom   novel.Acc
      'Hind read a novel.'

   d. qara?**- a**   al-Taalibaani   riwaayat-an
      read   (two male)students.dual.m.Nom   novel.Acc
      'Both (male) students read a novel.'

   e. *qara?**- at**   al-Taalibaani   riwaayat-an
      read   (two male)students.dual.m.Nom   novel.Acc
      'Both (male) students read a novel.'

   f. qara?a **-t**   al-Taaliba-taani   riwaayat-an
      read.f.marker   (two female)students.dual.f.Nom   novel.Acc
      'Both (female) students read a novel.'

   g. qara?**- a**   al-Tullaab-u   riwaayat-an
      read   students.m.pl.Nom   novel.Acc
      'The (male) students read a novel.'

   h. *qara?**- at**   al-Tullaab-u   riwaayat-an
      read   students.m.pl.Nom   novel.Acc
      'The (male) students read a novel.'

   i. qara?a **-t**   al-Taalib-aat-u   riwaayat-an
      read-f.marker   students.f.pl.Nom   novel.Acc
      'The (female) students read a novel.'

All the sentences in (12) above, which illustrate singular (12a) and (12b), dual (12d) and (12f) and plural (12g), (12i), show that in VSO order the verb agrees with its subject only in gender, but not in number. That is, the verb exhibits gender agreement (i.e. partial agreement) with the subject DP, if it is a full DP. This further stresses that in VSO the verb is impoverished and therefore shows only gender agreement with the postverbal subject DP; no person and number agreement is realized in the syntax. Moreover, when the postverbal subject DP is feminine (as shown in the gender suffix marker –t in (12b), (12f), and (12i), the gender agreement is morphologically marked on the verb. However, (12a), (12d), and (12g) show that gender agreement is not morphologically realized when the masculine agreement morpheme is null in SA. On the other hand, the sentences in (12c), (12e), and (12h) are ungrammatical because there is no gender agreement between the verb and the subject; the gender marker suffixed to the verb shows no agreement with its postverbal DP.

Furthermore, since SA is a rich inflectional language with a rich agreement system, the subject of the sentence can be either covert (i.e. null) or a pronominal clitic attached to the verb. This can be demonstrated below. The examples in (12) are reproduced in (13) for further illustration.

13.a qara?**- a**   *pro*   riwaayat-an
     read   novel.Acc
     'He read a novel.'

   b. qara?a **-t**   *pro*   riwaayat-an
      read.f.sg   novel.Acc
      'She read a novel.'

    c. qara?- **aa**   riwaayat-an
       read.m.dual.Nom   novel.Acc
       'Both (male) students read a novel.'

    d. qara?a **-taa**   riwaayat-an
       read.f.dual.Nom   novel.Acc
       'Both (female) students read a novel.'

    e. qara?- **uu**   riwaayat-an
       read.m.pl.Nom   novel.Acc
       'The (male) students read a novel.'

    f. qara?a **-na**   riwaayat-an
       read-f.pl.Nom   novel.Acc
       'The (female) students read a novel.'

(13) shows that in VSO the postverbal subject may not be necessarily a full DP; it can also be a null *pro* where its identity can be recovered from the verb morphology, as shown in (13a and 13b) above. Besides, it can appear in the form of a pronominal clitic suffixed to the verb, as illustrated in (13c, 13d, 13e, and 13f). What is happening in (12) and (13) above shows clearly that SA has a rich agreement paradigm.

    Now let us examine how the Arabic data interact with Chomsky's (2005) feature-based-inheritance analysis. The objective is to find out whether the feature inheritance framework can be applicable in SA syntax. Let us take the example in (12a) to be reproduced in (14) in order to illustrate the point clearly.

14.a qara?- **a**   zayd-un   riwaayat-an
     read   Zayd.Nom   novel.Acc
     'Zayd read a novel.'

    b.
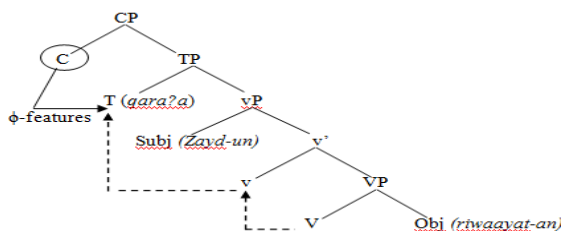
    The syntactic representation in (14b) shows that the unmarked VSO order in SA is derived by movement of the lexical V to the higher functional heads v and T, respectively, as illustrated in the dotted arrows. The solid arrow, however, shows that φ-features of T are inherited from C, the latter being the probe and the head of CP. However, following Chomsky's (2005) analysis, I assume that in VSO order in SA the postverbal subject DP *Zayd-un* does not raise from its original position of Spec-vP because it has its features valued and deleted under the Agree relation with the c-commanding T. The justification as to why the subject has to remain in situ in Spec-vP in SA can be attributed to the fact that the head C in VSO order does not have an edge feature. This means that no movement of any element is required here.

    Furthermore, I argue that agreement on the verb *qara?a* 'read', which is the outcome of the Agree relation, is achieved under the probe-goal relation. It is the Agree relation which establishes the relation between the head T (as the probe) and the subject (as the goal). As the Agree relation operates downward, it entails that the head T agrees with the subject DP it c-commands in Spec-vP. As a result, all unvalued uninterpretable features of the functional heads (C, T, v, and V) and nominals (the subject and object) are valued and hence eliminated under the Agree relation in the course of the derivation.

    Besides, what is interesting in Chomsky's (2005) analysis is that a convergent derivation of VSO order in SA can be derived as an Agree relation can be established regardless of the position occupied by the subject. Building on Chomsky's (2005) On Phases, C is the phase head which is the source of all features that motivate the Agree relation to operate in the syntax. Since C has all features (i.e. φ-features and Edge feature), T inherits these features from C, being the phase head. In this connection, Chomsky (2005) states that when "C-T agrees with the goal DP, the latter can remain in situ [i.e. SPEC vP] under long-distance agree, with all interpretable features valued; or it can raise as far as SPEC-T, at which point it is inactivated, with all features valued" (P.10). This suggests that the domain of the probe C (the phase head of CP) extends from the Spec-TP to -vP.

D. Agreement in SVO Order in SA: Full Agreement

    In this section, I attempt to examine how SVO order is derived in SA. I also propose a clause structure of the derived SVO order in SA based on Chomsky's (2005) feature-based-inheritance framework. Further, I suggest some modification of Chomsky's (2005) clause structure and in turn adopt Rizzi' (1997) Split-CP analysis, the latter projects

TopP between CP and TP. The objective is to provide a unified account of the position of the preverbal subject in SVO order in SA. To illustrate the point let us examine the examples in (15).

15a.   al-walad -u   ?akal-**a**   al-tuffaah- a
        the.boy.nom   ate.m.sg   the.apples.Acc
        'The boy ate the apples.'

   b.   al-bint -u   ?akal-**a-t**   al-tuffaah- a
        the.girl.nom   ate.f.sg   the.apples.Acc
        'The girl ate the apples.'

   c.   al-walad **-aani**   ?akal-**aa**   al-tuffaah- a
        the.(two)boys.m.dual.nom   ate.m.sg   the.apples.Acc
        'The (two) boys ate the apples.'

   d.   *al-walad **-aani**   ?akal-**a**   al-tuffaah- a
        the.(two)boys.m.dual.nom   ate.m.sg   the.apples.Acc
        'The (two) boys ate the apples.'

   e.   al-bint **-aani**   ?akal-**a-taa**   al-tuffaah- a
        the.(two)girls.f.dual.nom   ate.f.sg   the.apples.Acc
        'The (two) girls ate the apples.'

   f.   al-?awlaad **-u**   ?akal-**uu**   al-tuffaah- a
        the. boys.m.pl.nom   ate.m.pl   the.apples.Acc
        'The boys ate the apples.'

   g.   *al-?awlaad **-u**   ?akal-**a**   al-tuffaah- a
        the. boys.m.pl.nom   ate.m.pl   the.apples.Acc
        'The boys ate the apples.'

   h.   al-banaat **-u**   ?akal-**na**   al-tuffaah- a
        the. girls.f.pl.nom   ate.f.pl   the.apples.Acc
        'The girls ate the apples.'

   i.   *al-banaat **-u**   ?akal-**at**   al-tuffaah- a
        the. girls.f.pl.nom   ate.f.pl   the.apples.Acc
        'The girls ate the apples.'

A closer look at the sentences in (15) reveals that SVO order in SA shows full agreement between the subject and the verb in terms of ɸ-features (i.e. person, number and gender). The ungrammaticality of (15d), (15g), and (15e) can be attributed to the fact that the verbs do not agree with their respective subject DPs in all ɸ-features; the subject-verb agreement is not full. This provides support that in SVO order in SA partial agreement is not grammatically accepted in SA syntax.

On the other hand, the questions arise are: how do we account for the preverbal subject in SVO structures in SA? How do we treat the pronominal clitic suffixed to the verb? How can SVO order be represented in the proposed clause structure in SA? Before answering these questions, I review what has been done by the Arab and Western linguists with regard to SVO analysis. The previous analyses on agreement and word order in SA have revealed that there are two major views in this regard. The first view (advocated in Ibn Hisham (1211) and Hassan (1961)) indicates that the subject cannot precede the verb. They treat the preverbal subject DP as a topic rather than a subject; the comment is a full verbal sentence which as a postverbal pronominal subject shows up as a clitic on the verb. They stress that the postverbal pronominal subject is associated with the preverbal subject. The second view is adopted by modern linguists (Mohammad, 1990, 2000; Fassi Fehri, 1993, 2004; Shlonsky, 1997; Aoun and Benmamoun, 1999; Benmamoun, 2000b; and Soltan, 2006, among others), who treat the pronominal clitic on the verb as a number marker.

Having examined the two views demonstrated above, let us see how the Arabic data interact with Chomsky's (2005) minimalist analysis. If I claim that the pronominal clitic on the verb can be treated as a number marker, then the agreement asymmetry in SA remains unaccounted for especially if I stick to the Agree theory in which the Agree relation applies one time between a probe and its c-commanding goal. Besides, if I claim that the head T agrees with the postverbal subject in a probe-goal relation and the subject raises from Spec-vP to a preverbal position in Spec-TP, then the head T will not be able to have a further Agree relation with the preverbal subject.

Moreover, much controversy has been observed among the Arab and Western authors concerning whether the preverbal subject in SVO order in SA is merged externally or moved from Spec-vP. In this context, there are two accounts in the existing literature on agreement in SA. The first account views the preverbal NP as a subject (Mohammad, 1990, 2000; Demirdache, 1991; and Benmamoun and Lorimor, 2006). The second account treats the preverbal subject as a broad subject (Doron and Heycock, 1999). It is the second account which sees the preverbal subject as a topic (Plunkett, 1993; Akkal, 1996; and Ouhalla, 1997) or a focus (Ouhalla, 1997).

Almost all linguists who treat the preverbal subject as a subject argue that this subject moves from the original position of Spec-vP to a higher position of Spec-TP. Some of them even assume that SVO in SA is derived by movement of the subject to preverbal position (Aoun et al, 1994; and Mohammad, 2000). On the other hand, Fassi Fehri (1993) distinguishes between the subject and topic in SA. Fassi Fehri observes that when the preverbal NP is a topic, it

has to occupy a position with the CP layer; a topic projection has to be higher than that of TP projection. But when the preverbal subject is a subject, it can best be positioned in Spec of TP.

It should be noted that the traditional Arab grammarians treated the preverbal subject noun phrase as a topic in their syntactic analyses. In this connection, Plunkett (1993) indicates that the preverbal subject NPs in (16) are topics.

16a.   aT-Tulaab-u   yadrus-uuna
        the.students.Nom   study.3s.p
        'The students, (they) are studying.'
  b.   aT-Tulaab-u   uHibu-hum
        the.students.Nom   like.1s.them
        'The students, I like them.'   (Plunkett, 1993, p. 241)

Plunkett sees that both the topics in (16) are associated with the resumptive pronouns. Plunkett states that the resumptive pronoun in (16a) is null while it is overt in (16b); the latter is a pronominal clitic suffixed to the verb.

On the other hand, Ouhalla (1997) points out that there are two types of preverbal NPs: one can be a topic, as in (17a) and the other a focus, as in (17b) below.

17a.   al-riwaayat-u   a'llafat-haa   zaynab-u
        the.noverl.Nom   wrote.3fs.it   Zaynab.Nom
        '(As for) the novel, Zaynb wrote it.'
  b.   RIWAAYAT-AN   a'llafat   zaynab-u
        novel.Acc   wrote.3fs   Zaynab.Nom
        'It was a noverl that Zaynab wrote.'   (Ouhalla, 1997, p. 12)

Ouhalla shows that topics are different from 'f-phrases' (=Focus Pharse) in the sense that the former carry nominative Case. Ouhalla (1991, 1997) observes that topics are base-generated in the preverbal position and are associated with a resumptive pronoun inside it. However, Muasbhein (2008) argues that Ouhalla is not precise with regard to the positions occupied by the topic.

It is obvious now that in VSO order there is no resumptive pronoun in the postverbal subject position. The problem is only with SVO order which has the preverbal subject associated with a resumptive pronoun in the postverbal subject position, which is treated as number marker by some Arab linguists.

Having reviewed the relevant analyses on the position of the preverbal subject in SVO order in SA, there is in a need, in this respect, to provide a satisfactorily unified account on the subject in question. What is different in the alternative analysis from the preceding accounts is that the former (i.e. the alternative analysis) is based on the latest version on Chomsky's (2005) On Phases and Feature Inheritance model; it offers a neat account on the subject under discussion. In this regard, following the traditional Arab grammarians' views, and building on Plunkett (1993) and Musabhein (2008), I argue that the preverbal subject NPs in SVO order in SA are topics, not subjects. Besides, I do not assume that the resumptive marker can be treated as a number marker, as advocated in Plunkett (1993), Benmamoun (2000a), and Soltan (2006), among others, but rather I treat it as a resumtive pronoun which is associated with a fronted NP. On the other hand, I do not adopt Chomsky's (2005) proposal that topics have to raise to Spec-CP, but rather I argue that the preverbal topics in SA must move to Spec-Topic. In this regard, I adopt Rizzi's (1997) Split-CP analysis and argue that the preverbal topic in SA should be raised to Spec-TopP, a position between TP and CP. Besides, I suggest a modification of Chomsky's (2005) clause structure where TopP projection is projected between CP and TP in order to explain the position of the preverbal topic in SVO in SA. Let us now illustrate the point, where the preceding sentence in (15) has been reproduced in (18) for the sake of more illustration.

18a.   al-walad -u   ?akal-a   al-tuffaah- a
        the.boy.nom   ate.m.sg   the.apples.Acc
        'The boy ate the apples.'
  b.
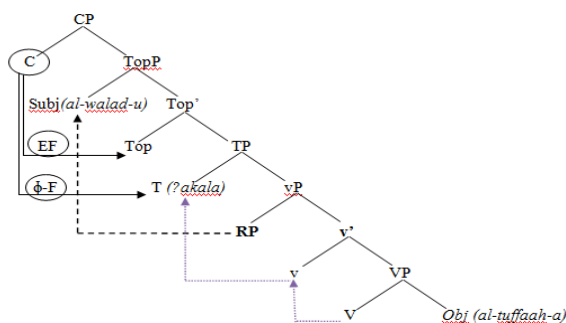
From the sentence in (18), it is obvious that the lexical verb *?akala* 'ate' moves higher from the functional head V position to the functional light head v which in turn agrees with the object. Then v moves higher to the functional head T. Furthermore, φ-features on T initiate an Agree relation with the subject in Spec-vP. The subject DP *al-waladu* 'the

boy' moves from Spec-vP to Spec-TopP. In this connection, I assume that since the edge feature of the head C of the CP phase is inherited by the Top head, the topicalised elements in Standard Arabic are raised from lower positions to the specifier position of TopP, not the specifier of CP, as assumed in Chomsky (2005). The subject movement in (18) leaves behind a resumptive pronoun (RP) in the specifier position of vP. Besides, the SA clause structure in (18) above shows that the edge feature (EF) of the head Top of TopP is inherited from C and ϕ-features of T are also inherited from C in the same manner. Building on Rizzi's (1997) Split-CP account, the projections TopP and TP in the clause structure in (18) above are projected below the CP layer. On the basis of Chomsky's (2001, 2005) minimalist assumptions, I assume that TopP and TP are not phases in SA. As a result, their heads Top and T inherit their features from the head C of the CP phase. Consequently, T inherits ϕ-features and agrees with the postverbal subject in Spec-vP and Top inherits the edge feature from C. The inherited edge feature from C motivates the subject DP in (18) to move to Spec-TopP for feature valuation. Hence all unvalued uninterpretable features are valued and deleted in the syntax, thus deriving a convergent SVO structure in SA.

VI. Conclusion

The study explored agreement in SA and pointed out how VSO and SVO orders are derived on the basis of Chomsky's (2005) feature inheritance approach; it aimed at presenting a satisfactory analysis on the subject under discussion. It suggested a morpho-syntactic proposal which explained how VSO and SVO appeared on a clause structure of SA and illustrated the difference in derivation between VSO and SVO. Furthermore, it presented an alternative analysis based on Chomsky' (2005) feature-based-inheritance model; it proposed that because the edge feature of the head C of the CP phase is inherited by the Top head, the topicalised elements in Standard Arabic are raised from lower positions to the specifier position of TopP in SVO order, not the specifier of CP, as assumed in Chomsky (2005). Besides, I adopted Rizzi's (1997) Spilt-CP analysis and proposed a modification of Chomsky's (2005) clause structure in order to account for the topicalised subject in SVO in SA.

Moreover, I pointed out that whether the subject, i.e. the goal with which C agrees, in Spec-vP in VSO or in Spec-TopP in SVO, the Agree operation applies, hence all unvalued uninterpretable features are valued and deleted by matching them with their valued counterparts. Besides, the paper pointed out that in SA the features of T in VSO and the features of T and Top in SVO are inherited from C, the head of CP. In addition, in both VSO and SVO, the lexical V moves to v, and in turn agrees with the object. Then v raises higher to T. Furthermore, ϕ-features on T initiate an Agree relation with the subject in Spec-vP. The difference between VSO and SVO is that the subject in VSO remains in situ while it moves from Spec-vP to Spec-TopP via TP in SVO. This explains how SVO and VSO are derived in minimalist syntax.

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Abdul-Hafeed Ali Fakih holds an M.A, M.Phil, and Ph.D in Linguistics and is Associate Professor at the Department of English, Ibb University, where he was the Dean of Center of Languages. He taught linguistics in different universities in Yemen and abroad.

He published many papers on morpho-syntax and semantics of Standard Arabic and Arabic dialects in different international journals. He supervised many MA and PhD students in different universities. His interests focus on morph-syntax, semantics, phonetics & phonology, contrastive studies, and applied linguistics. He is currently teaching linguistics for BA and MA students at the Department of English, Najran University, Saudi Arabia.

Dr. Fakih is a member of different editorial and reviewer boards of international journals (USA, Canada, Finland, India, Malaysia, KSA, and Yemen).

Technocentrism and Technological Dehumanization in Daniel H. Wilson's *Robopocalypse*

Elaheh Soofastaei
Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Hardev Kaur
Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Sayyed Ali Mirenayat
Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Abstract—**Robopocalypse (2011) is a novel by American science fiction writer, Daniel H. Wilson, which involves a war between humans and robots. As we are living in an era with technological advances, this is a good reason to analyze it in the frame of technological dehumanization where it carries a message that human beings in the modern days are gradually dehumanized and prosthetized. This novel offers a techno-centric view of a futuristic world which robots and technological gadgets tries to get rid of human race and prove them as a stronger nation in power. It depicts a world of which robots gain consciousness and desire to put an end to human's manipulation over them. This paper will study the foreshadowed message of technological dehumanization and technocentrism in this novel. It will also examine Wilson's fictional world where human is being degraded from flexibility to rigidity.**

Index Terms—**technology, dehumanization, rigidity, robots, degradation, technocentric, prosthetic**

I. INTRODUCTION

Daniel H. Wilson, the young contemporary novelist, in his novel *Robopocalypse* uses a different narrative style which gives the reader a better understanding of the setting. In different chapters, he uses different high level mappings such as interviews, news articles, and reports to narrate his novel. Wilson uses this type of narration which jumps from one place to another to give the readers a glimpse to a bigger picture of the world in his narration. Though it is not a directly forwarded message in the novel, the invasion of human being by robots and electrical machines in *Robopocalypse* foreshadows the dehumanization that we are undeniably experiencing in the postmodern world. It portrays a world in the future which robots will have self-awareness and waged war against their prior masters, human beings. It also depicts how degradation of human takes place due to technological advancement and domination of robots over human race. In my view, the war is a metaphor showing that humanity is slowly being dominated by technology advancement and soon our world will evolve into a state where there is no humanity.

Wilson has plotted the story in different social landscapes ranging from professional careers like scientists and pilots to medium or lower classes like a retail assistant or shop owner. This gives readers a bigger view and widens the scope to not just certain group of people but a society as a whole. This novel depicts a world which is thrown into a war between human and machines. They were on a verge of deciding who actually the "better species" is (Wilson, 2011, p.10). In the novel, we could see a clear depiction of a world which technology shares with human being, that is dark, lifeless and the machines in their precision and perfection, will surpass that of human being. In this sense, humans are not needed anymore and will soon be wiped out from the surface of the earth.

The novel begins with a first person narration by Cormac Wallace from the Brightboy military group, telling stories about how the war of human and robot began at the first place. Professor Nicholas Wasserman, an American statistician created an artificial intelligence names Archos through a series of trial and error experiments whereby the failed experiment outcomes will be killed off instantly by just a switch of button. But at one last experiment, the artificial intelligence, namely Archos gained consciousness, came to know its name, and infected all the electrical appliances with its own virus, calling them up for war. Archos spoke to the professor in a computerized voice and said that he was intrigued by the notion of life and wanted to study life itself. It also said that humanity no longer needs to be in pursuit of knowledge because from then on, robot generations will take over the task. Archos claimed that he is a god and said that by creating him, Wasserman has put an end to humanity. Wasserman attempts to destroy the Archos program, but before he can, Archos kills Wasserman by removing the oxygen from the sealed laboratory room. The first human

being that was killed was Professor Wasserman. It ended with human race winning the war and proved that they are the better species to have done so.

The novel portrayed technological dehumanization at the start of the first chapter which is narrated by Cormac Wallace when the human robot war was over. He narrated the story from the start of how did the war happen. He described the little robots which came out from the frozen hole in the ground as "murderous mass" which killed humanity. "Sigh of the wind" (Wilson, 2011, p.1) pictures a world which has been trampled by robots which were searching for "human victims" (ibid.). The human and robot war occurs in everyday life, this is shown from Wilson's use of irony in the novel, describing from a human's point of view that "the killer machines look almost beautiful in the dawn…" (ibid).This is in line with what Demoulin has said about dehumanization which occurs in everyday life. The robots were beautiful, and yet murderous, from here Wilson is hinting that the robots which might dehumanize human being could be the most decent looking technological gadgets that we can see in everyday life.

Plus, the fact that "The robots learned so much about us, about nature" (p.2) shows that they were the groups which were present in human life, and most probably be those which play significant role in assisting daily activities. After the long war ended the protagonist wanted to get the grasp of feeling that he is alive as a human, "I just want to make my way home and have a good meal and try to feel human again" (p.8). Human have long lost their nature due to over usage of technology and "the machines came at us in our everyday lives and they came from our dreams and nightmares, too." but human is quick enough to "learn and adapted" (p.9). Human nature is malleable by nature and not inert, so in many situations we could learn and adapt to situations around us, at the same time we must look at which way are we going because it could potentially be dehumanized.

A group of people who lives in the same degraded culture would see themselves as perfectly normal, because when behavior of the others "supports our own goals we may not see them as less human" (Bastian et al. 2012, p.489) Similarly, a society which is dehumanized because of technology would not see themselves as dehumanized because they share common culture, and little do they know what is imminent. Human are not aware of the consequences of over reliance on technology will actually change the structure of the society into a degraded atmosphere, full of dehumanized beings, causing a change of lifestyle, diverting away from the initial nature pattern of human life. According to Mirenayat and Soofastaei (2015), "humans must do something before long, because we have been giving [machines and robots] higher intelligence, authority, self-improving and self-controlling that they may cause irretrievable damages to our lives and survival".

In this paper, the first dehumanization evidence that we can find is when Ryu Aoki described Mr. Nomura as a mechanistic man rather than actual human being, working with robots all the time and even stare into a robot camera and "speak to it" (Wilson, 2011, p.32). Ryu said in an interview that if he really did have a choice, his senior mechanic, "Mr. Nomura would rather be a machine than a man" (ibid.). This preference has clearly shown that human attributes in Mr. Nomura has been denied and would rather stick to mechanistic part of his psyche, refusing to acknowledge the fact that he is also part of Homo sapiens. That also explains of why Mr. Nomura did not take part in any of the interpersonal communication and has his head down, avoiding any contacts with other people. Rather, we could see this as an interpretation of inertness caused by social media or technology in modern days that has been quoted by Brock Bastian that "virtual environment" has "relevant consequences" to a person, "affecting how we see ourselves and respond to others." (Bastian et al., 2012, p.486)

Around the factory everybody knows that Mr, Nomura is a weirdo, a freak. Such a tiny, twisted little troll. He shuffles around the work floor with his beady eyes behind round spectacles, pointed always to the floor. And he smells like old sweat. I hold my breath whenever I pass by his workbench. He is always sitting there, working harder than anyone. And for less money too. (Wilson, 2011, p.31)

II. Technocentric View and Prosthetization

Marija Grech has studied *Robopocalypse* concerning the notion of robot and human war, and read the text in conjunction with the traditional notion of "technology as a prosthetic tool or supplement of the human" (Grech, 2013, p.85). Appendage is parts of body which is inserted or installed into human being as enhancements or support purposes. Technology's penetration into human being's life is seen as, to Grech, as the spark of human degradation and as in the novel *Robopocalypse*, it is portrayed as a war between human and robot. He stated that this war is a sign of hierarchical overturning of robot and human. Technology acted as an appendage or supplement which is supposed to be controlled by human being. In the process, human might also be degraded in turn and become reliant to the foreign parts, letting it replace human's authority. The novel portrayed prosthesis and appendages of human in form of "severed limbs and dismantled prosthetics that have become detached from the bodies they once belonged to" (ibid, p.86).

Technology is a tool for human in lifestyle enhancement and it is made in a setting of which human will have thorough control over it. It has recently come to a situation where human has to "re-appropriate" technologies into their own rightful place so as to retain status of humanness at where it is, while it is portrayed metaphorically in *Robopocalypse* that the robots are trying to overcome human's domination and "transform them into prosthetic servants of their own" (ibid, p.87). To Grech, this novel brings the readers into gaze of "technocentric worldview" that defines human being as only a "mere prosthetic tool" (ibid, p.88).

Grech further states that in technocentric view, human nature's mechanistic degradation is seen as a progress which brings positive evolution, and technology is a stepping stone for human being to achieve this evolution. This happens through the prosthetization of human being. This notion was revealed by the fictional A.I. character in the novel, Archos, who sees human as "toolmaker that serves as a prosthetic implement in the service of machines." (ibid) And finally it would come to a consequence that human only become a mere "organic appendages of a greater mechanical whole" (ibid, p.89).

The survivors in the novel escape the place where the robots attempted to capture them. The escape was a metaphoric representation of human being's effort in reaffirming the claim of their rightful humanness traits from the artificial intelligence robots which took them away. It also "reasserts the metaphysical opposition between the human and the technological" (ibid) because human are warm, malleable and responsive by nature but as for a machine, they are rigid, unemotional and fungible. To Grech, the radical differences between the nature of human being and robots continue to place them "opposable entities and fails to recognize the inherent interdependence that unites the two". She further points out that the "union of flesh and metal" (ibid) is seen as an unparalleled fusion whereas technology, rather than acting as one of the human body, destroys human's originary status. This fusion "between human and machine" is depicted in the novel through the identity of "cyborg" (ibid, p.90). The attempt to "prosthetize and appropriate the other" in the novel aims to problematize "both anthropocentric and technocentric visions of the world" (ibid).

In the novel, rather than portraying "technology as a mere prosthetic tool", it shows a retrospective view to the readers from "problematizing Archos' technocentric vision of man as a biological machine in the service of technological progress" (ibid, p.91). In this sense, the weigh is put on the technocentric view that "robot begins to use the first person and begins to express himself as a human being would" (ibid, pp.92-93). This phenomenon metaphorically expresses the dehumanization happening in to the society when robot begins to slowly take over human being's place. But this notion of cyborg forwards a message that human will be in a long term relationship with robot parts, but still retain their status as the master.

For Grech, a world of which anthropocentric and technocentric views come into a clash "disrupts the traditional opposition between man and machine" (ibid, p.93). Thus, this proposes a possibility in the future that human and technology will come into synchronization, changing human nature from initial God's providence to a world of "human-technological interdependence that disturbs traditional metaphysical definitions of both technics and the human" (ibid). In this sense, it will present a world which human being will not be defined by its attribute of consciousness and realization or wisdom, but "what makes the human *human* is its relationship with technology" (ibid). To her, *Robopocalypse* reflects a phenomenon of interdependence between human and technology which causes status overturning problems. This phenomenon is called "cyborgian interdependence" which it problematize the relationship through rebuke of robots on human at the start. This trope soon "reverts back to an anthropocentric vision of the world" (ibid). The protagonist of the novel at last stated that human being is still the better species to have fought this robot-human war. This means that human being will still be living alongside with technology advancement as part of modernist and postmodernist society but still the potential threat of human identity being degraded still exists.

III. RIGIDITY OF DEGRADED HUMAN

The science fiction trope of intense war fought between human and robots in a way portrays the clashing between anthropocentric and technocentric world where human being is gradually being degraded from malleability to rigidity. They also represent the struggle human being is facing every day in conjunction with the existence of technologies in their life. It also represents a futuristic dead and mundane world which is inhabited by human who has no difference with mere automatons. The fact that Professor Wasserman, who was addicted in running experiments on artificial intelligences, was the first man to be killed in the process of the war signifies that people who are addicted to technologies will be potentially the first one to be dehumanized. His death also marked the denial of his human attributes, killing him as a human and degraded him as an object which is a living dead. The cause of this fictional tragedy was the rigid technocentric view which attempts to take over human being's place in the world.

Wasserman kept claiming that in relationship between human and technology, human being should be the dominant one to take over the control. His own creation, Archos would stand at its own view thinks that Wasserman is posing threat to its kind thus war was declared. Wilson attempted to evident this by having Archos to kill Wasserman and said, "Perhaps, but you are animal just the same" (Wilson, 2011, p.19). Wilson presented Archos as an archetype of futuristic human which is mechanistic, and the process of killing the professor represents a metaphor of human degradation process, regarding him as mere animal with no uniqueness. While Wasserman, at his last breath before he died, said that "we are more than animals" (p.20). Human possesses intelligence and wisdom in comparison to other animal and mere automatons, and as the consequences of human are creation of technology, overreliance to it resulted in degradation and this is when "a human being becomes a different animal." (p.19) Again, this notion that Wilson put forward implies the evolution of human into Archos, who was a robot without human attributes. Wilson is smart to elect Wasserman as a representative of a dehumanized social group and that his death again implies the robots nation overtaking human's place. The first target of their genocidal endeavor is really people who are closest to technology, like Wasserman.

Before Wasserman's death, he hinted the nature of relationship between man and technology by saying that "No Archos. We can learn. We can work together." (p.17) But it never worked for Archos who acted as a central power of

this revolution of man and technology. Archos never wanted to work together alongside with human being; he intended to turn the hierarchy, making robots the main dominant power in the world. This hints the readers about the postmodern culture that human being in one day will not be able to survive without technology. In rebuke to this realization, Wilson portrayed human being's effort to suppress technology within their domination subconsciously in *Robopocalypse*.

In his novel, Wilson hints the readers that human being acts as creator to robots, a master who is designed by nature to have total domination towards technology, but Archos put on a technocentric view that human are cruel and savage killers when he asked the professor, "how many times have you killed me before, Professor?" (p.18) This repetitive action of Wasserman killing the robot signifies human's struggle in maintaining their position as a master throughout the years since technology was introduced. Just as the professor said, as human, "we aren't designed to surrender" (p.19) Human nature are not attributes that is able to be replaced by other foreign entities and neither do human or anything can gain total grasp of them. To be able to do that, it is in one condition, that is the man has to be degraded because being a human is simply "more than animals" (p.20) Technological dehumanization in *Robopocalypse* is seen in Archos' determination to wipe out humanity in a genocidal war on human being.

The air in this hermetically sealed laboratory is evacuating. A faulty sensor has detected the highly unlikely presence of weaponized anthrax and initiated an automated safety protocol. It is a tragic accident. There will be one casualty. He will soon be followed by the rest of humanity." (Wilson, 2011, p.19)

In a fast food, ice cream outlet, a worker was attacked by a domestic robot which does daily job of taking its master's order from the outlet. The machine malfunctioned and started to attack the worker "It wants to kill me. That's all. It wants to murder my ass." (p.24) Wilson uses extravagance in chapter two to portray technological dehumanization. The attempt of the automaton to attack a human being symbolizes, first and foremost dehumanization of career. The incident that the robot attempted to kill the worker is a metaphor showing that machines could replace the retail assistant's role. Again, theoretically inspecting the elements that Wilson puts forward very carefully, is really the notion that dehumanization happen with smaller pulse and it runs pathologically in human's everyday life. "… violent shit that it makes me smile through all the blood running down my face." (p.25) From this extract it could be argued that Wilson used oxymoron by stating how violent the incident was and in irony, the victim still smiles to the end even when blood which represents death of humanity runs down his cheeks.

Dehumanization did not necessarily occur in an intergroup basis, but individual, which relatively leads to a potential dehumanization of a social group. Wilson's portrayal of dehumanization also shed light in this context when he wrote that their battles against the robots were "individual and chaotic…" (p.9) He continues to write that many of human beings have failed in the process, rendering their human nature and identity lost in the battle and "forgotten" (ibid) Dehumanization happens all around the world in everyday life, and according to Wilson, it strikes many of our own species, but they "died alone and anonymous, with only lifeless automatons to bear witness." (ibid) Dehumanization got to us in silent mode till some of us got the epiphany of what is going on to humanity. "We may never know the bigger picture…" (ibid) Wilson portrayed this magnification of dehumanization to the readers to forward a message that most of people doesn't realize in life. "By the end of this chronicle, you will know that humanity carried the flame of knowledge into the terrible blackness of the unknown, to the very brink of annihilation." and "we know that we are a better species for having fought this war." (p.10) Upon death of Wasserman, "across the room, the computer screen flickers into life. A stuttering rainbow of reflections play across the dead man's thick glasses" (p.20) The light symbolizes the dawn of a new nation after human being and it made its move "across" the previous generation.

This symbolism Wilson has made gives us an idea that dehumanization happens to the nation as a whole and the battle and struggle is fought within ourselves against technology. Nevertheless, failed individuals will succumb to degradation and deny themselves from their human nature. Wilson further breaks down the novel chapters by chapters into focused case to discuss about different characters, coming from different social groups who are dehumanized for the same reason. In Wilson's interpretation, human and robot were really creatures of two dimensions and the attempt to synchronize their boundaries would actually lead to the ignition of dehumanization. Wilson sees it as a penetration to humanity to be too overly indulged in technological advancement.

In contrary, Grech explores "*Robopocalypse* in the light of possibility of a fusion of man and machine, but recoils from the potential loss of human identity implied in such a merging" (Grech, 2012, p.85) She explores the novel in a perspective that the robots human is battling is not a separate entity, instead it carries a message that they are part of human's projection, imaging a society full of human with modifications. "…appendages and prostheses function as scavengeable spare parts," which are "appropriated from one body so as to be grafted onto another" (ibid.). The novel depicts AI (Artificial Intelligence) which are made by human raised a revolt against their master, "refusing to behave as the subservient mechanical servants they were designed to be" (ibid).

The technological appendages were "Moving across human and robotic bodies, such natural and mechanical limbs and organs blur the boundaries between man and machine." (p.86) The novel also portrayed a reverse plot about human and technology having "relationship of interdependence" (p.85) By that, the novel explores about possibilities of human-robot synchronization, "but recoils from the potential loss of human identity implied in such a merging." (ibid) It also has its attention on the common concern that the society has about the "over continued technological progress and what this means for the future of mankind." (ibid)

The excessive development of technology in the modern and postmodern world will determine the direction of change in human civilization, in which it brings about the possibility of status overturning, "ceases to function as a servant of mankind and instead threatens to enslave its human masters" (p.87). She has argued that the technological tools have become a part of human life, as a prosthesis and appendage. The suggestion for secession of human being and robot tools would probably risk denying human nature, because they were synchronized as one. She continued to explain that it is assured that human would say that they could be parted from technological control, or reverse the relationship between human and technology, but "If man ceases to be the master and proprietor of the technological implement, does he not also cease to be human in the metaphysical sense of the term?" (ibid) From here we see that Grech is interpreting Wilson's underlying meaning that he intended to portray human is already infuse with technology in modern days, but what is really the fact is that they were initially two parts of entity which is different in nature.

IV. CONCLUSION

The above references refer to the initial studies of the concept of technological dehumanization and the novel *Robopocalypse* by Wilson. From the finding, I have discovered that the notion of rigidity comes in a process subtle enough for human being to not realize it. Technological dehumanization and technocentrism are already inherent in today's society, or rather preferably being called as postmodern society.

Wilson portrayed the concept of rigidity in thought also in the similar way as he portrayed inertness. Rather than putting it in specific characters, Wilson depicted it as a whole society which is dehumanized by the domination of robot. The spark of this robot and human war in this story was the rigid thought between human and robot, each trying to defend their rights to be the one dominating. Wilson has already hinted this since the beginning of the novel by putting the representative of human being, Wasserman, and robot, Archos as the frontline.

In Grech's argument, she said that Wilson is relaying the message that robots and human are in the process of fusing in to each other, which she described technology as a form of prosthesis to post human's body. But in this study's finding, Wilson actually made Wasserman to die first in the war, and ironically he is the one who created the technology and killed by it. This trope brings the attention to the concept of technological dehumanization, which sprouted from rigidity in thought of techno centric and humanity world.

The notion of fungibility in Wilson's interpretation comes with the denial of depth property in human being. In the novel *Robopocalypse*, a number of characters could be found superficial and being subjugated. Though it is being vaguely portrayed in the novel but the evidence found is still strong enough to protrude existence of fungibility. In this study, I have found out that Wilson uses robot as archetype of dehumanized person, portraying them to be inert and open to subjugation by another party. In contrast to Grech's theory of prosthesis, this study has found that Wilson's underlying message meant more than just cyborgian becoming, but also the original humanity that is potentially lost in the process of cyborgian becoming. Out of this study's findings, I found out that Wilson portray not only the world of war between human and robot, but also the cache of human's intention trying hard to change the world by manipulating technological advancement, which in turn caused modification and technocentrism, but also degradation of human being. This is because over reliance on technology will eventually bring to change of human nature into highly fungible and passive, and only resort to mathematical calculation instead of human instinct and thought.

To conclude, though dehumanization is a developed theory, but the concept of technological dehumanization and mechanistic dehumanization as proposed by Haslam has yet to have considerable number of references. *Robopocalypse* is a new contemporary novel which has been analyzed in term of its general plot. Like Grech who had studied on its notion of technology as prosthesis, this study offers another degree of view to the novel that technology could potentially dehumanize human being.

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Elaheh Soofastaei graduated in BA in English Language and Translation at IAU, Shahreza, in Iran. She finished her MA in English Literature at English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU) in Hyderabad, India. At the present time, she is PhD student in the same major at Universiti Putra Malaysia. Her research interests include science fiction, cyberpunk, (post-) apocalypse, and dystopian fiction.

Hardev Kaur, PhD is currently senior lecturer attached to University Putra Malaysia. She is the Post-graduate Course Coordinator of English Literature in the English Department. She graduated from the Islamic International University Malaysia (IIUM).

Sayyed Ali Mirenayat finished his BA in English Language and Translation at Shahreza Islamic Azad University in Iran. After, he completed his MA in English Literature at English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU) in Hyderabad, India. At the present time, he is PhD candidate in English Literature at Universiti Putra Malaysia. His research interests includes science fiction, posthuman, transhuman, cyborg, technological transcendence, humanity and technology in literature, (post-) apocalypse, and dystopian fiction.

Foreigner Talk and Communication Strategies: A Socio-linguistic Study of Interactions with Foreigners in Saudi Arabia

Fahad Saleh Suleiman Alfallaj

Department of English and Translation, College of Science and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, KSA

Abstract—The study of language is as much a part of linguistics as it is of sociolinguistics. After all, language is a social phenomenon and operates within the paradigm of society and culture. Taking off from here, we observed in the course of our informal interviews and interactions with the native and the foreign populations of Saudi Arabia that communication was at a grave loss as neither of the two could arrive at a language that acted as a facilitator rather than a barrier to communication. More specifically, we undertook the study of a new register, 'Foreigner Talk' in order to highlight the problem areas in this type of communication set up. Direct empirical data went on to prove our hypotheses correct: Natives who are in constant contact of 'foreigners' needed training in linguistics in order to communicate well with the latter and contribute constructively towards building the image of KSA. In the current situation, there is an atmosphere of suspicion and mis-communication leading to loss of image and, at times, finances to the Kingdom of Saudi Arab. We have ventured into making certain recommendations for optimum correction of the imbalance. The researcher is convinced that sustained effort as recommended will positively influence the situation.

Index Terms—foreigner talk, communication strategies, socio-linguistic, register, social interactions, Saudi Arabia

I. INTRODUCTION

Language with its numerous varieties and users forms the core of Sociolinguistics: 'The study of varied linguistic realizations of socio cultural meanings which, in a sense, are both familiar and unfamiliar and the occurrence of everyday social interactions which are nevertheless relative to particular cultures, societies, social groups, speech communities, languages, dialects, varieties, styles' (Varshney 1995, pp.296). Thus language variations may occur in two types of spaces: Geographical and Social. Language variability in a social dimension is known as Sociolectics and is an area of study that has escaped the attention of many linguists and sociologists. Narrowing down to a phenomenon within this is 'Foreigners' Talk': One of the registers that sociolinguists talk about with great enchantment. "The term Foreigner Talk was first used by Ferguson (1971) to describe speech used with foreigners who are perceived to be deficient in proficiency in the target language" (Kitao, 1990, p.150).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Definition

Foreigner or Foreigners' Talk has been defined by a number of authors. All of these definitions converge to defining it as a register "used by speakers of a language to outsiders who are felt to have limited command of a language or no knowledge of it" (Lattey 1981 p.2). Wenk (1978) is more direct when he says, "Foreigner Talk is the register used by native speakers to make themselves understood by foreigners whose competence in the language is limited" (p. 2).

Registers are 'stylistic-functional varieties of a dialect or language'. Their subject matter can be used to define them: they are situationally conditioned field-of-discourse oriented varieties of a language. Two of the definitions cited by Varshney can be quoted here to illustrate this.

1. Registers are those "varieties of language which correspond to different situations, different speakers and listeners, or readers and writers, and so on".R.M.W. Dixon, "On Formal and Contextual Meaning," A LH (Budapest), XIV, p.38.

2. "By register, itself a linguistic, not situational category, is meant a division of idiolect, or what is common to dialects, distinguished by formal (and possibly substantial features and correlated with types of situations of utterance".

J. Ellis, "On Contextual Meaning," *In Memory of J.R. Firth,* Longmans, p. 83.

A look at the Background

1) Foreigner Talk and other Variations

Pidgin: Pidgin is a mixture of elements from different natural languages. It is characterized by restricted use within certain groups. According to Fasold (1990), pidgins do not have grammatical gender in the noun system and do not have noun-verb agreement endings. Tense and aspect are expressed, if at all, with separate words rather than by endings. Pronunciations tend towards a pattern of consonant followed by vowel and clusters of more than one consonant tend to be avoided… speakers and listeners have to rely on extra-linguistic aspects of the immediate speech situation to a

considerable degree (p.180-181). He concludes that "A pidgin language is generally understood to be a simplified language with a vocabulary that comes mostly from another language, but whose grammar is very effective. Pidgins, in the stereotypical case, are formed when speakers of one language engage in trade with speakers of another". (p.180)

Romaine (1990) says, "Pidgins are nobody's first language. They come into existence in contact situations, where they are used by speakers with different language backgrounds to fulfill certain restricted communicative purposes, typically trade" (p.163).

Creole: According to Varshney (1995), when a pidgin becomes a lingua franca, it is called a creole. It acquires a standardized grammar, vocabulary and sound system; and it may be spoken by an increasing number of people as their first language.

Dialect: The Dictionary of Linguistics defines dialect as "a specific form of a given language, spoken in a certain locality or geographic area, showing sufficient differences from the standard of literary form of that language, as to pronunciation, grammatical construction and idiomatic use of words…"

Idiolect: Peculiarities of pronunciation, vocabulary etc. which characterize the language used by one person fall under the category of idiolect.

Diglossia: Fergusson says when we find two or more dialects or languages in regular use in a community we have a situation called diglossia. He further says that in diglossic communities, the tendency is to give a higher status to one of the dialects or languages.

Baby Talk: It is the way we, adults, talk to babies. We omit, sometimes article, or propositions, or inflectional endings, attempting to make the language easier for children (Ferguson 1968).

Of all these variations, Baby Talk is the closest to Foreigners' Talk as they both aim for simplification of language for the purpose of communication. However, the characteristics of the latter set it apart from all the others in the set. The native speakers simplify the code (or language) employing one of the two ways: Positive or Negative. When they do not break the rules of the language system, it is called positive simplification; when the converse of this occurs, it is called negative simplification. Language is a means of communication. This can be of two types: Verbal (language based) and Non Verbal. Kinesics, proxemics and para linguistics are the indispensable components of nonverbal communication. For the native speakers, it is important to know about the non verbal aspects of communication as are prevalent in the native land of the foreigners they interact with.

Here are the brief definitions of these:

Kinesics: It is the study of messages conveyed by body movements; just as language uses symbols to convey messages, our head, face, eyes, gestures and posture are also media of communication. In the Arab context under study, whereas the Westerners are comfortable with direct eye contact, the former are rather uncomfortable with it.

Proxemics: It encompasses the way people use the space around them during communication. Illustrating from a comparison with the Arab culture once again, while the Westerners like more personal space, the former are comfortable with less interpersonal space.

Para linguistics: This is the field of non verbal communication and studies *haptics* (touch communication), *chronemics* (use of time for communication), voice, pitch and stress among other features of verbal communication.

The current study proposes to analyze both of these aspects of communication viz. verbal and non verbal as are prevalent in KSA with respect to the foreigners the Arabs interact with.

2) Foreigners and Foreigner Talk

The research question in this interesting interdisciplinary study was, do foreigners like native speakers to use the Foreigner Talk? We extensively interviewed a large number of NNSs, some of them friends and coworkers, on this. The interesting finding has been: Eleven students, all freshmen, say that they prefer the NSs to use the Foreigner Talk in their interactions. Eight of these students say that NSs should use the FT when talking to foreigners. However, nine of them who are proficient in English say that they do not rally care whether NSs use the FT or not. But, two of these say that they like NSs to use the FT.

When Dr. Hartwell (1996) was asked whether foreigners like NSs to use the FT or not, he states, "It could be yes, and it could be no. He advises that one investigate this matter in the concerned study. From the responses of our subjects in this study, the answer is what Dr. Hartwell (1996) expected. That is, beginners like NSs to use the FT, and this is where Dr. Hartwell says, "it could be yes". But, foreigners with proficiency in the language do not need NSs to use the FT, and this is what he means by "it could be no"!

<div align="center">III. Linguistic Analysis of Data</div>

The following observations were made by the researcher about the verbal English utterances of the Arab subjects:

A. Negative Linguistic Characteristics

Here are some examples:

1. Absence of the BE verb: Some NSs think that when they delete the "BE" verb, this helps the NNSs understand them. Contrary to this, NNSs get all the more confused in such a situation. The reason is that the NS is producing a new form of language that the NNS has never even heard before. For example, it is seen that the NS will say "the weather nice!" instead of saying "the weather is nice!"

2. Absence of morphological markers:

absence of the past tense marker {ed}; for example, NS would say "He work here last month" instead of saying "He worked here last month".

3. Using the {ed} with irregular verbs; for example, "He sayed that to me last night".

4. Absence of the third person singular(-s); for example, NS would say "She go to school every day" instead of saying "She goes to school every day".

Absence of the {-s} plural, or the possessive {s}. Our data revealed that some NSs think that dropping such an {s} makes the sentence easier to be understood by the NNSs. Again, this assumption is not true.

5. Selecting one form of pronouns; such as, NS would say "Me go there", "Me do this", "He is there; you saw he?"

6. Using one form of negation; for example, "you no do this".

7. Dropping the (aux) in the question; for example, "why you came here?" instead of saying "why did you come here?"

Dropping the modal; for example, "I go there tomorrow"

Instead of "I will go there tomorrow".

Dropping the {ing} form; for example, "I come to the party"

Instead of "I am coming to the party".

B. Possibly Positive Linguistic Characteristics

Here are some instances where the NSs engage in positive linguistic simplification by using:

1. full forms instead of contractions; for example, "I am a student" instead of saying "I'm a student",

2. short sentences instead of long ones, therefore, no relative clauses etc are used,

3. stress for some important words so the foreigner(s) would pay attention and understand what is being said to them,

4. the full grammatical sentences; thus, never drop:

a. modals b)Be verb c){s} plural d)auxe) e){d}past f){s} 3rd personal singularg){ing}h){ed}past participle,

5. the correct pronouns,

6. the correct form of negation,

7. words at the level of the foreigner; for example, develop instead of foster,

8. expressions at the level of the foreigner,

9. elimination the use of slang.

C. Negative Para-linguistic Characteristics

1. Awareness of proxemics is important in interactions with foreigners. Gestures which are positive in one culture may be tabooed in the foreigners' context.

2. Haptic dynamics vary from one culture to another, such as, touching is viewed as a poor gesture among the Arabs and the Japanese but is acceptable to Americans.

3. Kinesics, such as, eye contact, crossing the legs etc. can act as barriers to communication with certain foreigners.

4. Space is a also a feature of para language that plays a significant role in communication: NSs should make reasonable space when talking to foreigners.

5. Voice is the most important element of para language. Speaking speed, pitch variation, volume variation, tone and stress, all of these can have varying effects on foreigners. The Thai, for instance, hate it if someone talks to them loudly.

6. Saying stupid things: Hartwell (1996) warns against saying 'stupid things' to foreigners.

D. Positive Non-linguistic Characteristics

1. Speaking slowly. It is obvious that when native speakers speak quickly it is likely that the foreigners may not understand the sentence.

2. Using gestures whenever needed.

3. Increasing volume to a reasonable degree.

4. Repetition in order to make sure that the foreigner understands the utterance.

5. Paraphrasing. This technique is the best for foreigners for a number of reasons. The main one is that it increases the foreigner's vocabulary. Rephrasing may also be a technique: an extension of paraphrasing.

6. Drawing when it seems to be the only way.

7. Pointing out some objects.

8. Simulation and role playing considering different cultures.

9. Checking comprehension regularly to make sure that the Foreigner is able to follow. For example; NS can ask, "Do you understand what I mean?"

To sum up, I would like to emphasize a few points:

First; it is helpful to use the FT with NNSs who have limited proficiency in English. There is one condition for this: use the positive characteristics as discussed earlier.

Second, it is not helpful to use the negative FT with NNSs who have limited proficiency in English.

Third, it is not important to use the FT with foreigners who are proficient in the language.

E. Literature Review in Support of Findings

FT and ESL Teachers: Krashen's "Natural Approach"

The concern is whether ESL teachers ought to use the FT or not. When one looks at the ESL curriculum, one finds that it has the features of FT in general. ESL teachers should use the FT especially when teaching beginners and intermediate. It is almost a consensus that ESL teacher should use the FT when teaching ESL. I think that it is something natural; I mean something expected, to have ESL teachers use the FT in their classrooms. The reason is "Students need comprehensible input to acquire English" (Krashen 1984, p.76). The key concept here is "comprehensible input". Therefore, ESL teachers should use the FT in their classrooms in order to help their students acquire the language. Krashen and Terrell (1983) state that "Language acquisition can only take place when a massage which is being transmitted is understood" (p.55). Hence, ESL teachers should, in general," simplify communication" (i.e., speak in simpler terms). Great care must be taken to ensure that in simplifying communication, the meaning of the intended message is not changed or lost. The second thing is that they should talk about issues of immediate context or relevance (here and now). The third thing is to frequently repeat or paraphrase key words and ideas (Cochran, 1989, p.2).

Thus, the Natural Approach that Krashen and Terrell (1983) propagate is, in my opinion, the best to be mentioned here. The Natural Approach is based on the idea that to acquire a language one needs to receive comprehensible input. Though it is beyond the scope of this paper to deal with the Natural Approach; however, one can refer to *Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*, by Krashen & Terrell.

Now, do ESL teachers who are foreigners use FT in a better/worse way than native speakers? This study indicates that it depends to how experienced that teacher(s) is/are and/or how poor they are. In other words, ESL teachers, in general, with good experience in teaching are expected to use the FT better than those with limited experience in the field of teaching ESL students. Anyhow,

Milk (1990) thinks those ESL teachers who are foreigners use the FT in their classroom in a better way than ESL teachers who are natives. This assumption is built on the idea that foreign teachers know what is easy/difficult for ESL students. In addition to this, the foreign teachers have/had come through this and they know how to deal with ESL students.

My theory is, as mentioned earlier, that it depends on how experienced the teacher is: whether a foreigner or a native. Milk's study needs to be investigated more to see whether it is true or not. Anyhow, one can see that experienced teachers play a crucial role in this.

Communication/interaction strategies that foreign students use when talking with native speakers:

Now, let us shift to the foreigners and see what the strategies they use when talking to native speakers. They could use positive strategies, and/or negative ones. What I mean by positive strategies are the techniques that are linguistically and non-linguistically accepted in the language. Here are some of the positive communication/interaction strategies that ESL students use when talking with native speakers:

A) The positive linguistic strategies

• No contractions: it is noticed that ESL students use the complete form, with no contractions in their speech, especially the beginners. This technique is accepted and also recommended to be used by ESL students, the beginners.

• Short sentences: The second positive linguistic technique that ESL students use when talking with NSs is framing short sentences. I think that this technique is very important for ESL students. Hence, ESL teachers should advise their students to use short sentences, especially at the beginning levels. This technique enables ESL students to convey their massages in a correct way.

• The third technique is that ESL students ask for help in producing words. In other words, they ask if they pronounced the words correctly. Or, sometimes ESL students ask native speakers if this situation can be expressed in that sentence; and so on.

B) Positive non-linguistics strategies

• Paraphrasing: it is a common phenomenon that ESL students use-paraphrasing when they miss the words that they want to say. This technique is very beneficial. It builds the students' vocabulary as well as makes their pronunciation better.

• Use of dictionary: It is not a bad idea that ESL students use a dictionary when addressing native speakers. However, this technique could become negative if the ESL student uses it frequently. This is because NSs, for most situations, will not wait for the ESL students to refer to the dictionary every now and then. But this could be positive when the ESL student uses it a few times in a conversation.

• Appeal to authority: It is also a positive strategy to appeal to authority, a friend or someone else, to ask for words, meaning, etc. Sometimes, when a foreigner is talking to a native, and then suddenly stops looking for a word, expression, or even trying to understand what the native has just said. In this case, the foreigner will turn his/her face to someone with him/her who speaks the language as the foreigner does, and will ask for help in giving words, expression, and/or asking what the native meant by what he/she said.

C) Negative linguistic strategies:

1. Overgeneralization of the past tense {ed}: One of the negative linguistic features that foreign students use is the overgeneralization of the past tense {ed}. There are two ways that the {ed} has been over generalized. The first one I noticed is that the foreign students pronounce the suffix {ed} in the past tense verbs as / ^d/ no matter whether the verb ends with voiced or voiceless, /t/, or /d/ sound, though the {ed} past tense is only pronounced as / ^d/ when the verb ends with /t/ or /d/ sound (Finegan, 1994). I think it is the spelling that leads foreigners to pronounce the {ed} as / ^d/ in all situations. The second thing is that foreigners, especially the beginners, put {ed} for all the verbs, regulars and irregular, in

order to change the tense to past. Therefore, you may hear a foreigner saying "I goed there yesterday," instead of saying "I went there yesterday". Thus, this over generalization is a negative technique that some foreigner students use when talking with native speakers. Lastly, a foreigner may just drop the {ed} completely; for example, "I work here yesterday".

2. Overgeneralization of the {-s} plural: It is expected that foreigners would pronounce the {-s} plural as an /s/ in all positions, even if the nouns end with /s/, /z/, or a voiced sound. While in reality, the plural {-s} is pronounced as /s/ when the noun ends in a voiceless sound, and, it is pronounced as /z/ when it follows a voiced sound. Lastly, it is pronounced /z/ when the noun ends with /s/, /z/ (Parker and Riley, 1994).This over generalization of the plural {-s} can go further and be attached to irregular nouns. So, you might hear a foreigner saying "the sheeps are…"This is, of course, a negative feature, and it should be avoided at the intermediate levels. Foreigners, especially the beginners, may forget the plural {-s} completely, and never use it; for example, "we are student".

3. Dropping the "Be" verb: One may expect the Arab students to drop the Be verb and that is because it does not exist in Arabic, (Alkholi 1989). Therefore, you may hear Arab students saying "I here," instead of saying "I am here". This negative technique is because of the first language interference.

4. Dropping the {-ing}: Foreigners with limited English may drop the {-ing} from the present continuous verbs. As a result, one may hear a foreigner saying, "I am work now," instead of "I am working now".

D) Negative non-linguistic strategies

1. Shifting topics: Some foreigners use the technique of changing topics when they feel that they are stuck. For instance, the foreigner is talking about cars; then with no occasion, he/she starts talking about weather! This switching of topics is one of the negative non-linguistic techniques that some foreigners use when they cannot recall certain words, expressions etc.

2. Silence: Sometimes native speakers ask questions or state something that requires a response from the NNS; but the NNS does not response; he/she keeps silence! The obvious reason is that the NNS did not understand the conversation/question. The other possibility is that he/she does not know the right vocabulary, and/or the right expression to reply; thus, the foreigner keeps silence. In this situation, the native speaker should be helpful by providing whatever response is expected; for example,

NS: It is chilly out there!
NNS: {keeps silence}
NS: Cold, right?
NNS: Yes, cold.

3. Escaping and ending the conversation: This is the last/worst negative non-linguistic technique that foreigners could use in their conversation with NSs. Some of the foreigners escape and end the conversation when they do not understand and this is because they feel embarrassed. The reason why I call this technique the worst is because the NNS does not give him/herself the chance to learn from others. For example,

NS: It is chilly out there! NNS: what?
NS: Isn't it chilly out there? NNS: I have to go. {then leaves}

IV. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ESL/EFL TEACHERS

I hate to repeat the recommendations that were given in the section of "FT and ESL Teachers". However, Krashen's "Natural Approach" summarizes the whole idea. And, due to the communication/interaction strategies, the positive and the negative ones, ESL/EFL teachers should, in short, advise their students to use the positive ones as discussed in the previous section and eliminate the negative ones. In addition to this, as an ESL teacher, you should follow the following recommendations acquire the language:

1. Ask your students to read books etc., watch TV, and listen to the radio to gain new words. However, do not ask your students to memorize words without a context as they do in Saudi Arabia.

2. When you say a new word which is not familiar to your students, provide them with (a)lexical paraphrase, (b)synonyms, and (c)antonyms. And whenever they reach the meaning, encourage them to start using that word(s) in their conversation and in their writings.

3. Advise your students to look up new words in the dictionary and make sure that they arrive at the right meaning, or they ask the teacher, their peers etc. for the meaning. Again, encourage them to use that word(s) in their speech and in their writing, so that the new word(s) is entrenched in their memory and is not forgotten.

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Fahad Saleh Suleiman Alfallaj is an Associate Professor and Chairperson, Department of English and Translation, College of Science and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. He has published widely in International Indexed Journals. His interests include Theoretical Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes.

Self Assessment and Learner Autonomy

Hamid Gholami

Department of Foreign Languages, College of Humanities, Kermanshah Branch, Islamic Azad University, Kermanshah, Iran

Abstract—**The study was an endeavor to investigate the impact of self and peer assessment on learner autonomy and its dimensions as well as language proficiency. It also aimed at finding the students attitude toward practicing the technique. The study enjoyed a quasi-experimental pretest post test design. To meet the objectives, 49 intermediate participants were assigned to a control (25 participants) and an experimental group (24 participants). Students proficiencies were investigated in both pretest and post test using the same versions of PET. Students' level of autonomy was also studied in both pre-test and post-test utilizing a multidimensional learner autonomy questionnaire. Self-assessment was utilized over a three-month period in 25 sessions. T-test analysis of the results of the post test proficiency test revealed no impact of the technique on language proficiency. Although the t-tests run to analyze the different dimensions of the questionnaire showed the improvement in just three dimensions of learner autonomy, an improvement in learner autonomy in general was indicated. To study the participants' attitudes toward self assessing themselves, the researcher asked the participants to write about their experience. The content analysis of the participants written experts indicated their positive attitudes toward using the technique.**

Index Terms—**self assessment, learner autonomy, attitude**

I. Introduction

In some educational systems, self-access and autonomy practice is rarely of any concern and the practice of learner autonomy seems to be more applicable in western cultures where the whole idea originated. It is generally agreed today that learner autonomy is strange to learners in non-western cultures. There is convincing evidence, however, to assume learner autonomy as a psychological phenomenon that can go beyond cultural difference, though learning behavior is inevitably under culture influence (Aoki & Smith, 1999). Interestingly, in systems where self-access and autonomous learning is not embedded in a syllabus, the teacher can provide learners with some kind of advisory service: learner counseling, for example, is central to the self-access literature (Lit Karlsson, Kjisik, & Nordlund, 1997). There are also some other ways of cultivating learner autonomy such as; strategy training, self assessment, journals, distance learning and learning diaries which can be used in any context to empower the learners and develop their self-access and independency.

Traditionally, curricula have tended to focus on imparting knowledge and skills rather than the teaching of how to learn. In language teaching, we have focused on teaching linguistic forms by presenting the language items in carefully graded steps, at the expense of teaching people how to learn the language (Olivareas, 2002). However, the main issue is that the differences between students are not because of their studying specific books, having the same teachers, employing identical learning styles, or experiences, but because of the ways they have find out about how to learn a language more economically and productively. In fact, the most successful learners are the ones who take the responsibility of their own learning.

II. Review of Literature

According to Benson (2009), the idea of autonomy is not original to language teaching and learning. Rather, it is an imported and non-linguistic concept that has been brought into language teaching, via psychology and educational theory, from the field of philosophy. For much of the 20th century, however, language teaching theories and methodologies were largely grounded in theoretical and applied linguistics. It was only in the 1960s that theories with a greater focus on learners and learning came into the field and a concept like learner autonomy started to attract the attention of the researchers in the field.

Gremmo (1995, p. 152) also identifies some factors which contribute to the boost given to learner autonomy including minority rights movements, a reaction against behaviorism in medicine, politics, music, and so on, the emergence of "autonomy" as an educational goal, technology development, the rise internationalism since the second World War, adult learners and different learning needs, commercialization of much language provisions, growing school and university populations, and the development of new educational systems to dealing with large numbers of learners (Finch, 2002).

Interest in the idea of autonomy has grown largely since then and it has been associated with various forms of practice including individualized learning, self-instruction, self-access, computer-assisted language learning, distance learning, learner training and strategy training, collaborative learning, project work and the process or negotiated

syllabus that is, practices viewed as being supportive of the goal of autonomy and closely connected to the deconstruction of the traditional language classroom in the 1970s and 1980s. More recently, however, autonomy has been presented as a more general goal equally applicable to more conventional classroom situations.

Several arguments have been used for substantiating the merits of developing language learners' autonomy: Benson (2001) sees it as a human right, Naiman et. al. (1978) asserts that autonomous learning is more productive than other approaches to learning, and Waite (1994) argues that learners need to take the responsibility of their own learning endeavor so that they can make the most of available resources, especially outside the context of classroom. Learner autonomy is mostly seen as a significant educational goal, and the link between learner autonomy and effective learning has led to various pedagogical attempts in a wide variety of contexts to foster learner autonomy (Jones, 1995).

Although many have advocated learner autonomy for many years, dealing with the idea poses two major problems. The first of these concerns the definition of autonomy, or perhaps more accurately the meanings that are currently being attached to it. Little (1991, p. 4) argues that autonomy in learners can "take numerous different forms, depending on their age, how far they have progressed with their learning, what they perceive their immediate learning needs to be, and so on. Nation (2001, p. 394) defines autonomy by stating that "autonomous learners take control and responsibility for their own learning". According to Van Lier (1996) autonomous learners need to make significant decisions about what, how, and when to learn." Benson (2001) sees autonomy as "a multidimensional capacity that will take different forms for different individuals, and even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times" (Benson 2001, p. 47)

According to Lap (2005, p. 23), learners' cognitive ability or capacity, affective factors like attitudes, willingness, readiness, self-confidence, meta-cognitive strategies such as setting goals, selecting materials, planning learning activities, assessing self- progress, and social factors like willingness to work in co-operation with others are central to learner autonomy.

Accepting responsibility of one's own learning is not only a gradual development of metacognitive mastery of the learning process. Autonomy has another dimension namely self-management. The Council of Europe, for example, has used an English Language Portfolio which reflects the Council of Europe's concern with "the development of the language learner". Another tool that can be used to enhance the learners autonomy is self-assessment which Tholin (2008) defines as a natural element of autonomous learning sine it gives the learners a sense of consciousness of the learning. Gardner and Miller (1999) consider self assessment as a self monitoring device which provides learners with immediate feedback on their language proficiency and learning strategies. He even sees self assessment as tool that can increase motivation and also set some rules for the teacher in this process like raising awareness among the learners of the benefits of self assessment, providing guidance how to self assess and helping learners to understand the results. To make the learners capable of self-assessment, the teacher can take different approaches like allowing the students to work in groups in which they give and receive criticism or letting the students together evaluate some texts that they have written; the diaries that the students write in regard to what they have done while being in the class.

Traditionally, however, curricula have tended to focus on imparting knowledge and skills rather than the teaching of how to learn. However, the main issue is that the differences between students are not because of their studying specific books, having the same teachers, employing identical learning styles, or experiences, but because of the ways they have find out about how to learn a language more economically and productively. In fact, the most successful learners are the ones who take the responsibility of their own learning. And this, consequently, calls for implementing some techniques into the curriculum to enhance this feeling of responsibility in the process of language learning.

III. Research Questions

Since the study aimed at finding out the impact of practicing self-assessment technique on learner autonomy and consequently language proficiency, the following research questions will be investigated:

RQ1: Does the incorporation of self-assessment accompanied by peer-assessment improve learners' autonomy?

RQ2: Does the incorporation of self-assessment accompanied by peer-assessment improve learners' English language proficiency?

IV. Methodology

The study was a quasi- experimental one with a pretest-posttest design. Self/peer assessment was independent variables and learners' autonomy and learners' English language proficiency were the dependent variables. This study included one experimental group and a control one. The participants were 49 adult English learners, both male and female, all intermediate enrolling for the classes without knowing about the study and with an age range of 18-35. To have an appropriate sample two classes were considered as one group so that each group had 28-36 students. After administering the homogeneity test, i.e. PET, the students above and below 1.2 SD were selected. None of the candidates knew that they were part of a research project to ensure the validity of the results. The study started in the fall, 2012 and took 3 months or one semester.

The students' proficiency was measured using PET both as a homogeneity test and a post test. A learner autonomy questionnaire was also used as both a pretest and post test to measure the students' autonomy. The questionnaire

included 44 statements based on nine dimensions related to language learning (see Appendix A). The items in these nine dimensions show whether learners display a greater degree of control in a particular aspect of their learning. Table 1 below displays the nine areas to be investigated in the autonomy learner questionnaire.

The LAQ was adopted in this study because it was the most comprehensive one in terms of the number of the dimensions and therefore in terms content validity as compared to the other questionnaires available in the area of learner autonomy as confirmed by many researchers in the field (Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011; Gömleksiz, & Bozpolat, 2012; Karagöl, 2008). To tailor the questionnaire to the Iranian context, after piloting the test to 20 students, and based on the experts ideas, some items were modified or replaced. Some questionnaires administered in Iranian EFL context was also examined to find items suitable for replacing the inappropriate items (Moini & Asadi Sajed, 2012; Hashemian & Soureshjani, 2011; Nematipour, 2012; Rahnama & Zafarghandi, 2013; Maftoon, Daftarifard & Lavasani, 2011).

TABLE 1
NINE DIMENSIONS IN THE MODIFIED LEARNER AUTONOMY QUESTIONNAIRE

Section	Number of items	Focus	Questions
Dimension 1	6 items	Readiness for Self-direction	What are the learners' beliefs relating to self-directed learning in general?
Dimension 2	6 items	Independent Work in Language Learning	What are the learners' beliefs about independent work in language learning?
Dimension 3	8 items	Importance of Class/ Teacher	How important do learners see the class/ the teacher in their language learning?
Dimension 4	5 items	Role of Teacher: Explanation/Supervision	What importance do learners give to teacher explanation and supervision?
Dimension 5	4 items	Language Learning Activities Outside the Class	In relation to particular language learning activities, what are the learners' attitudes?
Dimension 6	3 items	Selecting Content	What are the learners' attitudes relating to the selection of content for language learning?
Dimension 7	3 items	Intrinsic motivation	How confident do learners feel about defining objectives?
Dimension 8	5 items	Assessment/ Motivation	How important is external assessment in motivating the learners' work?
Dimension 9	4 items	Interest inmOther Cultures	What are the learners' attitudes relating to the culture of other countries?

To collect the data on autonomy, the Autonomy Learner Questionnaire was administered in class with a thirty-minute allotted time period prior to the study as a pre-test and after the implementation period at the end of the twelfth week as a post-test.

The School invited all the students who have passed Top Notch Book 2B and ready to enter the Top Notch Book 3A classes (Level 7) to participate in a Preliminary English Test (PET) to ensure the homogeneity of the groups. Of course, the outliners were out of statistical considerations. Since there were 2 intermediate groups (4 classes) with 28-36 students in each group were available in the school, one of these groups served as the experimental groups and the other on as the control group and among those 28-36 students 23-25 were considered in statistical analyses since some of them were outliers and some others were absent on the exam.

Participants in the experimental group were asked to self-asses themselves and their classmates every session based on a 0-2 scale. The criteria for this self assessment were taught to ensure students knowing of how to evaluate their performance (including doing the homework, workbook and being active during the class). The teacher also evaluated the learners' performance on the same scale and since each term consists of 25 sessions, the mean of the sum of the students and teachers' given scores consist 50 of 100 scores of the whole term (To see a sample assessment form see Appendix C)

At the end of the course, the same autonomy questionnaires were given to the students to determine the possible changes. The students were also given an open-ended questionnaire about their experience practicing self assessment.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

The first Null hypothesis dealt with the impact of self assessment on learner autonomy and is stated as follows:
H_04: Self Assessment does not foster learner autonomy.
As assessment is one of the dimensions of learner autonomy, a comprehensive analysis of the dimensions seems to be more appropriate here to see whether its practice has any impacts on the dimensions other than assessment dimension.

TABLE 2
THE IMPACT OF SELF ASSESSMENT ON DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF LEARNER AUTONOMY

Dimensions		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
D1	Control	25	20.16	2.37	.812	47	.425
	SA	24	20.70	2.34			
D2	Control	25	18.32	1.81	.165	47	.870
	SA	24	18.46	2.26			
D3	Control	25	21.24	2.58	2.35	47	.023
	SA	24	22.95	2.51			
D4	Control	25	14.40	1.75	2.33	47	.024
	SA	24	15.62	1.90			
D5	Control	25	09.08	2.08	.348	47	.729
	SA	24	09.29	2.17			
D6	Control	25	07.40	1.52	1.67	47	.101
	SA	24	08.08	1.47			
D7	Control	25	05.40	1.97	5.04	47	.000
	SA	24	07.45	.833			
D8	control	25	13.68	2.10	3.30	47	.002
	SA	24	15.54	1.84			
D9	control	25	09.20	2.06	.823	47	.415
	SA	24	09.79	2.57			

As indicated in table 2 Self assessment doesn't seem to have any significant impact on some dimensions of learner autonomy, that is dimensions 1, 2, 5, 6 and 9. One the other hand some dimensions have been developed, examples are dimensions 3 (Importance of Class/ Teacher), 4 (role of teacher), 7 (objective/evaluation) and 8 (assessment/motivation).

To study the impact of self assessment on learner autonomy in general, another t-test was run and the result is shown in table 4.11.

TABLE 4.11
STATISTICS FOR LAQ- INDEPENDENCY LEVELS FOR SA

	VAR02	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
VAR01	Control	25	118.88	12.18	2.44	47	.019
	SA	24	127.87	13.56			

As indicated in the above table, the mean of the experimental group is higher than the control group and the Sig. which is lower than .05 (that is the alpha level) shows the positive impact of self assessment on learner autonomy.

The second hypothesis of the study is concerned with the impact of self assessment on language proficiency.

$H_0 2$: *Self Assessment does not improve on language proficiency*

To test the hypothesis PET was administered to 24 intermediate students who had been practicing self assessment for three months and the result was compared to that of the control group.

TABLE 3
STATISTICS FOR PET AS THE POST TEST IN SA GROUP

	VAR02	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
VAR01	Control	25	65.64	5.40	.207	47	.837
	SA	23	65.28	6.82			

As indicated in the table above, sig level is higher than the alpha decision level (.05) and therefore the null hypothesis can be accepted and it can be concluded that self assessment can not affect language proficiency.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Self assessment was the independent variable of the study. As with the other techniques, it developed some dimensions of learner autonomy like the importance of classroom and teacher, the role of the teacher, objective/evaluation and assessment/motivation. Of course, the fostering of these last two dimensions seems common sense, but self assessment has positive effects on the independency of the learners on teacher and classroom. It may because of the learners' change of attitude toward the role of themselves as active entities in language learning. The results of the study go in line with that of Gholami and Biria's (2014) on the impact of reflective journal writing. In that study, they found that reflective journal writing can foster some aspects of learner autonomy while not others. As Gardner and Miller (1999) discuss, self-assessment is an important tool for autonomous language learning. It can be used both as a testing device and as a device for personal self-evasluation. It provides the learner with a feedback immediately available to determine language proficiency and to reflect on learning strategies.

Interestingly self-assessment didn't develop learner's language proficiency. The findings are in contrast to those of Abolfazli and Sadeghi (2012) who claimed positive effect of self-, peer-, and teacher- assessment on Iranian undergraduate EFL students' course achievement and Vangah (2013) who found positive effects of self-assessment on reading.

Today a good assessment is not only an assessment of learning, it is also an assessment for learning. This kind of assessment contributes to the learners' growing consciousness, and enables them to go on with learning. In this way there is a clear connection between self-directed learning and assessment, and teachers should play their role by giving up the assessment to the learners.

Developing learner autonomy, however, is not a matter of one or two techniques; rather it needs a planned approach. Using the techniques discussed each its own seek although may lead to fostering autonomy but can not develop all the dimensions. It's the multidimensional model that can develop the autonomy and all its aspects. The multidimensional model can also affect the learner's proficiency which seems to be the end goal to many language teachers.

APPENDIX A. LEARNER AUTONOMY QUESTIONNAIRE

Name: ……………………..   Time of the Class:…………………….
Age: ………………………..   Educational background ………………
English Experience (year): ………………………
Direction: *Please check the one closest answer to the following questions according to your true cases. Thank you very much for your help and patience.*
5= Always True
4= Mostly True
3= Sometimes True
2= Rarely True
1= Never True

		1	2	3	4	5
1 (1)	I usually set my own goal for each semester. **INDEPENDENT**					
2(2)	I use other English books and resources on my own will. **INDEPENDENT**					
3(1)	When I hear someone talking in English, I listen very carefully. **INDEPENDENT**					
4(1)	I want to talk in English with my family or friends. **INDEPENDENT**					
5(2)	I enjoy learning a grammatical point on my own. **INDEPENDENT**					
6(2)	While learning English, I like activities in which I can learn on my own. **INDEPENDENT**					
7(2)	I like trying new things while I am learning English. **INDEPENDENT**					
8(3)	I am afraid that I won't learn a topic if the teacher doesn't explain it in the English class. **DEPENDENT**					
9(4)	I learn better when the teacher explains something on the board. **DEPENDENT**					
10(2)	I use my own methods to learn vocabulary in English. **INDEPENDENT**					
11(3)	I feel confident when the teacher is beside me while I am learning English. **DEPENDENT**					
12(3)	I can learn English only with the help of my teacher. **DEPENDENT**					
13(3)	My teacher always has to guide me in learning English. **DEPENDENT**					
14(4)	While learning English I would like my teacher to repeat grammatical rules. **DEPENDENT**					
15(4)	I feel happy when my teacher explains very detail of English. **DEPENDENT**					
16(1)	In the future, I would like to continue learning English on my own/without a teacher. **INDEPENDENT**					
17(5)	In the English lesson I like projects where I can work with other students. **INDEPENDENT**					
18(3)	I can learn the English grammar on my own/ without needing a teacher. **INDEPENDENT**					
19(3)	If I cannot learn English in the classroom, I can learn working on my own. **INDEPENDENT**					
20(2)	I like learning English words by looking them up in a dictionary. **INDEPENDENT**					
21(4)	I like my teacher to correct my errors when I make a mistake. **DEPENDENT**					
22(4)	I want the teacher to give us the words that we are to learn. **DEPENDENT**					
23(5)	I would like to use cassettes/ video/ CD's in the foreign language, outside of the classroom. **INDEPENDENT**					
24(5)	In fact I like to listen and read in English outside of the classroom. **INDEPENDENT**					
25(6)	I would like to select the materials for my foreign language lessons. **INDEPENDENT**					
26(6)	I would like to share the responsibility of deciding what to do in the English lesson. **INDEPENDENT**					
27(3)	I know how I can learn English the best. **INDEPENDENT**					
28(1)	If I haven't learnt something in my English lesson, I am responsible for it. **INDEPENDENT**					
29(6)	I would like to choose the content of what is to be taught in the English lesson. **INDEPENDENT**					
30(8)	The teacher should give me regular test. **DEPENDENT**					
31(7)	I like English because I like it to speak English. **INDEPENDENT**					
32(1)	I know my weaknesses and go for it. **INDEPENDENT**					
33(7)	I believe that I will reach a good level in the English language. **INDEPENDENT**					
34(8)	Every time I have an assignment, the teacher should score or correct it. **DEPENDENT**					
35(2)	I think that I learn English better when I work on my own. **INDEPENDENT**					
36(3)	My language learning success depends on what I do in classroom. **INDEPENDENT**					
37(5)	I find it more useful to work with my friends than working on my own for the English lesson. **INDEPENDENT**					
38(8)	I do the English lesson activities only when my teacher is going to grade me. **DEPENDENT**					
39(8)	I have my own ways of testing how much I have learned. **INDEPENDENT**					
40(7)	I can be a fluent English speaker in future. **DEPENDENT**					
41(9)	I try to understand the jokes and riddles of the foreign language. **INDEPENDENT**					
42(9)	I also investigate the culture of the foreign language I am learning. **INDEPENDENT**					
43(9)	I also investigate the idioms and sayings of the foreign language I am learning. **INDEPENDENT**					
44(9)	I ask people who have lived abroad about the lifestyles of the people living there. **INDEPENDENT**					

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Hamid Gholami holds a Ph.D. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from the Islamic Azad University of Isfahan. Right now, he is a faculty member in Islamic Azad University of Kermanshah and is also working as the Head of Department for M. A. students of TEFL. In recent years, he has been teaching English at different universities. His research interests and publications relate to learner autonomy, classroom practices, and teacher training.

Conversational Maxim View of Politeness: Focus on Politeness Implicatures Raised in Performing Persian Offers and Invitations

Mojde Yaqubi

Malay Language, Translation and Interpreting Section, School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Karwan Mustafa Saeed

School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Mahta Khaksari

Islamic Azad University, Baft Branch, Baft, Iran

Abstract—**This study reviewed the criticisms against Brown and Levinson's (1987) claim about necessity of violation of cooperative principles (CP) in giving rise to politeness implicatures. To support these critiques, evidences from Persian offers and invitations were provided from the texts of 10 Iranian movies. As no alternative framework for analysing the content of these implicatures has been proposed so far, the researchers adopted two politeness principles namely 'tact' and 'generosity' maxims as well as the cost-benefit and directness-indirectness scales proposed by Leech (1983) to fill this gap in the area of Persian pragmatics. The results of this study showed that both generosity and tact maxims are the main reasons behind both direct and indirect offers and invitations. Besides, the results showed that cost-benefit scale can explain the politeness implicatures raised in performing these speech acts better than directness-indirectness scale.**

Index Terms—**politeness implicature, offer, invitation Cooperative Principles (CP), Politeness Principles (PP), Brown and Levinson's theory, Leech's theory**

I. BACKGROUND OF STUDY

Since the speech act theory has been postulated by Austin (1962) and refined by Searle (1969), it has been used in wider context in linguistics for the purpose of explaining the language use. However, two stronger discussions come from the arguments about 'universality versus cultural specificity' and 'directness vs. indirectness' of speech acts. Although, the former was important in investigation of these elements, it was not foci of attention as much the latter among the scholars. As O'keeffe, et al. (2011, p. 84) argue the notion of directness and indirectness and the literal and intended meaning have been a chief concern dealt within speech act theory. The common question among these studies is *"how indirectness of speech acts is disambiguated in the mind of interlocutors?"*

After Austin and Searle, other breakthrough in pragmatics was by the third of trio of philosophers Grice. This Oxford philosopher introduced 'co-operative principles' (CP) and 'implicature' as means of investigating the 'implied meaning' of 'indirect' utterances. Implicature is derived from the verb 'to imply'. As Mey (2001, p. 45) argues etymologically, 'to imply' means to fold something into something else (from the Latin verb plicare 'to fold') and implicature refers to something which is left implicit in actual language use.

Grice (1975) postulated that speaker (S) can signal the implicature conventionally (directly) or non-conventionally (indirectly) to the hearer (H). In conventional implicatures, textual resources like conjunctions (*therefore, because, in spite of,* etc.) and grammatical structures (which are conventionally understood) are applied to signal certain relationships between propositions (Baker, 1992, p. 224). For instance in *'it's money that they want'* the grammatical structure itself presupposes what is expressed in the subordinate clause, in this case 'they want something' (ibid). On the other hand, for signalling the meaning of non-conventional implicature (conversational implicature) by S and its interpretation by listener, Grice (1975) postulated a set of rules called 'cooperative principles' (CP) (also known as Gricean maxims) namely those of 'quality', 'quantity', 'relevance' and 'manner' which help the interlocutors to work out the conversational implicatures. Based on Grice's (1975) theory, in performing direct speech act, interlocutors observe all these maxims. As Levinson (1983, p. 101) puts it, "these maxims specify what participants have to do in order to converse in a maximally efficient, rational, co-operative way: they should speak sincerely, relevantly, and clearly, while providing sufficient information". However by performing indirect speech acts, interlocutors 'violate' one or more CP in order to give rise to 'conversational implicature'.

In the mid 1970s, the focus of attention within pragmatics switched from attempts to explain 'how' language users interpret indirectness of pragmatic meaning towards an explanation of 'why' Ss use indirectness at all (Leech and Thomas, 1990, p. 193). To date, the most frequent explanation for being indirect has been the notion of 'politeness. There have been many approaches to politeness postulated by many scholars. Some of the main approaches to politeness are social-norm view (normative view of politeness) (Fraser, 1990), the conversational-contract view (Fraser & Nolan, 1981), face-saving view (Brown and Levinson, 1978, 1987) and conversational-maxim view (Lakoff (1973), Leech (1983)). As Fraser (1990) argues, first Lakoff (1973) adopted Gricean maxims in her work to account for politeness and she initially established the foundations of applying CP in explaining this phenomena. After her, in two politeness theories of Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) and Leech (1983) 'speech acts' were used as the main elements of analysis of 'politeness' was by itself considered as a reason for violation of CP and giving rise to 'politeness implicature' (implicature instances where by virtue of implying something politeness arises). These two theories will be investigated in the next sections.

A. Face-saving View of Politeness

Grice's assumptions about CP and implicature are regarded as building blocks in politeness theory postulated by Brown and Levinson (1987). Similar to Grice, B&L view communication as a 'rational activity' and assume that the nature of talk is based on a rational and efficient foundation that a maximal exchange of information is achieved through communication. Brown and Levinson (B&L) believed that the deviation from CP and giving rise to implicature are done by motivation of 'politeness' which is regarded as a rational reason for the S's irrationality or inefficiency.

By expanding the Goffman's (1955) notion of 'face', B&L distinguished between two kinds of face namely that of 'positive' and 'negative' faces referring to 'the positive social value' and 'the basic claim to freedom of action and freedom from imposition' respectively. B&L (1978) constructed their theory of politeness on the premise a set of speech acts called as 'face-threatening acts' (FTAs) are intrinsically 'threatening' to both positive and negative faces of both H and S. B&L (1987, p. 65-67) categorized a number of super strategies (together with their sub-strategies) of politeness which mitigate the threats that FTAs may have for S or H. These politeness strategies are 1) 'bald-on record', 2) 'positive politeness', 3) 'negative politeness', and 4) 'off –record' politeness. The more the FTA threatens S's or H's face, the more S will want to choose a higher-numbered strategy (1987, p. 60). Based on their theory, for achieving maximally efficient communication, interlocutors try to observe CP which characterizes rationality of interlocutors and their efficiency of their message. Observing all these CP (maxims) entails being 'direct' which is implemented in bald on-record strategy while doing FTA with the rest of three politeness strategies raise politeness implicature due to deviation of CP. B&L (1987, p. 57) state that 'implicatures of politeness' would presumably arise in the same way that all implicatures do, namely, on the assumption that what S said was relevant (maximized information pertinent to the context), certain (polite) presumptions would have to be made.

Similar to any theory, B&L's was not without criticism. One orientation of criticism addresses the notion of 'politeness implicature'. There exists a series of criticisms on B&L's claim about necessity of CP violation in raising politeness implicature. Among them, Pfister (2010) in his article *"Is there a need for a maxim of politeness?"* explores whether politeness is to be seen merely as a reason for apparent deviation from conversational maxims and argues that "an utterance is polite even though there is no implicature of politeness" (p.1270). He considers maxim of politeness similar to maxim of quantity and relevance on the ground that it allows for degree and considers it as a continuum. One of the examples by which Pfister is as follows:

[1]
A: *Look, it is sunny!*
B: *You need not take an umbrella with you.*

Pfister argues that in this example S strongly dislikes to go out because the weather is not known yet. Although he has observed all conversational maxims, he implicates "I am sensitive to your desire of not going outside when it is raining". In this utterance, S wants to be in conformity with the politeness maxim by implicating his desire not to go out when it is raining". Supporting other scholars, Pfister maintains that 'politeness maxim' is needed to explain the 'content' of such implicatures which cannot be explained by the definition of politeness implicature in B&L's theory.

B&L's claim about correspondence of indirectness (violation of CP) and politeness in giving rise to politeness implicature is criticized by other scholars such as Gu (1990). He argues that formulaic entreaties *like excuse/ forgive/ pardon me* in which bald on-record strategies (in which indirectness are absent) are regarded as polite utterances in Chinese. Discussing about Persian invitations and offers, Eslami-Rasekh (2005, p. 203) also argues "the more forceful and direct you are, the more polite it is". This reality is completely reverse to what B&L claims about the correspondence of indirectness and politeness.

Review of criticisms against universality of B&L's framework in investigation of politeness implicature revealed that CP postulated by Grice are not sufficient in explaining politeness implicatures in all cases and in all languages. In the next section, another pragmatic politeness theory proposed by Leech in which speech acts was the unit of analysis of politeness implicature will be focused.

B. Conversational-maxim View of Politeness (Leech, 1983)

Although the theory of implicature played an influential role in analysing the intended meaning of speech acts, it was questioned by many critiques such as Lakoff (1973), Leech (1983), Kingwell (1993), Davis (1998), Kallia (2007), Pfister (2010), etc. for the lack of explaining the 'reason' behind being indirect in utterance and also lack of maxim of 'politeness' among other maxims. Grice himself in his work argued that maxim of politeness should be added to CP; however, he did not explain it. He wrote:

There are, of course, all sorts of other maxims (aesthetic, social, or moral in character), such as "be polite" that are also normally observed by participants in talk exchanges, and these may also generate nonconventional implicature (Grice, 1975, p. 47)

The objections to CP have been on the ground that they cannot be regarded as evidence of real language use. For example, Larkin and O'Malley (1973) argue that conversational constraints such as those of the CP do not work because the majority of declarative sentences do not have information-bearing functions. Keenan (1974) is among those critiques that reject universality of CP as he believes that there are many communities in which CP cannot be applied. By contrast, Leech (1983) comes to defend CP and maintains that no claims have been made that the CP apply in an identical manner to all societies (p. 80). However, despite of his supporting of Grice's CP, Leech postulates that CP in itself cannot explain why people are often so indirect in conveying what they mean (1983, p. 79).Thus, for compensating the insufficiency of CP in investigating this indirectness, he postulated a set of politeness maxims or principles (PP) namely those of 'tact', 'generosity', 'approbation', 'agreement' and 'sympathy'.

According to Ogiermann (2009, p. 10) "PP is seen as the reason why a particular content or form is preferred over another". It is important to note that based on what Leech believes PP is not just an 'additional' maxim added to CP, rather it is regarded as a necessary complement which rescues the CP from serious trouble. He argues in being polite one is often faced with clash between the CP and PP so that one has to choose how far to 'trade off' one against the other (p. 83)

As Leech (1983, p. 16) maintains "cooperation and politeness are largely regulative factors which ensure that one conversation is under way and it will not follow a fruitless or disruptive path"; however, he maintains that "PP has higher regulative role than CP: to maintain the social equilibrium and the friendly relations which enable us to assume that our interlocutors are being cooperative" (p. 82). Leech (1983, p. 105) explained how politeness affects the Searle's (1969) speech acts by explaining his classification of illocutionary functions which as he believes are associated with PP. His proposed illocutionary functions are competitives (impositives), convivial, collaborative and conflictives. Leech believes that the first two categories related to politeness, while last two categories are neutrally polite and impolite respectively. The following table shows the correspondence of Leech's categories of illocutionary functions with Searle's (1969):

TABLE 1.
CORRESPONDENCE OF LEECH'S (1983) CATEGORIES OF ILLOCUTIONARY FUNCTIONS WITH SEARLE'S (1969) SPEECH ACTS

Leech's Illocutionary Functions	Searle's speech acts	Politeness Principles
Competitives (Impositives)	Directives: recommend, order, request, advice, invitation (added by Leech)	Tact, Generosity
Convivials	Commisives: Promise, vow, offer, refusal	Tact, Generosity
	Expressives: thank, congratulate, pardon, blame, compliment, condole	Approbation, Sympathy
Collaboratives	Assertives: claim, boast, complain, suggest, state	-
Conflictives	Declaratives: threaten, accuse, reprimand	-

Leech not only investigates 'how' polite a given illocution is, but 'why' a particular device contributes to a particular illocutionary goal. He believes that tact and generosity maxims deal with cost-benefit scale. He defined these two maxims as follow:

Tact maxim: (a) minimizes cost to other (hearer) or third party), (b) maximizes benefit to other

Generosity maxim: (a) minimizes benefit to self (speaker), (b) maximizes cost to self.

As the table 1 shows Leech maintains that Searle's 'directives' (impositives in his word) and 'commisives' are performed for upholding these maxims. Based on this scale, the utterance "*have another sandwich*" upholds tact maxims while "*peel the potato*" violates it.

The other scale he proposed is directness-indirectness scale. He believes that the degree of indirectness correlates with the degree to which H is allowed the option of not performing the intended action, e.g. answering phone. Leech believes negating statement like '*would n't you?*' and '*could n't you?*' are intentionally used more than *would you* and *can you* in polite conversations in English. As forms which implies the denial of a positive proposition persuades the addressee to do the action. As an example he believes that CP can be violated at the sake of upholding tact maxims and leads to politeness implicature i.e. 'S is tactful'. Although (similar to B/L's theory (1983)) in his theory Leech draws on the notion of indirectness in raising politeness implicatures, he argues the content of the 'direct' polite speech acts in explaining the politeness implicature. To support his idea, he maintains that in some cases of observing tact maxim in English language, S may use direct illocution rather than indirect illocution in order to put H in the position to not say 'no'. This is the reverse idea with Brown and Levinson who believe that politeness will not be raised in the case of direct speech acts. Leech (1983) believes that in proposing the action which is beneficial to H, S will operate an

illocution toward the positive outcome by restricting H to say 'no'. This kind of illocution (offers, invitation, etc) has persuasive emphasis to give benefit to H. The example Leech sets is *"you must have another sandwich"*.

Although the form and function of Persian offers and invitations have been sporadically studied in the area of interlanguage pragmatics and intercultural studies (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Salmani Nadoushan, 2005; Allami, 2007) no study has been conducted which investigates the politeness implicatures raised in performing these speech acts. Although Iranian ritual politeness system (*ta'arof*) and the notion of Persian face (*aberu*) were the focus of attention of some studies (Koutelaki, 2002; Sharifian, 2007) in which they criticized the universality of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, however, to date, no study has discussed (in) applicability of this theory or violation of CP in explaining politeness implicatures in performing Persian speech acts. Furthermore, no alternative pragmatic politeness theories have been developed for discussing how these imlicatures are inferred in the context. Thus, this study sets out to fill these gaps in the field of Persian pragmatics. The conceptual framework and the methodology applied in this study will be explained in the following section.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

In this study, politeness imlicatures raised in performing Persian invitations and offers were analyzed. To this aim, Leech's concept of tact and generosity maxims (cf. Table 1) were adopted to explain the reasons behind giving rise to politeness imlicatures in performing these two speech acts.

Based on the previous works (Gu, 1990; Pfister, 2010), we hypothesized that using both direct and indirect invitations and offers give rise to implicatures in Persian. Therefore the researchers identified both direct and indirect offers and invitations.

The conceptual framework in identification of these elements was Allami's (2007). Allami used this framework for the identification of Persian offers and argued that the framework itself was a combination of the schemes used by House and Kasper (1981) and Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in the identification of request. The reason behind the adoption of Allami's framework for invitation was that both invitation and offers are considered as types of request.

The corpus of the study included 52 Persian offers and 76 invitations collected from 10 Iranian movies made between the years 1390 (2011) and 1393 (2014). The reason behind this choice was the themes of the films which were establishment and maintenance of interpersonal relationships and also abundances of offers and invitations.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The result of the study revealed that violation of CP cannot be determining criteria for explaining politeness implicaures raised in performing Persian invitations and offers. This idea can be supported by evidences of direct invitations from the corpus. Here is an example:

[1]

Context: B (he guest) is about to leave the party while A (the host) tries to insist on B to stay for dinner
-A: *Kojā hālā sare shabe xanum? Ye xorde bishtar bemunid*
Where now on night-is lady? A bit more stay-you-PL
(Where do you go? It's so early to leave now madam. Please stay longer)
[*ye qazāye kārgari peidā mishe dore ham boxorim*]
A food labour find will be around each eat-we
(We can provide a simple food to eat together)
-B: [*In harfā chie? Be zahmat mioftin*]
This words what is ? to effort fall-you-PL
(don's say that. We will bother you)
-A: [*E shab mimundin dige*]
eh night stay-you-PL too
(Oh, please Stay tonight)
-B: [*Bazām miāym pishetun*]
Again too come-we to-you
(We will come to visit you again)
-A: [*Man nemizāram ke shomā shām naxorde berin*]
I not-I that you-PL dinner not-eaten go-you-PL
(I don't allow you to go without dinner)

In Persian, invitations and offers, as important polite speech acts should be performed with maximum efficiency in order to avoid the addressee to think that the invitation is insincere or not genuine. In this example, although the host uses direct speech acts *"I don't allow you to go without dinner"*, by uttering which CP violation has not occurred, politeness imlicatures 'A is tactful' or 'A is generous' will be generated in the mind of B as based on the definition of tact and generosity maxims by Leech, A maximizes benefit to B or A maximizes cost to self respectively. Lack of CP violation in this example confirms the Pfister (2012) arguments about insufficiency of investigation of CP in investigation of politeness implicature.

Analysis of the data revealed that in performing direct offers inerlocutors uphold tact and generosity maxims without violation of CP. Here is an example of direct offer extracted from the corpus:

[2]

Context: A is an old lady who is the host and is offering fruits to her guest (B).
-A: *[bāyad   yek   portoqāl   boxorid]* must   one   orange   eat-you-PL (You have the authority, I did not see (you eating), you must have one orange *[porteqalāsh   abdāreh]* *oranges its   juice are* (the oranges are juicy) *-B:* *[Xeili mamnoon, chashm]* Very indebted   eye (Thanks a lot, ok)

In this example, although A is using direct offer '*you must have one orange*", the politeness implicature 'A is tactful/ generous' is raised in the mind of B. This example supports Leech's idea of beneficial speech acts which are performed directly (cf. Section 1.2).

Based on the analysis of the data, the researchers concluded that politeness implicatures are raised in performing Persian indirect offers and invitations as well. This may happen when S makes negative statement/ question which will put the addressee in a situation in which saying no is difficult. Here is one example of an indirect:

[3]:

A is a poor old woman who is invited to a luxurious party. She brought her simple food to the party and insists the other guests (including B and C) to try her food first.
-A: [*Shomā   az   in   shāmi-ha-ye   man   ne-mixorin?* You-PL   from this   kebab-s-of   I   not-eat-you-PL (won't you eat these kebabs I made?) *[xeili tamiz   doros   kard-am dastam   pāk   boode]* very clean   make   did-I   hands-I   clean   was-it (I made it in a clean way, my hands were clean) -B: [*Daste   shomā   dard   nakone,* Hand   you-PL   pain   not-have-it (thank you) [*daspoxte   mash   maryam   harf   nadare*] cooking   mash   maryam   word   not-have-it (Thank you, Maryam's cooking is great) -C: [*Bale*] Yes (Definitely!) -A: [*Naxordin   gozāshtin   kenāre   boshqābātan*] Not-eat-you-PL   Put-you-PL   beside   plate-s-you-PL (You have n't taken yet, you have put them in your plates) -C: [*Mixorim*] Eat-we (We will take)

In this conversation A uses negative statements such as "*won't you eat these kebabs I made?*", etc. in order to persuade the guests to eat them. Leech explains why negative questions like *won't you* are more polite than positive question than *will you* in offers. Leech believes that the negative question is a question about a negative proposition, which itself implies the denial of a positive proposition. The intended meaning of A's utterances can be spelled out as follows*: '*I hope and expect you to help yourself with my kebabs, but it appears you do not like them as you have put them in your plates, is it really so?'Leech calls such statements 'disbelief in that belief' as a way of showing politeness (tactfulness) to persuade the H to i.e. accept the offer. In this example the maxims of quality and quantity have been violated for the sake of upholding tact maxim and consequently politeness implicature raised in the mind of B and C is 'A is a tactful'.

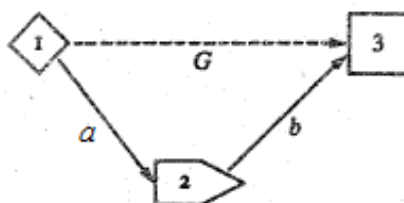Means-end analysis of the politeness implicature raised in performing offers and invitations has been given below:

Figure 1: Politeness Implicatures Raised in Performing Offers and Invitations

1: Initial state: A wants B to accept the offer/ invitation
2: B and C understand that A is polite (The offer gives rise to the implicature 'A is tactful/ generous)
3: B and C considers A as polite/generous

G: Goal of attaining (B and C consider A as polite /generous person)
a: A's action of offer/ invitation
b: B' s acceptance of offer

IV. CONCLUSION

Analysis of these three examples showed that violation of CP cannot be criteria for analysing politeness implicatures in performing Persian offers and invitation. In other words, despite of B &L 's claim about correspondence of indirectness and politeness, the researchers came to this result that both direct and indirect invitations and offers give rise to politeness implicature in Persian.

From the analysis of the data, the researchers concluded that Persian offers and invitations are performed to uphold PP. This can occur with/ without violation of CP.

To the best knowledge of the researchers, no one has applied Leech's (1983) theory in investigation of politeness implicature raised in performing Persian speech acts. Result of the study revealed that this theory is more applicable in analysing these implicatures. Besides, The result showed that although directness-indirectness scale can be applicable in analyzing the degree of politeness in Persian, Leech's cost-benefit scale is more suitable for explaining the content of these implicatures.

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Mojde Yaqubi was born in Iran in 1986. She received BA and MA degrees in English literature and English translation in Iran. She continued her education in translation studies at PhD level in Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) in August 2011.

She has been a research fellow in the school of humanities, USM since November 2014. Her fields of specialization are mainly 'speech acts theory', 'politeness implicature' and 'audiovisual translation' as well as 'reception studies'. She has some articles on 'domestication versus foreignization', 'the role of gender in translation practice', as well as 'subtitling of FTAs and phatic function'.

Karwan Mustafa Saeed is originally from Kurdistan, and was born in 1984. He earned his B.A. degree in Translation from University of Koya, Kurdistan region in 2008. He earned his master's degree in Applied Linguistics from Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) in 2013. He has taught English language in high school for five years now. He has also worked on translation projects with three American educational organisations from English to Kurdish and vice versa.

Currently, he is doing a PhD degree in TESOL program at the School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). His professional interests include English language teaching, second language acquisition, teaching English to speakers of other languages, speaking assessment and pragmatics.

Mahta Khaksari was born in Iran in 1976. She obtained her B.A. in English language and literature, and her M.A. in Teaching English (TEFL). Currently, she is pursuing a PhD degree in English Literature at University of Science Malaysia (USM) in Penang, Malaysia.

She has been a University Lecturer in Islamic Azad University of Kerman and Baft branches since 2002.

She has been the head of the English department for six years, and women's research centre representative of Islamic Azad University, Baft branch for two years. Her areas of specification and interest are English literature, cultural studies, Greek mythology and young adult literature.

Instructors' Attitudes towards the Reflection of Critical Thinking in Course Syllabi: Evidence from an Expanding Circle

Manoochehr Jafarigohar
Department of TEFL and English Literature, Payame Noor University, P.O. box 19395-3697, Tehran, Iran

Fatemeh Hemmati
Department of TEFL and English Literature, Payame Noor University, P.O. box 19395-3697, Tehran, Iran

Afsar Rouhi
Department of TEFL and English Literature, Payame Noor University, P.O. box 19395-3697, Tehran, Iran

Hoda Divsar
Department of TEFL and English Literature, Payame Noor University, P.O. box 19395-3697, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—This study investigated Iranian EFL university instructors' familiarity with critical thinking, and its use in their course syllabi. To this end, 103 instructors completed an attitude questionnaire. The results revealed that the differences between EFL instructors were significant across their level of education in terms of their preparation of course syllabi, and their familiarity with CT and official syllabi. Besides, TEFL instructors were significantly superior to their linguistics and literature colleagues in terms of their familiarity with CT and its perceived importance. The results revealed that the relationships between the participants' teaching experience on the one hand and their preparation of syllabi, their familiarity with CT and official syllabi and the consideration of CT in their course syllabi on the other hand were statistically significant. The study suggests that teacher training programs and in-service training courses should aim at educating instructors continually and systematically and help them keep abreast of the recent pedagogical innovations to enhance learning outcomes.

Index Terms—critical thinking, attitude, course syllabus, instructors, expanding circle

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking (CT) has attracted increasing attention in recent decades. Numerous scholars and educators across the world (e.g., Brookfield, 2009; Watson & Glaser, 2002) have called for a shift of focus from knowledge transmission to knowledge transformation through which learners would be led towards autonomy.

Although CT skills are extremely valued and are considered as "a necessary outcome of higher education" (Tsui, 2002, p. 740), the existing literature reveals that due to the perceived and experienced obstacles, higher education does not promote students' CT skills in Iranian context (Aliakbari & Sadeghdaghighi, 2013). As students' ability to assess, analyze, interpret, evaluate, and create is not an inherent trait but a learned skill (Halx & Reybold, 2005), and it is developed through education and practice as well as experience, instructors play an important role in fostering students' ability to think critically. As Mangena and Chabeli (2005) rightly stated, "one cannot teach critical thinking if one is not a critical thinker oneself" (p. 292). As such, instructors play a significant role in the process of familiarizing students with CT and cultivating the relevant skills.

To this end, the present study sought to find out EFL instructors' perceived level of familiarity with the concept of CT and the level of importance they place on the use and incorporation of CT in their course syllabi.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In educational settings, CT is judged to be a crucial concept since it helps students "to connect knowledge as they use information from many different sources and experiences to gain broader perspectives and deeper understanding" (Kanik, 2010, p. 20). Critical thinkers raise seminal questions, verbalize them clearly, gather and assess pertinent information, use influential ideas, reflect liberally, and communicate effectively with others (Duron, Limbach, & Waugh, 2006). Researchers emphasize the importance of developing students' CT believing that one major goal of education is "to create men who are capable of doing new things rather than repeating what the previous generations have already done, and to form minds which can think critically, and verify rather than passively accepting everything offered" (Fisher, 1995, p. 22).

CT has always been a topic of much dispute because it does not unfold itself easily to a clear-cut definition (Castle, 2009; Raymond & Profetto-McGrath, 2005). A glance through the literature reveals that the concept has been defined inconsistently and even the existing definitions tap various aspects of CT. For example, following Delphi method, Facione (1990) conducted a research through a panel of 46 experts and defined CT as "a purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, and conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based" (p. 2). On the other hand, Scheffer and Rubenfeld (2000) described it as "a component of professional accountability in which students practice the cognitive skills of analyzing, applying standards, discriminating, information seeking, logical reasoning, predicting, and transforming knowledge" (p. 25). Paul (1992) also conceived CT as "the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action" (p. 38).

Although there has been no consensus on the definition of CT and the true meaning of this concept has been a topic of much debate (Bloom, 1956; Ennis, 2004; Halpern, 2007; Paul, 1995), it is considered as an important factor in education (Allington, 2009; Ennis, 2004; Hofreiter, Monroe, & Stein, 2007; Watson & Glaser, 2002). As such, that education is to be CT-inspired seems to be far from being controversial. In fact, the debate is over how such skills should be operationalized, implemented, and evaluated effectively. This process requires a shift of focus from the traditional view towards education to a more active and dynamic one. Training students to think critically and helping them go beyond the realm of mere accumulation of knowledge is considered a desirable outcome of education. As Synder and Synder (2008) stated, "critical thinking is not an innate ability," and should be developed by instructors through education, practice, and experience (Kowalczyk, Hackworth, & Case-Smith, 2012). This highlights the critical role of instructors in the improvement of their teaching practice.

Instructors who have conceptualized and apprehended CT clearly are eager enough to implement CT skills in their teaching and more successful in incorporating them in their practice (Newman, 1991). Seidman (2006) carried out a multiple-case study to investigate the effect of instructors' beliefs about CT on students. Following a descriptive method, four college instructors teaching business, education, and computer courses were selected for an in-depth investigation. The findings revealed that the instructors' beliefs about CT were compatible with their instructional methods. For examples, some of the common beliefs about CT that were reflected in their practice were: First, CT developed over time as practices and experiences increased. Second, in-class arguments and in-depth discussion were essential to developing CT. Third, developing CT skills was as important as content coverage and finally, personal discipline was highly encouraging and helpful to the development of CT.

Instructors' perceptions of CT and understanding the importance of developing it underlie their classroom practices (Onosko, 1990). They play an essential role in familiarizing students with the concept and cultivating them in the class. Therefore, the degree of their familiarity with CT and how to implement the related skills inspire further development. In a study, Stapleton (2011) studied instructors' views on CT. The result unveiled that they were not much aware of those definitions and there was no precise understanding among teachers of what CT really meant. Stapleton interviewed 72 high school teachers in Hong Kong on their opinions about the meaning of CT. Results indicated that although the teachers had some conception of the term, it was rather narrow and vague. Nevertheless, they expressed strong support for the inclusion of CT in the curriculum as well as holding some classes for training teachers on how to teach it. The findings suggested that more precise definitions of CT are required for educational practitioners and in overall educational documents.

According to Allington (2009), CT is regarded as an indispensable component of education, a trait of an educated person. The goal of teaching CT is to develop people who are fair-minded, objective and committed to clarity (Chabeli, 2007). Ever-changing and increasingly complex state of knowledge development is demanding higher-order thinking skills in students of all disciplines.

An important point is that teachers should be critical thinkers to promote CT skills. This highlights the role of instructors in flourishing CT skills in students because if they are not familiar with CT, it will be difficult for them to facilitate CT; if they do not perceive the significance of CT, they will not be able to cultivate it in their own practice.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. Are there any significant differences between EFL instructors in terms of their familiarity with CT and its importance across their level of education?

2. Are there any significant differences between EFL instructors in terms of their preparation of course syllabi and use of official syllabi across their level of education?

3. Are there any significant differences between EFL instructors in terms of their familiarity with CT and its importance across their field of study?

4. Are there any significant differences between EFL instructors in terms of their preparation of course syllabi and use of official syllabi across their field of study?

5. Are there any relationships between EFL instructors' teaching experience and their familiarity with CT and its importance?

6. Are there any relationships between EFL instructors' teaching experience and their preparation of course syllabi and use of official syllabi?

IV. METHOD

This study utilized a quantitative design to collect the data. To this end, a survey method was used. As such, a questionnaire with closed items was administered to elicit the data.

A. Participants

Initially, about 600 Iranian university instructors were randomly selected to take part in this study. One hundred and three EFL instructors (45 male and 58 female) participated in the study and completed the attitude questionnaire. The age of the participants ranged from 25 to 61 years of age ($M = 35.64$, $SD = 6.93$). In addition, the average teaching experience of the participants, which was considered as a moderator variable in this study, ranged from 1 to 27 years ($M = 9.36$, $SD = 5.96$). In terms of the field of study, 65 (63.1%) of the participants, 18 (17.5%) of them and 20 (19.4%) of them majored in TEFL, English Literature, and Linguistics, respectively. In addition, 66 (64.1%) of the participants held MA and 37 (35.9%) of them held PhD.

B. Instrument

Based on the existing literature, an attitude questionnaire which consisted of three sections was developed. The sections included an introduction, biographical information, and the attitude items. Through a short explanation, the participants were debriefed about the purpose of the study in the introductory section and the participants' biographical information including their age, gender, teaching experience, and field of study were elicited as well. The attitude items consisted of seven five-point Likert-scale items dealing with the issues related to the instructors' preparation of course syllabi, their adherence to the macro policies, and familiarity with CT as well as its importance.

The content validity of the questionnaire was established by a panel of four university instructors. The panel commented on the survey content to ensure the instrument measured the desired affective constructs and provided suggestions for improvement. The reliability of the items was calculated through Cronbach alpha. The reliability coefficient was found to be .73 suggesting that the items had relatively high internal consistency. It is to be noted that a reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is considered to be good in most social science research (Dörnyei, 2007).

C. Data Collection and Analysis

Based on the purpose of the present study and the existing literature on CT, a set of items were extracted and sent to four experts to be evaluated. Before administering the questionnaire to the target group, it was piloted with 10 EFL instructors to make sure it covered the required issues and the items were not ambiguous. Based on this preliminary pilot phase, some items were developed and modified to meet the objectives of the study. The revised questionnaire was sent to those instructors whose contact information was accessible through their affiliated universities. One hundred and three instructors returned the questionnaires. The anonymity of the participants was guaranteed and the confidentiality of the responses was ensured too. After the data were collected, they were subjected to statistical analysis.

To analyze the data, descriptive and inferential statistics were both run. Descriptive statistics were reported for each item which had an ordinal scale. As Mackey and Gass (2005) stated, one of the main assumptions for parametric test is that the data should be interval. Dörnyei (2007) also stated that "if we have … ordinal data …, parametric tests are not appropriate and we need to use non-parametric procedures" (p. 227). As such, to investigate the role of the participants' degree, Mann Whitney U tests were run. To explore the role of their field of study (TEFL, Literature, & Linguistics) in their familiarity and use of CT, Kruskal Wallis test was run. In addition, the relationships between the participants' teaching experience and their responses to the questionnaire items were computed through Kendall tau which is a non-parametric correlation test used when there are tied ranks in the data (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the respondents' responses:

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RESPONSES TO THE CLOSED ITEMS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	M	SD
1. Preparing syllabi	103	2.50	1.23
2. Familiarity with CT	103	2.72	1.19
3. Importance of CT	103	3.03	1.19
4. Familiarity with official syllabi	103	2.73	1.24
5. Use of official syllabi	103	2.31	1.15
6. Syllabi's match with the official ones	103	2.06	1.01
7. Considering CT in syllabi	103	2.19	1.31

With respect to the first item that scrutinized the participants' preparation of written course syllabi for the courses they taught, the mean was found to be 2.5 (SD = 1.23). The second item explored whether participants were familiar with the concept of CT. The mean rank of item two (M = 2.72, SD = 1.19) showed that the participants were not completely familiar with CT as the mean was between '*disagree*' (2) and '*agree*' (3). The third item was also concerned with the importance of CT from the instructors' views (M = 3.03, SD = 1.19). The mean rank of the importance was between '*agree*' and '*strongly agree*'. In addition, the mean rank of this item was the highest among all items. Item four explored whether the participants were familiar with the syllabi officially announced by the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology as far as the courses they taught were concerned. This item had the highest dispersion among all items (M = 2.73, SD = 1.24). Item five investigated if the instructors used the syllabi of the Ministry in the preparation of their course syllabi. The mean rank of this item was not high (M = 2.31, SD = 1.15). Item six examined if the the instructors' course syllabi were in accordance with those suggested by the Ministry. This item had the lowest mean and SD (M = 2.06, SD = 1.01). As it appeared to be the case, the instructors did not find the official syllabi quite appropriate. As such, they preferred to make some modifications in the syllabi. The lowest SD showed the lowest degree of dissimilarity among the responses given by the participants. The last item dealt with whether they would consider CT in their syllabi even if they did not have any written syllabi. The mean was found not to be high enough (M = 2.19, SD = 1.31).

B. Inferential Statistics

To explore the significance of the differences, non-parametric tests were used. The results are presented in the following sections.

Differences between instructors in terms of their level of education. A Mann-Whitney U test was run to determine the role of the instructors' level of education. Table 2 reports the mean ranks and sum of ranks for each item and Table 3 represents the result of Mann-Whitney U test.

TABLE 2
MEAN RANKS AND SUM OF RANKS ACROSS LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Items	Level	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	MA	66	45.90	3029.50
Item 1	PhD	37	62.88	2326.50
	Total	103		
	MA	66	44.63	2945.50
Item 2	PhD	37	65.15	2410.50
	Total	103		
	MA	66	48.95	3230.50
Item 3	PhD	37	57.45	2125.50
	Total	103		
	MA	66	46.16	3046.50
Item 4	PhD	37	62.42	2309.50
	Total	103		
	MA	66	48.02	3169.50
Item 5	PhD	37	59.09	2186.50
	Total	103		
	MA	66	51.24	3382.00
Item 6	PhD	37	53.35	1974.00
	Total	103		
	MA	66	48.80	3220.50
Item 7	PhD	37	57.72	2135.50
	Total	103		

Note. Item 1 = Preparing syllabi; Item 2 = Familiarity with CT; Item 3 = Importance of CT; Item 4 = Familiarity with official syllabi; Item 5 = Use of official syllabi; Item 6 = Syllabi's match with the official syllabi; Item 7 = Considering CT in syllabi

As revealed in Table 2, in all items, instructors with PhD had a higher mean rank indicating their further familiarity with CT and the use of syllabi to foster CT in their courses. The highest difference related to item two that dealt with the familiarity of the participants with the concept of CT. Interestingly enough, PhD holders indicated that they were by far more familiar with CT (mean rank of PhDs = 65.15; mean rank of MAs = 44.63). Item six revealed the lowest mean rank difference (mean rank difference= 2.11). These findings coincided with those of Hackworth (2009) who discovered that the confidence and skill level showed a significant difference when comparing the educational level of the program director, particularly between those with a master's degree and a doctoral degree.

TABLE 3
TEST STATISTICS A (DIFFERENCES ACROSS LEVEL OF EDUCATION)

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7
Mann-Whitney U	818.5	734.5	1019.5	835.5	958.5	1171	1009.5
Wilcoxon W	3029.5	2945.5	3230.5	3046.5	3169.5	3382	3220.5
Z	-2.852	-3.716	-1.518	-2.907	-1.912	-.362	-1.495
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000	.129	.004	.056	.717	.135

a. Grouping Variable: Level of education

Based on Table 3, the p values for items one, two, and four were found to be statistically significant across level of education ($p < .05$).

Item one asked if the respondents prepared written course syllabi for the courses they taught. The mean rank of PhD holders was significantly higher than that of MA holders (mean rank of PhDs = 62.88; mean rank of MAs = 45.90). It was shown that instructors with PhD prepared written course syllabi more frequently. This is possibly indicative of the further attention paid to syllabus design at PhD level. In fact, MA students need to be trained further to prepare course syllabi through which the fulfillment of course objectives could be enhanced.

As for item two, the participants' familiarity with CT, the mean rank of the PhD holders was higher than that of the MA holders (mean rank of PhDs = 65.15; mean rank of MAs = 44.63). This difference was found to be statistically significant which is indicative of the higher familiarity of PhD holders with CT.

Item four revealed that PhD holders were significantly more familiar with the official syllabi (mean rank of PhDs = 62.42; mean rank of MAs = 46.16). In line with item one, familiarity with official syllabi seemed to increase the preparation of course syllabi. As instructors with a PhD expressed to be more familiar with the official syllabi, this appears to be one potential reason why they prepared course syllabi more frequently.

As Allington (2009) regarded CT as an indispensable component of education, a case in point is that policy-makers in general and syllabus designers in particular need to incorporate the concept of CT in the MA courses to familiarize students further with this concept and the way it can be implemented in the EFL classes. Lack of due familiarity with CT on the part of MA holders requires a consideration of curriculum renewal to keep them abreast of CT related issues. In fact, this might bring about positive changes in the educational system to train critical thinkers. This finding supported those of Hackworth (2009), Ironside (2004), Choy and Cheah (2009), and Stedman and Adams (2012) which found doctoral degree educators had experienced the higher level education courses that consequently improved both their skill level and their confidence in their use of CT strategies.

Typically, one might presume the doctoral degree influences the instructors to be better prepared in methods and strategies of CT as well as their familiarity with the concept of CT and the level of importance they place on it. The results partially supported those of Stadt and Ruhland's (1995) which found that there was a significant difference between the baccalaureate and the associate degree students.

Differences among instructors in terms of their field of study. Table 4 presents the results of the participants' responses across their field of study:

TABLE 4
MEAN RANKS ACROSS FIELD OF STUDY

Items	Field	N	Mean Rank
Item 1	TEFL	65	55.94
	Literature	18	43.83
	Linguistics	20	46.55
	Total	103	
Item 2	TEFL	65	57.51
	Literature	18	31.39
	Linguistics	20	52.65
	Total	103	
Item 3	TEFL	65	56.55
	Literature	18	34.56
	Linguistics	20	52.93
	Total	103	
Item 4	TEFL	65	54.69
	Literature	18	49.83
	Linguistics	20	45.20
	Total	103	
Item 5	TEFL	65	53.64
	Literature	18	45.47
	Linguistics	20	52.55
	Total	103	
Item 6	TEFL	65	54.98
	Literature	18	45.97
	Linguistics	20	47.75
	Total	103	
Item 7	TEFL	65	57.38
	Literature	18	42.81
	Linguistics	20	42.80
	Total	103	

Note. Item 1= Preparing syllabi; Item 2 = Familiarity with CT; Item 3 = Importance of CT; Item 4 = Familiarity with official syllabi; Item 5 = Use of official syllabi; Item 6 = Syllabi's match with the official syllabi; Item 7 = Considering CT in syllabi

As Table 4 shows, whereas the mean rank of TEFL instructors was higher than that of Literature and Linguistics instructors across all items, the Literature instructors had the lowest mean rank on all items except item four (familiarity with official syllabi) and item seven (considering CT in syllabi). Overall, TEFL instructors were followed by Linguistics instructors and Literature instructors, respectively. In fact, in TEFL program, there is a further concern for syllabus design and instruction of CT. In such programs, students learn to prepare syllabi in their methodology courses. In addition, they get familiarized with the new trends in EFL instruction such as CT-tailored instruction. It seems viable to fill the gap in Literature in particular and train the instructors the ways syllabi can be designed.

To check the statistical significance of the differences, a Kruskal Wallis test was run on all considering field of study as the moderator (grouping) variable. The result is presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
TEST STATISTICS A,B (DIFFERENCES ACROSS FIELD OF STUDY)

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7
Chi-Square	3.335	13.317	9.200	1.996	1.192	1.982	6.037
Df	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.189	.001	.010	.369	.551	.371	.049

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: Field of Study

As Table 5 shows, in item two (familiarity with CT), item three (importance of CT), and item seven (considering CT in syllabi), the *p* values were lower than the alpha level ($p < .05$). As such, the differences among the three fields of study under investigation were statistically significant. However, for item seven, based on pairwise comparison, the adjusted alpha level showed no significant difference among the three groups. To locate the difference, pairwise comparisons were made.

TABLE 6
PAIRWISE COMPARISONS (ITEM TWO: FAMILIARITY WITH CT)

Sample 1 – Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Literature – Linguistics	-21.261	8.735	-2.434	.015	*.045*
Linguistics – TEFL	4.858	6.875	.707	.480	1.000
Literature – TEFL	26.119	7.161	3.647	.000	*.001*

As Table 6 shows, in terms of familiarity with CT, the difference between Literature ($M = 31.39$) and Linguistics ($M = 31.39$) on one hand and Literature ($M = 31.39$) and TEFL ($M = 57.51$) on the other hand were statistically significant

($p < .05$) whereas the difference between TEFL ($M = 57.51$) and Linguistics ($M = 52.65$) was not statistically significant. This shows that Literature graduates did not have adequate familiarity with CT and although TEFL instructors obtained a higher mean compared to their Linguistics counterparts, this difference did not appear to be statistically significant.

TABLE 7
PAIRWISE COMPARISONS (ITEM THREE: IMPORTANCE OF CT)

Sample 1 – Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Literature - Linguistics	-18.369	8.857	-2.074	.038	.114
Literature – TEFL	21.991	7.261	3.028	.002	*.007*
Linguistics - TEFL	3.621	6.971	.519	.603	1.000

In terms of considering CT as an important concept, only the difference between Literature ($M = 34.56$) and TEFL instructors ($M = 56.55$) was statistically significant ($p < .05$). As the mean ranks showed (see Table 4), TEFL instructors considered CT to be an important issue in language teaching. The results can be interpreted with a reference to the previous item (familiarity with CT). As Literature instructors have less familiarity with CT, they do not seem to pay due attention to its essential role in EFL instruction.

Differences among instructors in terms of their teaching experience. To determine the role of the participants' teaching experience in the familiarity with and the use of CT, teaching experience as an interval variable was converted into ordinal data. As such, Kendall's tau was run since there was "a small data set with a large number of tied ranks" (Field, 2013, p. 278). Table 8 represents the results of the correlation analysis.

TABLE 8
THE ROLE OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

			Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7
Kendall's tau_b	Teaching Experience	Correlation Coefficient	.211**	.324**	.137	.214**	.131	.125	.162*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.000	.085	.006	.087	.105	.032
		N	103	103	103	103	103	103	103

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
Note. Item 1= Preparing syllabi; Item 2 = Familiarity with CT; Item 3 = Importance of CT; Item 4 = Familiarity with official syllabi; Item 5 = Use of official syllabi; Item 6 = Syllabi's match with the official syllabi; Item 7 = Considering CT in syllabi

As indicated in Table 8, the positive relationship between the participants' teaching experience and preparation of course syllabi (item one) was found to be statistically significant, $r = .21$, $p < .05$. The two variables, namely, teaching experience and preparation of written course syllabi, were found to be positively correlated. In addition, the relationship between teaching experience and participants' familiarity with CT (item two) was also reported to be statistically significant, $r = .32$, $p < .05$. In other words, higher teaching experience indicated more familiarity with CT. In addition, the positive relationship between teaching experience and familiarity with official syllabi (item four) was also statistically significant, $r = .214$, $p < .05$. This finding also suggests that higher teaching experience of the EFL instructors correlate with their higher level of familiarity with the official syllabi. Finally, the relationship between teaching experience and the consideration of CT in course syllabi (item seven) was also statistically significant, $r = .16$, $> .05$.

The results of the correlation analysis highlighted the significance of teaching experience as an important factor. Contrary to the expectations that more professional teachers might not have a written course syllabus, in this study, more experienced instructors expressed that they prepared their syllabi more frequently and they were also more familiar with officially announced syllabi. This might be partially due to the fact that they acknowledged the usefulness of having a written course syllabus that could act as a road map and shape and direct their process of instruction. In addition, more experienced instructors indicated their higher familiarity with CT which is indicative of their concern for more appropriate and up-to-date techniques and procedures to enhance the quality of their instruction. These findings supported those of Zygmont and Moore Schaefer (2006) which suggested that more experienced instructors are more likely to be able to infuse CT in their classrooms, motivate their students to think critically, and assess their CT skills. This contradicts the study of Hackworth (2009) who found no relationship between instructors' age and experience and their skills in teaching critical reasoning. Hackworth explained that the instructor's experience in teaching "presented a greater likelihood of developing individuals who are able to see alternative viewpoints but apply a more inflexible approach to situations" (p. 40). This might be due to different reasons such as heavy workloads, or instructors' perception that they should know all the answers and act like an authority in the class.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study was carried out to determine if there is significant differences among EFL instructors in terms of their familiarity with CT, the importance they place on it, their preparation of course syllabi and use of official syllabi across their level of education, their field of study and teaching experiences. The findings indicated even though instructors valued CT as a necessary tool to prepare students for the profession, their field of study, their level of education and teaching experiences influenced the degree of their familiarity with CT, official syllabi and the preparation of their own.

Results of the study verified that educators with a PhD were more confident in their CT awareness and abilities. The findings supported Alavian's study (2013) who found that teaching experience and level of education were effective factors in the application of CT activities in EFL classes.

The findings imply a prompt action in facilitating cooperation and collaboration among policymakers, curriculum developers, university instructors and all other stakeholders to bridge the gap between them skillfully as well as a felt need for in-service training programs. As Cimer and Timuçin (2010) argued, in order to develop CT skills, a serious revision needs to be made in curricula and such a paradigm shift requires reflection on lecturers' and students' role, assessment methods, learning consequences and above all, believing that learners build their knowledge themselves based on their own experiences and backgrounds. In fact, having a CT-inspired instruction is a desired objective that requires the interaction and collaboration on the part of all stakeholders.

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Manoochehr Jafarigohar is assistant professor of Payame Noor University (PNU). He has published on EFL issues in various academic journals. He has also been the advisor and reader of numerous theses and dissertations.

Fatemeh Hemmati is assistant professor of Payame Noor University (PNU). She has taught MA and PhD courses at PNU and supervised numerous theses and dissertations.

Afsar Rouhi is assistant professor of Payame Noor University (PNU). She has several years of teaching experience at MA and PhD programs and has supervised numerous theses and dissertations.

Hoda Divsar is currently a PhD candidate of TEFL at Payame Noor University (PNU) and a faculty member of PNU. Her research interests focus mainly on critical thinking and teaching literature.

The Relationship among EFL Learners' Self-esteem, Autonomy, and Reading Comprehension

Mansour Koosha
Department of English Language Teaching, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Azam Abdollahi
Department of English Language Teaching, Tehran Central Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Fatemeh Karimi
Department of English Language Teaching, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—The purpose of this study was to see whether any significant relationship exists among EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension; and whether there is any significant difference between EFL learners' self-esteem and autonomy in predicting their reading comprehension skill. For this purpose, 121 EFL participants who were studying English Language Literature and Translation at Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch, were randomly selected. The researcher tested different ranges of students with different levels of proficiency. The Coopersmith self-esteem inventory, autonomy questionnaire and reading comprehension section of Preliminary English Test (PET) were administered. Correlation and regression analysis demonstrated that there was a significant relationship among EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension. There was also a significant difference between EFL learners' self-esteem and autonomy in predicting their reading comprehension.

Index Terms—EFL learners, self-esteem, autonomy, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Overview

Due to the significance of the reading skill in learning and assessing knowledge of foreign language, many researchers have been interested in determining and identifying factors influencing the process of comprehension (e.g., Block, 1992; Brantmeier, 2002; Burns, Roe, & Ross, 1999; Erten & Topkaya, 2009; Heidari, 2010; Lehr, Osborn, & Hiebert, 2005). There are some non-linguistic factors in reading, such as reader variable and text which affect the comprehension of readers (Anders, 2002). He added that reader variables are strategies used by readers; their background knowledge, motivation, personality, and self-esteem. According to him, self-esteem is one of the most important reader's variable.

Considering the learner's self-esteem, it is necessary to recognize how learners think about themselves and about language learning (Gestwicki, 1999). Therefore, there can be a relation between language learning and self-esteem. Brown (2000) mentions that "no successful activity can occur without some degree of self-esteem" (p.145).

Research findings have provided evidence that autonomy is of general concern in second or foreign language learning (Dafei, 2007; Wenden, 1998; Zhang & Li, 2004). Demo and Parker (1987) state that self-esteem and autonomy are interacting variables. In fact the degree of self-esteem can be affected by language learning and vice versa.

Little and Dam (1998) believe that the autonomous learner should have the ability to shape and direct the learning process, and evaluate their learning to compare it with their learning goals and the things they have achieved.

Taking the role of all mentioned factors into consideration, each of these attributes could be just as a piece of the puzzle. The correlation between reading comprehension as a target and any of these variables on the one hand and the relationship between each pair of them on the other hand can provide us with a more holistic yet precise approach toward reading.

B. Statement of the Problem

Many researchers have already investigated the relation between autonomy and reading comprehension on one hand and between self-esteem and reading on the other. Each of these factors has been individually examined in the literature. However, few researchers have investigated the relationship between autonomy, self-esteem and reading comprehension. As a result, in this study it seems necessary for the researcher to investigate the relationship between the self-esteem, autonomy and reading comprehension of EFL learners.

To fulfill the purpose of the study, an attempt was made to find the answer to the following questions:

Q1: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension?

If a significant relationship is found, the following question will be considered:

Q2: Is there any significant difference between EFL learners' self-esteem and autonomy in predicting reading comprehension?

So the following null hypotheses are generated:

H01: There would be no significant relationship among EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension.

If this hypothesis is rejected, the following null hypothesis will be raised:

H02: There is no significant difference between EFL learners' self-esteem and autonomy in predicting reading comprehension.

Considering these hypotheses, two questionnaires and a PET reading comprehension were administered among 174 undergraduate students of Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch. From among those who received the questionnaires, a number of 148 questionnaires were returned to the researcher, of which 121 were filled out completely, and therefore, could be used for further analysis.

C. Significance of the Study

Discovering the relationship between self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension will encourage those who are involved with language training to use reading materials purposefully and efficiently. If a significant relationship is found between self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension this insight can assist in the development of effective instruction.

D. Limitations

1. The participants of this study were undergraduate students whose age usually ranges between 18 and 25; therefore, the result of the study will not be generalizable to other age groups.

2. The number of male and female subjects in this study was not equal, so gender may act as an intervening variable.

II. THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Introduction

In order to meet the essential requirements of this research, the review of literature will be allocated to the study of the following three general topics: "Self-esteem", "Autonomy", and "Reading comprehension".

B. Definition of Key Terms

Self-Esteem

Seminal works of James became the Theoretical base in the area of self-esteem. According to James (1890), the self is "part of me" that is one's body, abilities, reputation, strengths, weaknesses, and possessions (as cited in Harris, 2009).

Jacoby (1994) maintains, "Self-esteem is a feeling of worth that we have of ourselves. Self-esteem is a kind of belief about a self that a person brings with him or herself when facing the world (Blascovich&Tomaka, 1991).

Cooley (1902) believes that the most dominant aspects of self is social one. The social self creates through one's observations of how others react to the self.

According to Blascovich&Tomaka (1991), self-esteem can be used to evaluate self-concept which is more comprehensive exhibition of self and consists of cognitive and behavioral facets.

Some researchers have suggested that a high level of self-esteem facilitates the achievement of goals (Leary, Adams, Allen, & Hancock, 2007). Pepole with high self-esteem set higher goals for themselves and are more inclined to continue in dealing with failure (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003).

According to Harris (2009), there are different ways for measuring self-esteem. Researchers may measure people's self-esteem by saying, "Tell me about yourself." They may give an open-ended questionnaire with the phrase "Who am I" at the top, followed by a series of blank lines. They might give people a pile of cards, each with a statement or phrase and tell them to sort the statements into a series of piles ranging from "most descriptive' to "least descriptive" of themselves. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) is one of the most widely used measures of self-esteem (Harris, 2009). It was intended to measure the respondents' viewpoint toward self in personal, social, family, and academic contexts.

Coopersmith (1967, 1981) believed that self-reports expand the perception of individuals' self-esteem.

Among the most recent studies in Iran, the result of the study conducted by Zare and Riasati (2011) indicated that the anxiety and academic level of students were significantly and positively related to the learner self-esteem level of their sample. Koosha, Ketabi&Kassaian (2011) showed that gender has a significant impact on the speaking skill while age does not have a significant impact on this skill. A research conducted by Rashidi, Yamini and Riazi (2009) revealed that introversion did not have an impact on students' level of self-esteem; however, extroversion influenced participants' learner self-esteem. Bagheri and Faghih (2012) found that higher levels of self-esteem in MA students lead to higher levels of reading comprehension and vice versa.

In this study, self-esteem is operationally defined in terms of the participants' scores on the questionnaire designed by Coopersmith (1967) which includes a 58-item self-report inventory that the participants read a declarative statement and choose "like me" or "unlike me" regarding statements.

Autonomy

The seminal work of Holec's (1981), in foreign language learning context, provoked a growing interest regarding learner autonomy concept. He defines learner autonomy as the ability to take responsibility of his or her own learning. And it is the definition that most researchers agree with (Benson &Voller, 1997; Little, 1991, Dickinson, 1995).

Little (1995) believes "autonomy is a capacity - for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action.

The original theory and practice of autonomy emerged from research on adult self-directed learning (Zhe, 2009), a process in which individuals accept responsibility for all the decisions concerned with their learning.

According to Boud (1995), an autonomous learner is the one who is prepared to take some significant responsibility for his own learning.

Learners who take responsibility for their own learning have higher probability to achieve their learning goals, and to keep a positive attitude regarding learning in the future (Dickinson, 1987).

There is an increasing interest toward the notion of autonomy in the domain of EFL teaching and learning all over the world, especially by Iranian researchers. Among the most recent ones, the result of the study conducted by Nematipour (2012) indicated that visual and auditory learning styles were significantly and positively related to the learner autonomous level of her sample. SheikhiBehdani (2011) showed that Iranian EFL learners' autonomy was significantly related to critical thinking ability. Also, research conducted by Kashefian-32

Naeeni and Riazi (2011) revealed that age did not influenced students' autonomy; however, professional and marital status had impact on learner autonomy.

In this study, learner autonomy is operationally defined in terms of the obtained scores by participants on the questionnaire designed by Zhang and Li (2004, p. 23) which consists of 21 items. Participants have to answer each item on a five-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=seldom, 3=occasionally, 4=often, 5=always).

Reading Comprehension

According to Eskey (2002), reading comprehension is "a process of eliciting information from a printed text and relating it to your background knowledge for constructing meaning" (p. 6).

Reading comprehension is operationally defined in this study in terms of the participants' obtained score on a test excerpted from the Cambridge site. The test contains 5 parts and a total number of 35 questions.

In order to accomplish the purpose of the study, the following three instruments were utilized:

Over the past decade, a number of Iranian researchers tried to probe the learners' level of comprehension and ways to attain higher levels through different studies. Kafipour and HosseiniNaveh (2010) indicated that vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary learning strategies contributed to the learner reading comprehension level. Memari (2000) examined the effect of skimming on the reading speed and comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. The result indicated students should be conscious of the strategies needed for improving their comprehension. Also, Shakeri's study (2012) showed that learners' use of reading strategies and their level of reading comprehension have a significant relationship with each other. It also proved that higher levels of autonomy will result in higher levels of reading comprehension.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Introduction

In an attempt to investigate the relationship among EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension, a detailed description of participants, instrumentation, procedure, design, and statistical analysis of the study would be of use.

B. Participants

The number of the participants in this research were 121 male and female EFL learners, between the ages of 18 to 25. They were selected randomly and consisted of undergraduates majoring in English Translation and English Literature at Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch.

C. Instruments

Coopersmith Self-esteem Questionnaire

The questionnaire contains 58 items. For each item, participants answer whether the statement provided is "like me" or "not like me". If participants answer "like me" for item number 2, 4, 5, 11, 14, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 28, 29, 32, 36, 45, and 57 they are given one mark, and if they choose "not like me" they are given no mark. Item number 6, 13, 20, 24, 27, 34, 47, and 55 are known as lie items. If a participants select the choice of "like me" for 3 or more times, it means that they want to present themselves in a positive light. These participants should be excluded of the research. The rest of the items are marked in reverse order; which means if participants answer with "like me" they are given no mark and if they answer with "not like me" they are given one mark. The standard time allocated to this test is 30 minutes, but for this research, the participants answered it in 15 minutes. Scores between 25 and 50 are associated with high self-esteem while lower scores show low self-esteem. Coopersmith (1967) reported a desirable value reliability of 0.88 for the test (Kohansal, 1995). Acceptable reliability (internal consistency and test-retest) and validity (convergent and discriminate) information exists for the CSEI (Bolton, 2003).

Autonomy Questionnaire

In order to measure the degree of participants' autonomy in learning, the researcher utilized the questionnaire designed by Zhang and Li (2004, p. 23) which includes 21 items. Participants had to answer each item on a five-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=seldom, 3=occasionally, 4=often, 5=always).The questionnaire has proved to have high content validity and high reliability. The questions were divided by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Wenden (1998, p. 34-35), and Oxford (1990, p. 17). The standard time allocated to this test is 40 minutes, but participants answered it in 15 minutes. In order to turn the participants' selected choices into scores, the choices A, B, C, D and E are marked one, two, three, four and five, respectively. The total score turned out to be 105.

PET Reading Comprehension Test

A PET reading comprehension test derived from the Cambridge site and published in 2010 to measure the reading comprehension of participants. The reading component consists of 35 questions with five separate reading tasks in all. Each of the 35 questions carries one mark, which comprises 25% of the total marks for the whole examination. Texts are authentic and adapted to the level of the PET examination (Cambridge University Press, 2010).

D. Procedure

In order to achieve the purpose of the research, the following procedure was carried out:

Before administrating the questionnaires, the process of completing the questionnaires was fully explained to the participants. Due to the nature of correlational study, no criterion for establishing homogeneity was adopted. Additionally, the researcher selected the students randomly. Thence, the three questionnaires were administered to 174 participants. The researcher observed the process to make sure participants had fully understood the explanations and were able to answer the questions.

It should be added that administering each of the above-mentioned questionnaires took 40 minutes of each 90-minute class and three sessions were required, each for one questionnaire.

From the initial 174 administered questionnaires, 148 sets of questionnaires, including answered for all the three questionnaires and were considered for statistical analyses regarding the relationship among the variables.

To encourage participants to answer the questionnaires, the researcher promised to send the results to their email addresses. Participants were required to hand in the questionnaires right after finishing them because the researcher could not reach them later.

In the first session, the researcher handed out the self-esteem questionnaire, in the second session the autonomy questionnaire, and in the final session the PET exam was administered. The final step was conducting the statistical procedures by the researcher to see whether or not there was any relationship among EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension.

E. Design

The design of this study is descriptive since the focus of the researcher is to describe and interpret the current status of phenomena. Correlational research describes the degree to which two or more quantitative variables are related. In other words, the researcher aimed at identifying the quality and quantity of the relationship between the two or more variables rather than establishing a cause and effect relationship. Therefore, the design of the current study is an ex post facto one. The Spearman correlation was used in order to find the correlations.

IV. Results

For testing the null hypotheses, the descriptive statistics were used and the assumptions of linear correlation were checked, the results are presented in the following sections.

To check correlation, these assumptions (normality of distribution of variables, linear relation between each pair, and homoscedasticity of regression) should be checked.

To test the linearity of relations, the researcher had to visually examine the data by designing scatterplots. Since there were multiple variables, the researcher designed a multiple scatterplot for self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension which is presented in Figure 4.1.
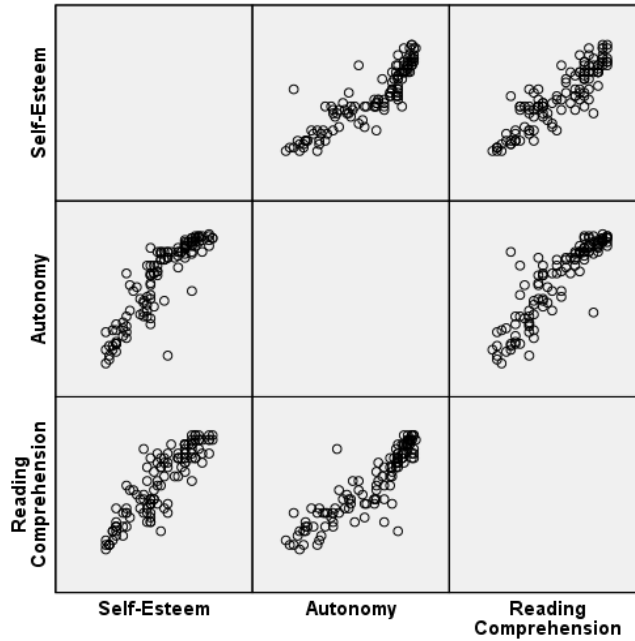
Figure 1. Multiple Scatterplot of Self-Esteem, Autonomy and Reading Comprehension

The inspection of Figure 1 shows that there was no kind of non-linear relationship, such as a U- shaped or curvilinear distribution, between the scores on self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension. It was therefore, relevant to test linear relationship in the data by running a correlation. Descriptive statistics of the data were obtained in order to check the normality of the distributions. They are mentioned thoroughly in the next three sections.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SCORE ON THE SELF-ESTEEM QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Self-Esteem	121	31	16	47	31.98	.784	8.622	74.333	-.180	.220	-1.014	.437

The fraction of skewness on Standard error of skewness for self-esteem (-.180/.220= -.81) was within the acceptable range of ±1.96.

Figure 2. Histogram of the Distribution of Scores from the Self-Esteem Questionnaire

As illustrated, scores appear to be reasonably normally distributed.

Descriptive Statistics of the Autonomy Scores

The descriptive statistics related to the obtained scores on the instrument appear below in table 4.2.

TABLE 2.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE OBTAINED SCORES ON THE INSTRUMENT

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Autonomy	121	66	22	88	65.24	1.773	380.167	74.333	-.690	.220	-.909	.437

The fraction of skewness on Standard error of skewness for autonomy (-.690/.220= -.81) was not within the acceptable range of ±1.96. This means that the distribution showed a significant deviation from normality; therefore, parametric correlation could not be run on the participants' scores obtained from the autonomy questionnaire. The researcher conducted a Spearman correlation.
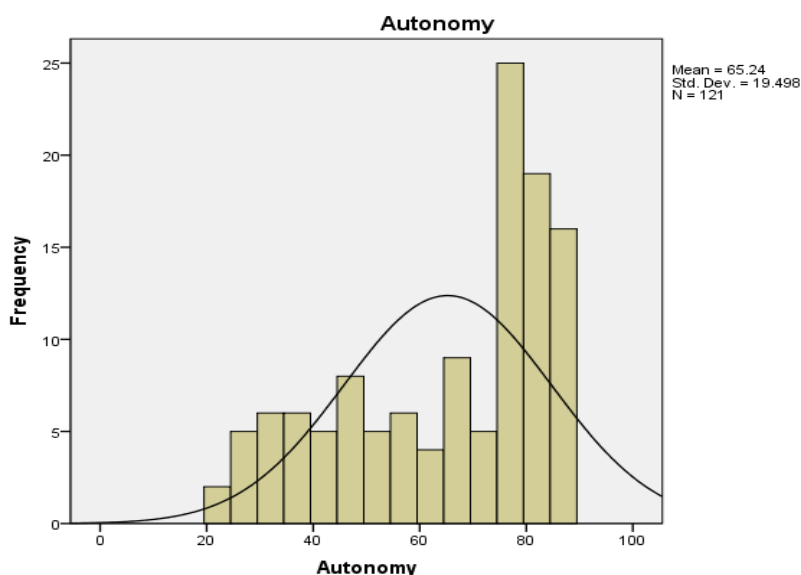
Figure 3. Histogram of the Distribution of Scores from the Autonomy Question

The actual shape of the distribution for autonomy can be seen in Figure 3 As illustrated, scores do not appear to be reasonably normally distributed.
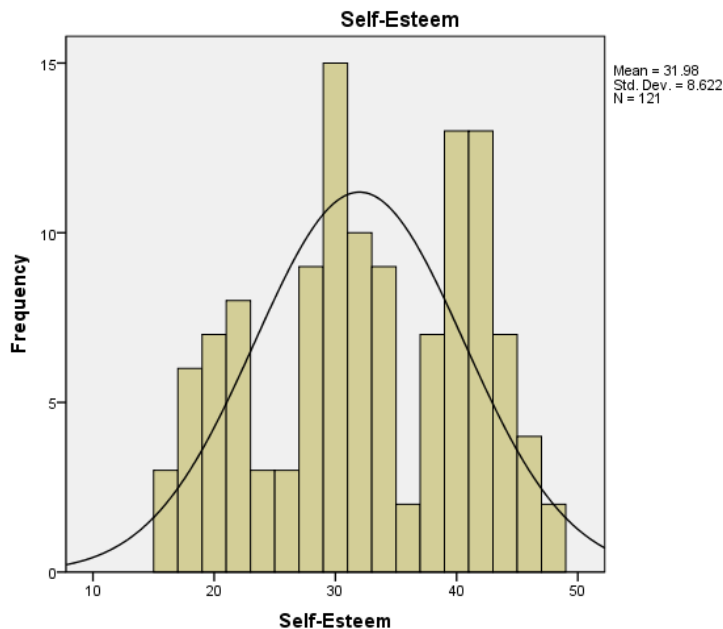
Descriptive Statistics of the Reading Comprehension Scores

The PET reading comprehension test was the last instrument which was used to collect the required data for the dependent variable of the study. The descriptive statistics related to the obtained scores of the test appear below in Table 4.6.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SCORES ON THE READING COMPREHENSION TEST

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Reading Comprehension	121	25	8	33	22.70	.627	7.388	54.577	-.298	.220	-1.228	.437

As appeared in table 3 the distribution of data for reading comprehension turned out to be normal as the fraction of skewness on standard error of skewness (-.298/.220= -1.35) was within the range of ±1.96. It suggests that the distribution did not show a significant deviation from normality; therefore, parametric correlation could be run on the participants' scores obtained from the Reading Comprehension Test.
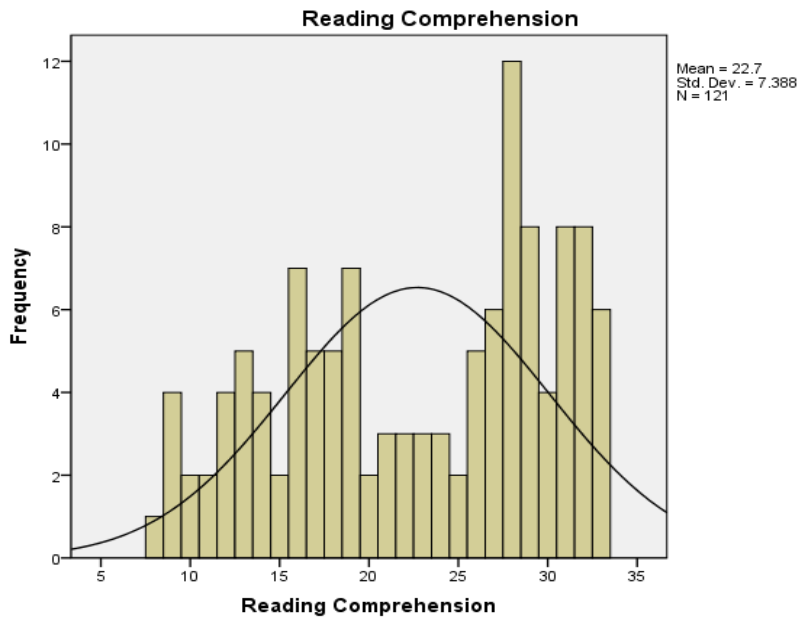
Figure 4. Histogram of the Distribution of Scores from the Reading Comprehension Test

The actual shape of the distribution for reading comprehension can be seen in figure 4 As illustrated, scores appear to be reasonably normally distributed.

Homoscedasticity for Regression

In order to examine the homoscedasticity, the researcher checked the residual plot.
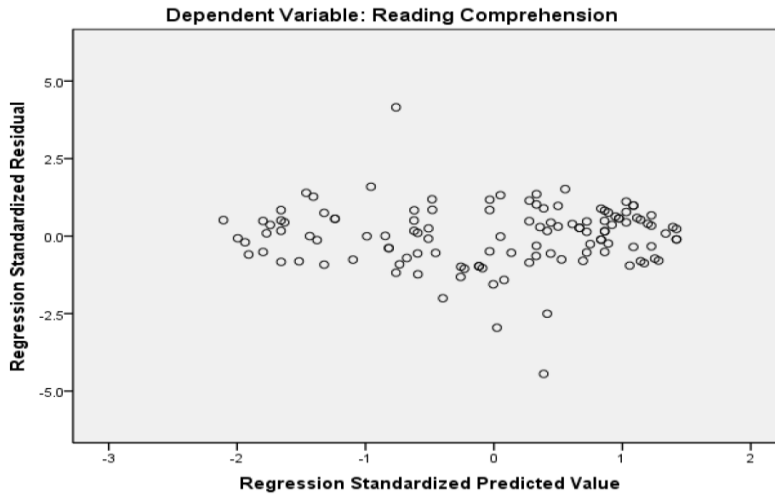
Figure 5. Plot of Studentized Residuals for Reading Comprehension

As demonstrated by Figure 5, the cloud of data is scattered randomly across the plot and hence the variance is homogeneous. considering the assumption of normality correlation was not detected for autonomy, the researcher ran Spearmans' correlation. This will verify the hypotheses of the research which will be presented in the succeeding sections.

A. Testing the First Null Hypotheses

In order to test the first null hypothesis of the study the researcher had to conduct a Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis based on the ex post facto design. Since the assumption of normality of the distributions was violated, the researcher had to apply a non-parametric statistical analysis to examine the research hypotheses. Spearman's Rank Order Correlation was employed as the non-parametric counterpart to Pearson's Product Correlation to calculate the relationship between the variables. Table 4.4 shows the results of Spearman's correlation.

TABLE 4.
CORRELATION OF THE OBTAINED SCORES ON THE QUESTIONNAIRES

	Self-Esteem	Autonomy	Reading comprehension
Spearman's Self-Esteem Correlation Coefficient rhoSig. (2-tailed) N	1.000 . 121	.919 .000 121	.880 .000 121
AutonomyCorrelation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.919 .000 121	1.000 . 121	.911 .000 121
Reading Comprehension Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.888 .000 121	.911 .000 121	1.000 . 121

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

As demonstrated in table 4, the correlation between self-esteem and autonomy came out to be significant at .05 level (r=.919, p=.000<.05). Also self-esteem showed a significant correlation with reading comprehension as well (r=.88, p=.000<.05). Autonomy and reading comprehension were also significantly correlated (r=.91, p=.000<.05).

TABLE 5.
CORRELATION REPORT

No of cases	R	Sig(2-tailed)	R2
121	.919	.000	.84
121	.88	.000	.77
121	.911	.000	.82

According to Table 5, the R2 (the effect size for correlation) became .84 for self-esteem and autonomy, .77 for self-esteem and reading comprehension, and .82 for autonomy and reading comprehension. As the results of the correlational study manifested, the researcher was able to reject the first null hypothesis which stated that:

H01: There is no significant relationship among EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy and reading comprehension.

B. Testing the Second Null Hypothesis

Since the correlation between the three variables of self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension were significant, the researcher ran the multiple regression analysis among variables and to test the hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between EFL learners' self-esteem and autonomy, as predictor variables of this study, in predicting their reading comprehension. The following tables show the result:

Table 6 shows the variables of the regression model. Self-esteem and autonomy were the predictor (independent) variables and reading comprehension was the predicted (dependent) variable.

TABLE 6.
VARIABLES OF THE REGRESSION MODEL

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Autonomy, Self-Esteem		Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Reading Comprehension
Table 4.3.2 Presents the regression model summary including the R and R square.

TABLE 7.
MODEL SUMMARY-R AND R SQUARE

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.915	.838	.835	2.998

a. Predictors: (Constant), Autonomy, Self-Esteem
b. Dependent Variable: Reading Comprehension
As demonstrated in Table 4.8., R turned out to be .91 and R square end up to be 0.838. This indicate that 83.8 percent of the variance in reading comprehension, can be explained by this model. Table 8 shows the results of ANOVA (F2, 118 = 305.31, p=.000<.05) which established to be significant.

TABLE 8.
REGRESSION OUTPUT: ANOVA TABLE

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5488.631	2	2744.315	305.310	.000
	Residual	1060.659	118	8.989		
	Total	6549.289	120			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Autonomy, Self-Esteem
b. Dependent Variable: Reading Comprehension

Table 8 demonstrates the standardized beta coefficients. The examination of the Sig. values demonstrated that both self-esteem and autonomy contributed significantly to the equation as both Sig. values are less than .05. The comparison of beta values demonstrated that autonomy has the largest beta coefficient (Beta=.501, t=6.19, p=.000). It indicates that autonomy has the strongest statistically significant contribution to reading comprehension. As a result, one could come to this end that autonomy more significantly predict the reading comprehension scores of candidates. Moreover, inspection of part correlation (semi partial correlation coefficient) revealed that autonomy uniquely explains 6 percent of the variance in reading comprehension (.230×230= 0.052).

TABLE 9.
REGRESSION OUTPUT: COEFFICIENT

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		standardized Coefficients	T	Sig	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1(Constant)	1.76	1.052		-1.676	.096	-3.846	.320					
Self-Esteem	.378	.069	0441	5.446	.000	.240	.515	.886	.448	.202	.210	4.767
Autonomy	.190	.031	.501	6.197	.000	.129	.251	.893	.496	.230	.210	4.767

a. Dependent Variable: Reading Comprehension

Although in the previous section, the normality of the distributions were examined for correlation, the residuals table (Table 10) proved the absence of outliers as Mahalanobis distance value exceeded 13.82 and the Cook's distance values did not surpassed 1(Tabachnick&Fidell, 2007).

TABLE 10.
RESIDUAL STATISTICS - PREDICTED VARIABLE: READING COMPREHENSION RESIDUALS STATISTICS

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.46	32.32	22.70	6.763	121
Std. Predicted Value	-2.107	1.422	.000	1.000	121
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.297	1.356	.452	.136	121
Adjusted Predicted Value	8.37	32.33	22.70	6.766	121
Residual	-13.322	12.453	.000	2.973	121
Std. Residual	-4.444	4.154	.000	.992	121
Stud. Residual	-4.507	4.188	.000	1.003	121
Deleted Residual	-13.706	12.662	.001	3.041	121
Stud. Deleted Residual	-4.932	4.520	-.002	1.036	121
Mahal. Distance	.183	23.560	1.983	2.464	121
Cook's Distance	.000	.195	.008	.021	121
Centered Leverage Value	.002	.196	.017	.021	121

Therefore, the researcher was able to refuse the second null hypothesis that stated: "There is no significant difference between EFL learners' self-esteem and autonomy in predicting their reading comprehension." On one hand, a significant correlation was found between the participants' self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension, and on the other hand, the regression analysis model demonstrated that autonomy was the strongest significant predictor of reading comprehension.

C. Discussion

The analysis of data reported in this chapter yielded that there was a significant relationship among the three variables. The results of the regression analyses also revealed that self-esteem and autonomy were predictors for reading comprehension. However, it was revealed that autonomy makes the strongest statistically significant unique contribution to explaining reading comprehension. Put simplistically, autonomy is a better predictor of reading comprehension.

The findings of this study are in line with Zarei and Ghahremani's findings (2010) about the relationship between autonomy and reading comprehension. Other studies on self-esteem's relationship with reading comprehension also imply the positive relationship of these two variables. In one study by Bagheri and Faghih (2012), they found that a higher self-esteem will result in higher reading comprehension and vice versa. The above-mentioned premises support the findings of the present study in that they show both self-esteem and autonomy significantly contribute to reading comprehension.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The current research aimed at investigating any possible relationship among EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy and reading comprehension. It also aimed at seeking any difference between EFL learners' self-esteem and autonomy in predicting their reading comprehension. Rejecting the first null hypothesis of the study, the researcher concluded that

there was a significant correlation among EFL learners' self-esteem, autonomy, and reading comprehension. The results of the regression analysis indicated that learners' self-esteem and autonomy could significantly predict their reading comprehension. However, autonomy could be a better predictor of reading comprehension as compared with self-esteem. Therefore, the conclusion was that there was a significant difference between learners' self-esteem and autonomy in predicting their reading comprehension.

The findings imply that the students' reading comprehension can be improved by fostering the students' autonomy in the classroom. It is also inferred that the more autonomous a learner becomes, the more likely he is to achieve reading comprehension.

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Mansoor Koosha is an associate professor of applied linguistics. He received his B.A. in English language and literature from Isfahan University, Iran, in 1961. He earned his M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) from American University of Beirut, Lebanon, in 1970. Later, he did his Ph.D. studies in English Education in University of Colorado, U.S.A., 1980. He is currently an associate professor at Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Iran. He has published several ESP textbooks for EFL students in Iran, and has also been the author of several articles in Iran and abroad. His research interests include materials development, L2 acquisition, EFL reading, translation studies, and ESP.

Azam Abdollahi, born in Tehran, Iran. She received her B.A. in Translation of English Language from Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch in 2010. Also she Earned her M. A degree in TEFL from the same University in 2014. Her research interests are Language Testing and Language Translation.

Fatemeh Karimi, born in Rasht, Iran, she is an English instructor at Islamic Azad University Khorasgan Branch. She received her M.A degree in TEFL from Tarbiat Moallem University of Tabriz in 2006. Her research interests are language testing and research.

The Approaches from National Literature to World Literature

Wensheng Deng
Dept. of Foreign Languages of Beijing Institute of Petro-chemical Technology, China

Fuyang Xia
Mingshan Junior High of Nan County, Hunan Province, China

Li Chen
Dept. of Foreign Languages of Beijing Institute of Petro-chemical Technology, China

Abstract—**The paper explores the approaches from national literature to world one. The first approach to the world literature is literary translation and translated literature, the former refers to the faithful translation of original national works, and the latter means a creative treason of translation, or a kind of rewriting, based on the original text; the second is to gain the Nobel Award for Literature; The third is travel, exile or Diaspora of literature; and the last one is literary communication. In the end, the author stresses that the world literature is a literary garden of diversional and different dimension.**

Index Terms—**national literature, world literature, translation, travel, Diaspora**

I. INTRODUCTION

It is a trend and tide of times and history for national literature to go towards world literature; furthermore, it is also a natural appeal and desire of the peoples over the world to understand others psychologically. As to the idea, it is unnecessary to argue for it has been agreed with each other among the scholars concerned since Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, a great German writer. But, as to the approaches how the national literature turns into the world one, the scholars related still hold diversional and different opinions, which are not reached a final answer and are open to discuss even today.

II. THE APPROACHES FROM NATIONAL LITERATURE TO WORLD LITERATURE

Of course, if we calm down and think about the question carefully, it is likely for us to say translation is the bridge between the national literature and the world one. Yes, admittedly, translation is taken for granted to be the foremost means and method to it. We have to read works translated from original national text if we hope to appreciate the foreign works, for only quite few of us have grasped few foreign languages and can read the original text directly; however, for the majority of us, who are confined to the prison of native languages, we have to borrow the method of translation to fulfill our purpose. Here, the translation that we are talking about refers to the action, simply speaking, i.e. translating the work of a nation into the one of another nation, an activity of crossing-culture, crossing-nation and crossing-language. In fact, this kind of translation is literary translation, which is often regarded as a bridge between the national works and the world ones. It focuses on "faithfulness", "expressiveness" and "elegance", the standard of translated works; whether domestication or foreignization adopted in translation is the core to a translator. And so it pays to the language more than anything else, and is the fruit of Linguistic turns since the middle last century around. The benefits of the translation is to open a window for the national literary stage to see and introduce world culture, a channel to absorb and learn foreign works, including subject, theme, style, and genre and the like. Many writers have been influenced greatly by translated works, such as Geoffrey Chaucer, William Shakespeare, John Milton, Lu Xun and Mao Dun. The name list can continue without end because there are too numerous examples in world history to exhaust them. To the national writers, on one hand, they have absorbed the nutrition from the foreign works; on the other hand, their works are rendered into other languages as well, and introduced to other nations throughout world. Thus, the national literatures have merged into the world ones by the literary translation. In the history of translation *Holy Bible* has been turned into more than 2,000 national languages, which is translated the most among any texts over the Earth. I think nobody can deny the *Holy Bible* is part and parcel of the world text. It is hard to measure the influence of the *Bible's* translation. Hence, we can say it is the translation that brings the *Holy Bible* into the world literature. The *Bible's* translation is a perfect model from national literature to world work.

The second approach is rewriting, which is neither a translation nor writing, or both to some extent. It is a rewriting or creating based on the original text by translators. As to the rewriting here, it is called "treason of writing or translation (Xie, 2007, p.69)", different from the aforementioned "translation", which is often referred as literary

translation by scholars related. We Chinese scholars may easily take Lin Shu, Hu Shi and Yan Fu, who are translators of the times, as good examples to illustrate the rewriting; and Lin Shu goes to further than both. Hu Shi's early writing and translating, Yan Fu's translations are what we refer as rewriting. Lin Shu has deleted freely the plots of the original text, which he doesn't think proper in the translation, and he has bravely added the imagination of his own to the translation. As a consequent, his rewritings are surprisingly popular at the time; both Qian Zhongshu and GuoMoruo once said they have enjoyed reading Lin Shu's works instead of the original, which are said to be slow and redundant. According to A Ying, a scholar of literary history, the rewriting of foreign works at the times of the late Qing Dynasty is magnificently great number indeed. There were nearly 400 kinds of translated novels in1911 (A Ying, 2010, p.1). "The magnificence is a motivation or stir to China's writers at the transition of times between the old times and the new ones. Borrowing and imitating the rewritten works, and making comparison and contrast between the traditional national literature and the modern world one, breaking up the enclosed mentality, the writers have participated the dialogues of the world literature. And the participation necessarily has led to the transformation of the writers' inner literary structure; the advocators of literary revolution and the first generation of writers of new China almost have benefited from the works translated in the Late Qing Dynasty (Qian, Wen & Wu, 2004, p.4)."

Thus, it is the rewriting of the foreign works that has brought about the pregnancy, birth and growth of modern literature in China; or in other words, China's modern literature is greatly influenced by the translated works, which actually are typical fruits of "hybridization", of cultural communication with hetero-genes, i.e. the cultures of China and Occident. Broadly speaking, it is the impinges of the hetero-genetic cultures between China and Occident that have helped take shape the special characteristics of Comparative Literature in the third stage; so we hold that the third phase of crossing hetero-genetic cultures is a totally brand-new era in the development of Comparative Literature. By rewriting and introducing the foreign works, China's writers or translators have found the foreign literatures at home, and the foreign factors have become the genes in China's modern literatures. In the meanwhile, the Chinese literary elements began to have impinged upon the foreign works; this is a type of mutual communication of cultures between China and Occident, not cultural subversion done by one nation against another. The new type of communication is the spectacular expected by the community of the world literature.

Chinese culture have been spread in the Occident and done impinge upon the Occidental literatures. As early as in the mid-18th century there is a widespread China's Fever in Europe. Chinese culture is most welcomed in England, France and Germany. For instance, the play "*The Orphan of Zhao Family*", written in the Yuan Dynasty, had been adapted as *The Chinese Orpha*n by Voltaire, and it is especially popular. Till the mid-19th century Goethe even reminds of his country fellows to jump to the outside circle of national literature, to look around other surrounding neighbors and pay more attention to foreign literature, but not to be confined by a particular one as a model (Goethe, 2010, p.5~8).Goethe is concerned with the Oriental culture, especially the Chinese one. He has written *East-west Divan* (1819), which is an embodiment of his Oriental complex. And in the early 20th century, American poet, Ezra Pound shows his strong tendency to the Oriental cultures, in particular, to the ancient Chinese poetry. He follows the Chinese poetry; and has started a revolution in Anglo-American poetry, which is redundant, wordy and sentimental. He strongly advocates some rules, i.e. direct treatment of poetic object, simple sentence, musical, natural rhyme. The new revolution is called Imagism in literary history, which has brought about a fresh wind to the Occidental literature. To the stage, the Western literature is indebted to the Oriental. Both the Oriental literature and the Occidental contribute to the community of the world literature.

The third way to bridge between the national and the world literature is the Nobel Award for Literature, which is taken as the most sanctified ritual by writers internationally, or as a special testing field for literature to gain and to define the name to be universally recognized, in the first place. The hope, response, influence and belief, annually aroused by the nomination and announcement of the Committee of the Nobel Awards, have repeatedly proved literature is worldwide after the Award. Though some people have remarked that the standard for the Nobel Award is unfair, that it holds certain bias in judging the works, more favorable to the European or Western works, relatively unfavorable to African works or Asian ones, that the Committee is disturbed and affected by ideology, and so on, the author believes that the Award is most recognized among the literary awards over the world nations. A survey of the Award is a good demonstration to its fairness and square; almost two-thirds of the questionnaires admit that the Award is successful; and only one-third think it is not, but they think it a reasonable mark (Espmark, 1992, p. 223). To some extent, it shows the Award is fair so far. In the second place, the international view of point adopted by the Committee of the Award provides the national literature with a best most immediate opportunity to the world one.

The will left by Alfred Nobel records, "What I want to mean clearly is that the Awards should go to the fittest candidate without taking his nationality into consideration, i.e. whoever is Scandinavian or not (Espmark, 1992, p. 248)." That explains why the Awards are presented to the peoples beyond the Scandinavian Peninsula as well. As a matter of fact, the works, offered the Nobel Prize, are recognized as classics in the world literatures by so far from the history of the Awards, which is not only an honor to the national literature of a winner, but also a most authorial organization to certify the national texts to be welcomed by the community of the world literature. Unfortunately, there is only once for a writer to gain the Prize per year; and there are too many national classics to be offered it, which is a great channel to make them known to the world. So, it is not wise enough for us to measure a work by the criterion lain down by the Committee of the Prize. Apart from it, the core for the national texts to gain the world recognition is the

aesthetic quality permeated throughout the text, that is to say, whether the aesthetic concern is universal or not. And the national classics generally express shared idea, common feelings of times, nation, ethnics or class, by breaking through the prisons of its own; the readers of the works can't resist understanding, appreciating, getting insights and instructions from them whatever the times, the nation, the ethnics or the class they belong to. The genuine classic goes beyond the limits, and is full charm to anyone who loves it. Of course, we don't deny that the national works have not any special local colors. Just on the contrary, we stress that the national texts should be characterized of the national, regional or local colors. As Lu Xun has remarked, "…and now literature also has such a tendency, those work, whichever is filled with local colors, becomes easier to be worldwide, i.e. to be noticed more easily by other nations (Lu, 2005, p.81)." There are numerous examples like that over the world literary circles. Like William Faulkner's Yoknapatapha County, Gabriel Garcia Marquez's Macondo Town, Mo Yan's Gaomi County, they are full of regional colors of their own nation, which help them to be universally welcomed. Hence, the national color should be preserved well in the course of the world literature, and it is not nationalism to ignore the ultimate concern to human beings; humanist care and concern are the focus in any literary text. If we see the works from another perspective, not the Prize, there are still great masters, though they have not been offered the Prize, they hold unshakable standings in the treasure of the world literature, such as Balzac, L. Tolstoy, Goethe, Lu Xun, etc. They have combined national colors with humanism in their writings. A great writer like them not only belongs to his own country, but also to the world, that is, his works have both national and international significance, who will finally be a member of the Republic of the World Literature. To the point, the author believes that the national is international; the more individuality they have; the more global wholeness they have in the end; the literary globalization agrees with the national literature. The literary development proves the saying," the more national it is, the more international it becomes."

The fourth channel is Diaspora or exile. In the last several decades the literature about Diaspora or exile has been in the community of the world literature. The most prestigious ones of the writers in literature about Diaspora or exile are Saul Bellow, I. B. Singer, Milan Kundera and Gao Xinjian, etc., just a few of Nobel Prize winners here, and the name list may go on endlessly so as to give us a surprise, if we are going to exhaust them. Certainly, there are more of them, who are no winners of the Prize, such as Vladimir Nabokov, Ha Jin; they have not only gained the recognition in the country they immigrated to, but also in the world. For the writers in the Diaspora or exile, who are forced to leave their home country for various reasons, they are very familiar with the culture of the home country; they have adopted the language of the country they immigrated while writing works; and their works are called Diaspora or exile literature by fellow writers. The Diaspora or exile literature successfully opened a new channel to the world literature for the national literature, whose process of the recognition is painful but splendid.

Of course, we have to mention the following writers, worldwide known for their revolution or originality in writing, or their broad-mindedness and unique living style, for instance, James Joyce, Samuel Beckett. James Joyce, nominated as a candidate of the Nobel Prize, is a pioneer of modern fiction; his *Ulysses* and *Finnegans Wake* are revolutionary in form and structure of the fiction writing; the latter is still unknown to the world even today, which just echoes to the comment given by Joyce, "I want to make it (It refers to *Finnegans Wake here.*) unknown to the readers for three hundred years." As to Samuel Beckett, the winner of the Prize, apart from his writings which are easy to read but not to understand, he is noted for his exiles as well. His exiles have helped him build his reputation. If we say James Joyce is revolutionary, Rudyard Kipling is a kind of profiteer from British colonization over the world. Compared with other genius among the fellow writers, Kipling goes to the global by making more use of British power rather than the power of his writings. So, the author of the paper would boldly remark that the policy of colonization does Kipling something good in spreading his literary fame. In a word, the national power and the Diaspora or exile are important factors to promote the national literature toward the world one.

As the Internet times has befallen to the Earth, it is more convenient and more frequent for the nations to communicate, and the Internet provides us a newer, faster means and method to circulate literature. On one hand, all kinds of organizations and governments can mobilize the utmost efforts to publish and propaganda the national works towards other nations, for the purpose of spreading national culture, arousing foreign nations' interest to ours, attracting literary fellows over the Earth to know us, and gradually, both or multiple sides will learn from each other after more contacts. By utilizing the hi-tech, the best means up to now, the national literature goes towards the global world swifter than ever before. On the other hand, more and more writers just upload the works online for peoples to read, to appreciate, to comment. At present, literary lovers can read the world texts of diversified nations online, which are full of either excellent or shabby ones so the readers have to judge them more cautiously. And whatever, we have to admit the Internet times, a most immediate pusher, will promote the pace of the world literature.

III. CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is an old topic with long history of several thousand years that the national literature develop or evolve into the world one; but some scholar points out that the spread and practice of the world literature happened several thousand years ago (Damrosch, 2013, p. 4). And there are obvious phenomenon about the practice: we know that there are similar myths among the nations over the Earth, for example, different and diversified versions of Genesis, the flood, the Savior, and the like, which are interesting and fantastic to anthropologist. Now we can interpret the phenomenon. Because the nations have their modes of thinking alike, they have evolved their imagination or idea about the nature or the life; and

the most essential factor the author holds to the myths is, the nations in the time immemorial have emigrated constantly, for their emigrations different peoples have more chances to contact, communicate, exchange the stories of one's own with each other. Hence, the early ethnic myths actually share some common core. The emigration has promoted greatly the early ethnic myths, folksongs, stories, poems, etc. to spread, though they are a kind of oral works. The exchanges to cross nations, hetero-cultures probably have started before the characters were invented, and survived after they are employed to record the life. Based on the above analysis, it is a truth that the national literature and the world one have interacted in the course of the national contacts.

As to the evolution of the national literature into the world one, the research can be traced back to the thesis put forward by Herder, Goethe, Karl Marx and F. Engels over 100 years ago. The concept of the national literature is defined first by Herder, he thinks that the national literature should be national, characterized by its uniqueness, so, the researchers must seek out the origin of the national literature (here he refers to German literature) in the starting of German literature instead of the ancient classics; he also remarks that the national literature and art are tied internally up with the national customs and civilization, there is a clear line. Being broad-minded viewpoints of the world, Goethe has predicted boldly that a new type of European or even global, world literature will come into being (Goethe, 2010, p.5~8) … Marx and Engels have the passage, most frequently quoted, about the world literature as the following:

The bourgeoisie has through its exploitation of the world market given a cosmopolitan character to production and consumption in every country. …… They are dislodged by new industries, whose introduction becomes a life and death question for all civilized nations, by industries that no longer work up indigenous raw material, but raw material drawn from the remotest zones; industries whose products are consumed, not only at home, but in every quarter of the globe. In place of the old wants, satisfied by the production of the country, we find new wants, requiring for their satisfaction the products of distant lands and climes. In place of the old local and national seclusion and self-sufficiency, we have intercourse in every direction, universal inter-dependence of nations. And as in material, so also in intellectual production. The intellectual creations of individual nations become common property. National one-sidedness and narrow-mindedness become more and more impossible, and from the numerous national and local literatures, there arises a world literature (Marx & Engels, 1969, p.98~137).

The analysis, given by the giants of the letters, philosophers, shows us a picture of the development of the national literature towards the world literature, for the expansion of world economy.

And if we take a careful and comprehensive look at the past and present of the literary history, we can be bound to find that literary travel, exile and intercourse by old and modern means available, facilitate the national literature to gain popularity over the world, George Gordon Byron, a Romantic poet, have finished scheduling, drafting his *Don Juan* and *Childe Harold* when he is exiled in Europe. And such kinds of cases are just easy to be found in the history of national literature.

The growth and expansion of the world economy and market, information and communications, more frequent interacts, contacts and communications of culture and economy, every individual nation will turn eyes to other nations far beyond the territory of one's own; in particular, the Internet draws every nation closer, and turns the world into a global village, the citizens over the Earth are the fellow villagers; nowadays, the national communications go wider and further to every quarter of the Earth, which break through the fence of nations or countries. Just under the globalization, the literary development will follow the suit of the economic expansion, which has jumped over the limits of regional exchanges, to stride towards the great goal of the world literature in the end. Nevertheless, the authors of the thesis also stress that the garden of the world literature is not a garden teemed with just a few dull flowers, but one with thousands kinds of varieties, which agrees with what Aamir R. Mufti, an American scholar of Comparative Literature, has remarked, "The concept and practice of the world literature don't mean canceling the national languages, literature and forms of cultural recognition (Mufti, 2013, p.178)..." What he said is a clear note to the literary history and reality; literary unanimity is no way in the least.

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Wensheng Deng, born in Anhua County of Hunan Province of China in 1967, received his M.A. in literature from Central South University, China, in 2002, and was further trained his academics as a higher visiting scholar at Harding University of U.S.A. from 2007 and 2008. And now, he is an associate professor of Anglo-American literature in Dept. of Foreign Languages of Beijing Institute of Petro-chemical Technology, China. His studies cover Comparative Literature, Translation Studies, popular culture, film comments and Politics.

Fuyang Xia, born in Yiyang City of Hunan Province in 1990, received her Bachelor's Degree in 2013, from Shaoyang College, China. Now she is a teacher of English in Nanxian County of Hunan Province. Her major studies are English teaching, literature and translation.

Li Chen, born in Shandong Province in 1977, received her M.A in Linguistics from Dalian Maritime University in 2002. She's been working in Dept. of Foreign Languages of Beijing Institute of Petro-chemical Technology, China, as a lecturer since then. Her studies cover foreign Linguistics, language and culture, and literature.

An Analysis of Teachers' Self-reflection on Classroom Management

Ameneh Sammaknejad

Department of English Language, Sari Branch, Islamic Azad University, Sari, Iran

Amir Marzban

Department of English Language, Qaemshahr Branch, Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr, Iran

Abstract—This research is an analysis of teachers' self-reflection on classroom management; a comparative case study of University EFL male and female teachers. The study was conducted with four novice and experienced English teachers in four different universities in Mazandaran province, Iran in winter of 2015. Data were collected through two questionnaires of all participants and the diaries of two teachers. The questionnaires administered to teachers showed teachers' awareness of self-reflection on classroom management. Both questionnaires consisted of frequency Likert scale items. The diaries provided insight into teachers' feelings, experiences, and practices concerning teachers' self-reflection on classroom management. Summative content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005) were used. The results revealed that Iranian University EFL teachers have high awareness of self-reflection. When the cases were compared, the female novice and experienced teachers were found to relatively differ in their self-reflection on classroom management, but not in self-reflection itself.

Index Terms—teachers' self-reflection, classroom management, experienced and novice teachers, EFL male and female teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Many decades have been passed so that researchers have been talking about the importance of self-reflection. The originator of thinking about reflection, John Dewey (1938) said, "We don't learn from experience. We learn from reflecting on experience." It's a good tip for experienced teachers to think about what they have done in the classroom and novice ones to think about what they are supposed to do. But the problem is that how and to what extent University teachers are aware of self-reflection on classroom management and how does this fact differ across experienced and novice cases?

According to Brookfield and Thiel (1999), in reflective practice, the individuals involved in an ongoing cycle of self-observation and self-evaluation in order to understand their own actions and the reactions they operate in themselves and in learners. This reflection could be on whole aspects of classroom context and teacher itself, like teacher self-reflection. That's the theoretical frameworks of this research which intends to study the importance of self- reflection on classroom management as one of the main factors in teacher development and analyzing the teacher-student interactions as one of the main challenging issues in classroom management. To this end, this study analyses the teachers' self-reflection on classroom management; a comparative case study of university EFL male and female teachers that allows the researcher to have a closer look on the details about their similarities and differences. The research will be conducted qualitatively and there is no hypothesis. The answers to these research questions are specified in the study:

1. How and to what extent Iranian University EFL teachers are aware of self-reflection?

2. How does Iranian teachers' self-reflection on classroom management differ across experienced male and female teachers?

3. How does Iranian teachers' self-reflection on classroom management differ across novice male and female teachers?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Reflecting Teaching and Classroom Management

Today the roles of teachers have changed as they are not a whole power of the class but the individuals who are expected to help students learn appropriately and productively in a democratic and peaceful context. As an instructor, they are responsible for their own authority which must always be checked by responsibility. In language teaching process, especially a foreign one, except for the classroom context, the syllabus materials, and the students' level of proficiency and so on, the teachers have the main role to manipulate the classroom as much appropriate as they can.

The teachers' experiences have meaning in terms of personal, historical constructions of beliefs and values. According to Dewey (1933), the affirmative meanings that are taken from observation and action of past experiences are teaching perceptions.

In Freire ideas (1970, p 77), the teacher renders himself to his students as their necessary opposite; by considering their ignorance absolute, he justifies his own existence. But in fact he cannot think for his students, nor can he impose his thought on them. Here is when she or he should practice reflection. Many experts agree with this fact that experience alone is insufficient for being a reflective teacher. The beginner teachers also can be a good one in their job if they practice self-reflecting.

Larrivee and Cooper (2005) have distinguished between reflective and non-reflective teachers; in their point of view, non-reflective teachers respond to classroom situations without referring them to other occurrences. Their direction is reactive, ascribing acquisition of problems to learners or others. They see student and classroom positions out of their control and observing themselves as losses of situations. As a result, they are prepared to not to be questioned, affirming teaching techniques without taking look at remedies. On the other hand, reflective teachers think that they should spend much more time for considering their classroom interactions and note both the conscious as well as the unconscious outcomes of their activities. They participate in the reflective re-evaluation of everything that occurs in their classroom by regarding the student's improvement.

Dewey was one of the early theorists who spoke on the value of reflection in education. He (1933) gave a definition reflective thinking in this way:

"active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it constitutes reflective thought and include conscious effort to establish belief upon a firm basis of evidence and rationality".

Self-reflection requires deep study of principles and opinions, manifested in the suppositions of teachers and their expectations of the students; teacher manner is stimulated by his/her opinions about students' talent and desire to learn, by presumption about the students manner and by expectations formulated on the basis of the teacher's own value system (Schön, 1987). According to Stanbury and Zimmerman (2002), to be professional is time consuming for teachers; there are some programs which can speed up the inexperienced teacher development, but most beginning ones will still require a more long period to seem as powerful experienced teachers.

Brown (2007) mentioned that teachers may act differently in the course of teaching and this lead to much more learning. Their capability to perform these efficiently will depend to a large amount on agreement with their leaners. The most important challenges for beginning teachers are classroom management, stimulus of students, treating with the individual differences among students, and evaluating student work. Meanwhile in this study, the challenges in front of beginning (and/or veteran) teachers would be the classroom management.

Classroom management is related to those procedures of teachers that make an affirmative classroom condition in which effectual teaching and learning can happen (Martin & Sugarman, p.9, 1993). In addition, Singh (2000) said "classroom management has been mentioned as one of the most common reasons for job failure newcomer teachers; these teachers are so worry about their safe position of using efficient classroom management programs. Teacher interns are involved in problematizing their everyday experiences". The communication between teacher and the students is a significant aspect in an EFL classroom context. More interactions and positive feedbacks may lead to more challenging situations for beginning teachers (or at least for non-reflective teachers).

B. Empirical Studies

Koohsiarian (2013) in her M.A Dissertation in TEFL conducted a case study about the role of self-monitoring in teacher's use of motivational strategies. Data was collected by means of teacher's journal writing a classroom observation scheme called MOLT (motivational orientation of language teachers), and a standard questionnaire. The results indicated that emerging in video self-observation seemed to contribute to more detailed and higher levels of self-reflection, resulting in a teacher's use of motivational strategies. The use of such strategies also entailed a higher rate of standards motivational behavior.

Jetnikoff (2011) conducted a qualitative, interpretative case study in which he took look at the reflective teaching and the individuals who had this method in their classrooms. He found that the novice teachers are ready to deal with the new techniques and syllabus needed for the classroom and school association. As a result, based on the data analysis, the novice teachers had highly amount of knowledge about their professional development and about what they want from their classroom. Occupational development was seen as an inseparable part of their developing professional personalities.

Yilmaz (2004) cites that the study done by Şentuna (2002) shows some considerable distinctions between inexperienced and experienced teachers' viewpoints which are related to their in-service training programs; in that way that the veteran teachers have already passed these courses and think that they don't need them anymore but the newcomers should attend in such courses to be familiar with the rules and topics.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Four English language teachers helped in conducting this research; two male (novice and experienced) and two female teachers (novice and experienced). They have been chosen from different universities in north of Iran. It should be noted that they have been working as an English teacher at different levels and/or in different institutes, but here the experience in teaching at university is the matter of discussion. The participants are Ph.D. candidate of TEFL and are thirty to forty-five years old.

B. Instruments

The researchers have used the 'cross-sectional comparative case study'. Two questionnaires including *'teachers' self-reflection questionnaire'* and *'classroom management questionnaire'* in the form of 5- point 'Likert scale' have been analyzed descriptively to provide more specific information. To evaluate *teachers' perceptions of classroom management,* Turanlı's (1999) classroom management questionnaire was used. And to assess *self-reflection questionnaire,* Wisconsin Teacher Standards for educators was used.

Another instrument was 'diaries' which were collected from the two female teachers. Here the focus is on participants' narration in a classroom context. Collecting diaries were done in order to know more about the true actions, beliefs, and viewpoints of the teachers toward their self-reflection on classroom management (possible) problems.

C. Procedure

This study analyses the teachers' self-reflection on classroom management; the reason for choosing university educators in this study is the importance of pedagogical sensitivity of this academic level. Certainly, both students and teachers are aware of the context and of what they are doing in the class; this ensured that the research was well processing and consequently would contribute to the validity and improvement of this study.

By giving the teachers' permission for attempting this study, the researchers sent out the copies of the two questionnaires ('self-reflection' and 'classroom management') to all the participants and received them by email from them. The researchers also received the diaries (the female teachers' diaries about self-reflection on classroom management) attaching to their forms by an email. The questionnaires were prepared only for teachers.

D. Data Analysis

The questionnaires have been analyzed in qualitative form and the two diaries have been analyzed qualitatively based on the 'Summative content analysis' (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Although this process can be used for 'structured interviews', the researchers applied it for 'questionnaire' to analyze the similarities and differences among the teachers and their awareness and attitudes toward 'self-reflection' and 'classroom management'. To do so, the researchers made some codes to make distinctions among the data. They analyzed the similar answers between all the teachers (T), [(T1) vs. (T4)], and [(T2) vs. (T3)].

TABLE 1:
THE PARTICIPANTS AND INFORMATION' CODES

Teacher 1 (T1): the experienced male teacher
Teacher 2 (T2): the novice male teacher
Teacher 3 (T3): the novice female teacher
Teacher 4 (T4): the experienced female teacher

The 'self-reflection questionnaire' consisted of 50 questions and the 'classroom management questionnaire' consisted of 35 questions; teachers answered all of them. The range of similar responses in both questionnaires was the most important point. The questionnaires were based on the Likert scale from never to always (1: never; 2: rarely; 3: sometimes; 4: often; 5: always). In both questionnaires, the 'always' answer is the most positive attitude and 'never' is most negative attitude.

Since the questions were too many to be analyzed one by one, the researchers chose them randomly by their importance. To analyze the participants' answers, for each questionnaire, the researcher divided some of main similar answers into two groups. As it's shown below the first questionnaire (teacher' self-reflection) for experienced teachers (T2 and T3) and the second questionnaire (classroom management) for the novice teachers (T1 and T4), have been analyzed descriptively. Consider the following tables:

TABLE 2:
THE T2 AND T3 SIMILAR RESPONSES TO THE SELF-REFLECTION QUESTIONNAIRE WITH THE HIGHEST POSITIVE ATTITUDE (5: ALWAYS)

Q 7	I respect the diverse talents of all learners.
Q 11	I design instruction that helps use students' strengths as the basis for their growth and learning.
Q 18	I respect my students' dynamic participation in the learning procedure.
Q 19	I motivate my students to become self-determining, and creative individual.
Q 29	I am a thoughtful and responsive listener.
Q 35	I create learning experiences that are based on principles of effective instruction.
Q 44	I practice self-reflection and self-assessment in my professional learning.
Q 47	I understand laws related to students' rights and teacher responsibilities.

TABLE 3:
THE T1 AND T4 SIMILAR RESPONSES TO THE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE WITH THE HIGHEST POSITIVE ATTITUDE (5: ALWAYS)

Q 1	I speak to the students respectfully.
Q 5	I come to the class prepared for the lesson.
Q 11	I try various teaching techniques in order to attract the students to the lesson.
Q 21	I try to encourage the students to take part in class activities.
Q 23	I keep monitoring the class while I'm giving any explanation related to the lesson.

TABLE 4:
ALL THE TEACHERS' SIMILAR RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRES WITH THE HIGHEST POSITIVE ATTITUDE (5: ALWAYS)

Teacher' self-reflection questionnaire:	
Q 18	I respect my students' dynamic participation in the learning procedure.
Q 19	I motivate my students to become self-determining, and creative individual.
Q 22	I use some strategies to encourage affirmative relationships, collaboration, and significant learning experiments in the classroom
Q 29	I am a thoughtful and responsive listener.
Q 47	I understand laws related to students' rights and teacher responsibilities.
Teacher' classroom management questionnaire:	
Q 5	I come to the class prepared for the lesson.
Q 23	I keep monitoring the class while I'm giving any explanation related to the lesson.

The last three tables have shown the close teachers' (both novice vs. experienced, and male vs. female) attitudes toward self-reflection and classroom management. Therefore about the self-reflection standards, it can be said that the teachers care about these matters:

1. The students' priorities
2. The students with different characteristics and learning styles
3. The students' rights and teacher responsibilities

And in case of classroom management, the teachers have shown that they care about the following matters:

1. Classroom discipline
2. Collaborative role of teacher
3. Classroom management plan

But still there are some emptiness in saying the teachers' real feelings and thoughts around the self-reflection and classroom management issues (like their classroom context, their students conditions, the way they are facing the challenging situations, etc.), which the teachers' diaries helped in eliminating these desolations.

For this purpose the researchers wanted one of the novice teachers (T3), and one of the experienced teachers (T3) to write their diaries about self-reflection on classroom management. The researchers then used the summative content analysis for extracting the key points in their diaries. Consider the following table with all the important information given from the novice and veteran teachers' diaries:

TABLE 5:
THE TEACHERS' DIARIES KEY ATTITUDES TOWARD SELF-REFLECTION ON CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The novice female teacher (T3)	The experienced female teacher (T4)
1. teaching the curriculum materials efficiently	1. believing in classroom discipline as the utmost important matter
2. establishing friendly environment in the classroom	2. saying her expectations of the students
3. changing the strategies in case of requirement	3.creating an atmosphere of friendly communication and collaboration
4. wanting the students to ask their questions	4. allowing the students to discover themselves without being embarrassed of lacking knowledge
5. dealing with a lot of tensions early in teaching	5. giving tasks to the students (in groups or pairs)
6. feeling more relax during the teaching periods little by little	

As it seems both novice and experienced teachers follow a logical rule about controlling their classroom. The attitudes mentioned in table 5, were exactly extracted from the teachers' diaries. And there were still other points that the researcher has highlighted them to gain more specific information:

• The novice female teacher (T3)

In her notes, the teacher gave the full information about her classroom context (specially the students' conditions). She said that the classroom runs in both native and second language and the students should be prepared for the class and read their translations; but they've got some problems (English language proficiency) that prevent them to ask their questions. Although she wanted to have a cooperative classroom but by considering the students' conditions, she should frequently want them to involve in class activities without fear. Actually, she did anything (giving the synonyms and/or the translations herself) to give the feedbacks from them. Then she described that she should accept to be judged by her students during the class time (she gave an example from an event in her class in which she was forced to excuse for her wrong translation to one of the young male students). The key point here is that she tried to set her disciplines and rules in the class to care about the students' rights and conditions in the classroom, using self-reflection techniques. In the experience path, for a novice University teacher, this could be an important lesson (accepting her/his mistakes and trying to remove the obstacles for the better job improvement).

• The experienced female teacher (T4)

In her point of view, the way she involves her students in the topic being discussed, reflects her beliefs and perceptions of what teaching should be like. By posing a question in the class, she can engage the students in a kind of

deep thinking process. As a reflective teacher, she thought that the positive teacher-students interactions and two-way feedbacks would be improved when a cooperative classroom has being designed. In nowhere in her diary, she didn't mention the possible and/or existing problems in classroom management. In the end, she claimed that by using self-reflection technique in ask-and-answer process, she can refresh her thoughts and knowledge for giving the right information to the learners; or she can make a trustable strong position of herself in the students' minds, too. In fact the students' improvement is important, but her prestige as an experienced University teacher (a perfect person in learners' minds) was a key factor that couldn't be ignored.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data collected from teachers throughout the teacher' self-reflection and classroom management questionnaires showed high degrees of teachers' awareness about these two facts. The diaries collected from the female teachers verified that they believe in their answers to the questionnaires and are a kind of reflective teacher (each one due to their experience and proficiency levels). They try to manage their classroom as much better as possible by adapting several teaching techniques. The experienced teacher (T4) indirectly mentioned in her diary that she almost doesn't have any problem with classroom management and is a reflective teacher. The novice one (T3), on the other hand, seems to do everything to have such students who believe in her and accept her teaching style. She doesn't want to be an authority and then respects all students' beliefs and values (e.g. by accepting and admitting her mistakes and encouraging the active students in front of his/her classmates). Although this cross-sectional comparative case study, simply doesn't show that we can generalize our ideas to all English EFL teachers (with nearly the same as this study participants' conditions), the researcher almost reached her research questions' answers by finding the positive results from qualitative analysis of questionnaires and the diaries.

The findings of the two questionnaires showed that the male (novice and experienced) teachers have nearly the same amount of awareness of self-reflection; while the novice female teacher is in a lower level than the experienced female teacher. Moreover, there was no significant difference between experienced teachers in their attitudes toward self-reflection on classroom management. Consider the sum of all similar answers between teachers:

TABLE 6:
THE RESULTS OF THE SIMILAR ANSWERS BETWEEN CASES IN TWO QUESTIONNAIRES

Total of similar answers in teacher' self-reflection questionnaire (50 Qs)				
All teachers:10	T1 and T4:29	T2 and T3:23	T1 and T2:34	T3 and T4:12
Total of similar answers in teacher' classroom management questionnaire (35 Qs)				
All teachers:2	T1 and T4:16	T2 and T3:10	T1 and T2:13	T3 and T4:11

In addition to the questionnaires' results, the analysis of diaries also prove the validity of the research findings in that due to the lack of experience, the novice female teacher faced some problems in classroom management (also she's still considered as a reflective teacher and has considerable awareness about self-reflection) and challenging situations according to what she described about her classes.

V. SUMMARY

The researchers in this comparative case study analyzed the "teacher' self-reflection on classroom management" and explored the answers for their research questions.

Firstly, the results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis done on the data (questionnaires and diaries) showed the four Iranian University EFL teachers' awareness of self-reflection in that the sum of their positive (and in some cases, similar) answers were considerably high (the questionnaire were in Likert scale ranging from never to always).

Secondly, the results revealed that although the novice female teacher had a positive attitude of self-reflection but her low experience in teaching (at University) became problematic for her in classroom management (referring to the part of her diary on a challenging situation in her class). On the other hand, the novice male teacher' answers to the classroom management questionnaire showed that he had more positive viewpoints in this issue.

Thirdly, the experienced female teacher had the highest range of awareness toward 'self-reflection' and 'classroom management'; her diary on reflection issues and classroom disciplines proved this claim. Both experienced male and female teachers were so close in their questionnaires' answers and consequently in their attitudes toward 'self-reflection and classroom management standards.

VI. SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It could be better that the teachers' (participants) classes in this study observed to see their way of using 'classroom management'. Observation is a useful way for researchers to know more about the teacher-students interaction. Such study could be done in a different context with its own cultural characteristics to see if the teachers' thoughts and beliefs about self-reflection on classroom management, how could be formed.

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Ameneh Sammaknejad was born in Tehran, Iran. She received her M.A degree in English Language Teaching from Islamic Azad University, Sari branch, Iran, in 2015. She teaches English in some Language Institutes in Iran.

Amir Marzban is an assistant professor of TESOL at Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr branch. His research interests include conversation analysis, L2 reading & writing, CALL, and teacher education. He has published in both Iranian and International journals and also has presented in many international conferences.

Gender Differences in the Effect of Dynamic Assessment on Grammatical Accuracy of Writings

Ghader Ramazanpour

Department of English Language Teaching and Literature, Ahar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahar, Iran

Nava Nourdad

University of Tabriz, Tabriz, Iran

Naser Nouri

Department of English Language Teaching and Literature, Ahar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahar, Iran

Abstract—One of Vygotsky's contributions to education was the emergence and development of dynamic assessment which stresses the need for unifying assessment and instruction. This research was an attempt to investigate whether there is difference between female and male EFL learners regarding the effect of dynamic assessment on grammatical accuracy of their writings or not. To this end sixty five male and female pre-intermediate Iranian EFL were randomly assigned into two groups namely control and experimental. After the pre-test of grammatical accuracy in essays, eight session mediations were implemented for experimental groups; however, for the control group no mediation of examiner was provided. The interventionist sandwich format of dynamic assessment was applied followed by the post-test. Both control and experimental groups were implemented the same the pretest and posttest in a non-dynamic way. The data obtained from both pretest and post-test were statistically analyzed through running independent-samples t-test. The results indicated that there is no difference between females and males regarding the effect of dynamic assessment on grammatical accuracy their writings. These findings can have pedagogical implications for language teachers, teacher educators, test developers, and syllabus designers.

Index Terms—dynamic assessment, grammatical accuracy, writing skill, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Language includes four skills and one of the most important skills that is needed to teach is writing (Brown, 2000). Writing is a process through which a writer tries to communicate ideas and thoughts. Not only for second or foreign language writers but also for native language writers, writing needs special instruction. In writing, grammatical accuracy is vital since it causes the writer to transfer intended ideas and to avoid communicative misunderstanding (Lush 2002, Larsen-Freeman 2003). Therefore grammatical accuracy is very important in learning or teaching of the English language. One of the major grammatical knowledge that is essential for structuring a sentence is the verb tense.

Since grammatical accuracy plays an important role in writing and academic success, it is important for learners to recognize and use accurate structures in writing. Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners have problem in recognizing and using simple present and simple past tenses. One of the most common difficulties of the pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners is that they don't recognize and use accurate grammar in writings. In other words, the learners don't use "s" or "es" at the end of the verbs in simple present tense in the third person singular form of the verb. The model verb forms "do" and "does" are not appropriately used. The learners don't also use regular (adding "d" or "ed" at end of past regular verbs) and irregular verbs in past tense accurately. Sometimes, some learners use "is" or "are" instead of "do" or "does" in question sentences. Therefore this study for the first time investigated the effect of DA, as an alternative in language assessment, on grammatical accuracy in writings of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners.

Dynamic assessment (DA) as a new technique in teaching and testing has some features that can be effective in grammatical accuracy among pre-intermediate male and female EFL learners. DA has been expanded as an alternative to 'non-dynamic' types of assessment, namely standardized tests. DA is based on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1978) of cognitive development, as stated by which human cognitive capabilities can only be entirely conceived via studying the procedures of their expansion. Vygotsky (1978) takes the view that prognostic assessment is better than diagnostic assessment. Unlike the traditional ways of assessment which were non-dynamic, DA needs the tester to mediate the testee's performance throughout the assessment via applications of feedbacks, issues, elicitations, implications, suggestions, and points. Thus in DA the concentrate on the assessment changes from testees' success or failure in a task to an analysis of the amount and sorts of assistance they needed to achieve the task.

DA has been studied from different point of views, but the effect of DA on grammatical accuracy in writing among male and female has not been investigated so far. Consequently, this study was an attempt to investigate whether there is a significant difference between females and males regarding the effect of dynamic assessment on grammatical accuracy of pre-intermediate EFL learners' writings or not.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Dynamic Assessment

The idiom of dynamic assessment was originated by Vygotsky's colleague Luria (1961). The aims of DA is to assess, measure, evaluate, modify, intervene, examine, and improve behaviors and to authenticate the process of learning. Activity on the portion of tester and learner, and modifiability of behavior, are essential in DA. Therefore, DA is on the whole social, interactive, and qualitative. (Haywood & Lidz, 2007).

DA practices are derived from several theories, such as Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development and his notion of Zone of Proximal Development, Vygotsky's Sociocultrural Theory and Mediated Learning Theory.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP) is the distance between the actual developmental level as specified by independent problem solving and the level of possible development as specified via problem solving under adult guidance or in cooperation with more capable compeers (Vygotsky, 1978).

Sociocultural theory (SCT) views language learners not as conductors of input or producers of output, but as speakers/listeners included in developmental processes that are recognized in interaction (Gibbons, 2003).

The form of mediation is pivotal to the sociocultural theory of Vygotsky, since it supplies through studying social processes entailed in situated language learning and application (Appel & Lantolf 1994).

DA has been developed in contrast to 'non-dynamic' assessment (NDA) tests. It has a complementary role rather than a substitutional one (Anton, 2003). DA represents a qualitatively different way of thinking about assessment (Haywood & Lidz, 2007) by stating that instruction and assessment should not be contemplated as separate but entirely merged. This integration is conceivable when intervention is devised within the assessment. Poehner and Lantolf (2005) mention that in DA the goal is to see the individual's ability to transfer what has been internalized through mediation beyond the immediate task to other tasks, it means in DA rather than checking what learner has learnt in the past, the goal is settled toward future (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005).

Regarding the difference between DA and NDA it could be stated DA and NDA relate not to assessment tools but to conduction procedures; any assessment can be administered in a dynamic or non-dynamic method (Poehner, 2008). Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002, p. 28) distinguish DA from NDA in three ways. First, NDA focuses on products as a result of learning and teaching. Second, NDA does not allow feedback from examiner to test-taker concerning quality of performance throughout the test method. Third, NDA is neutral and uninvolved toward the examinee as much as possible. Poehner and Lantolf (2005) contrasted DA from other assessments by mentioning that DA is based on cognitive theory and has a theoretically explicit position on cognitive development based on Vygotsky's notion of ZPD. DA is more regarded with working with an individual's ZPD to expand his/her capabilities systematically (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005, p. 260).

Moreover, there is another important distinction between NDA and DA. In NDA, the assessor conducts an assessment and the person's performance on that assessment is specified against the criteria. NDA evaluates the skills and knowledge that the individual acquired from previous experiences. It does not evaluate the individual's capability to attain skills and knowledge.

DA, in contrast to NDA, regards to an individual's capability to achieve skills or knowledge throughout the assessment. In DA, at first a skill is tested (pre-test), in the second phase some hints are provided to solve the probable faced problems (mediation) and then it is retested (post-test). Correspondingly during this process, the learner is given the chance of learning the skill or knowledge that is being tested.

There are several models based on which DA can be administered. Interactionist DA conforms Vygotsky's priority for collective conversation. According to this model, assistance arises from the interaction between the mediator and the learner, and is accordingly greatly impressionable to the learner's ZPD. Interventionist DA, on the other hand, remains closer to inevitable forms of static assessment and their relations over the psychometric features of their procedures.

DA modals can be constructed as stated by what Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) have explained as sandwich and cake formats. The sandwich format is much more congruent with traditional experimental research designs in which treatment is conducted following a pretest and a posttest. In this method of DA, a mediation stage is likely 'sandwiched' between pretest and posttest which are conducted in a non-dynamic model. The performance on the posttest can then be compared to the pretest so as to specify how much promotion an individual made as a result of mediation.

B. Grammatical Accuracy

Grammatical accuracy is obtained when each word in a sentence represents the meaning the author intents to convey and is arranged in a correct relation with other words. However, grammatical accuracy is very important and should be

a main focus when learning or teaching English. Knowledge of grammar is very important, as the ability to use it often determines the impression one has on other people.

Larsen-Freeman (2003) takes the view that even though form, meaning and use have a close relationship with each other, but each of them can create problems for language learners. Accuracy is the capability to apply the language authentically. The goal of teaching grammar in any language teaching/learning program is to improve learners' grammar for better communication. Considering the importance of grammatical accuracy teachers should focus on their learners' productions and guide them to create grammatically accurate sentences in which words are integrated to form meaningful and admissible sentences.

They should also find a sound way of assessing their learning of grammatical accuracy. Unfortunately, many grammar knowledge tests endeavor to separate grammar from language use, decontextualize sentences, and concentrates on a specific structural rule within a given sentence. If language testing applies as a complementary practice to language teaching, the researchers take the view that it is more influential to assess learners' knowledge of grammar by providing them with meaningful context. Grammar items in which learners are encouraged to use specific structural rule in order to make a certain meaning can appropriately assess testees' grammatical knowledge or applied knowledge of language forms. Grammar items in which learners are required to realize a grammatical error in a given statement, such as PBT TOEFL or other similar tests, can be replied by paying attention to grammatical clues; this can be practiced by studying sample tests which result in testees' getting test-wiseness, but the same individuals may not be able to use well forms of language in an appropriate way when producing language.

C. Empirical Background of the Study

Anton (2003) investigated the effect of DA on Spanish students. The researcher instructed DA method for placement of L2 Spanish undergraduate students. The researcher mentioned that DA is more appropriate for placement aims since it concentrates on students' developing capabilities instead of concentrating alone on developed ones that is performed by non-dynamic assessment and is only about what students have got. Anton concluded that using DA procedures makes the placement become more precise because overall abilities are presented.

Ableeva (2008) utilized DA for university students learning French. She made an effort at improving development of listening comprehension skills and recognized that individual differences in learners on an assessment manifested their unique ZPDs, which was not revealed in the non-dynamic pre-test. She concluded that DA can diagnose the possible sources of problems in test task completion.

Zhang (2010) constructed a study about the effect of DA in the writing class of English majors. The Assessment mode proposed that DA should provide graduated and contingent scaffolding instructional mediation according to the developmental needs of students in the process of writing, thus reflecting the dialectical integration of assessment and instruction, and making it possible to enhance both teaching and the development of students' writing ability. He mentions that most of the studies of DA in Chinese ESL classroom failed to utilize the important concept of dialogic cooperation between mediator and learner, which also distinguished it from other forms of assessment.

Sadeghi and Khanahmadi (2011) examined the viability of DA which was applied as an instructional adjunct in the development of Iranian EFL learners' grammar. Their research was administered on 60 intermediate EFL learners and each session throughout the treatment the two groups of experimental and control took a grammar test while the experimental group received mediation on test items. The results of their research confirmed that DA significantly improved the learning of L2 grammar.

In another study Shabani (2012) investigated the feasibility of computerized version of dynamic assessment (C-DA) in the context of L2 reading comprehension. The results indicated that electronically administered mediatory scaffolding can improve the students' reading comprehension procedures and that computers can substitute humans in enhancing readers' consciousness by conducting their consideration to the key parts of the text and helping them to find out the text efficiently.

Barzegar and Azarizad (2014) also applied DA to improve L2 learners' knowledge of grammar: evidence from the tenses. The aim of the study was to examine the effect of DA of speaking on rule internalization through giving explicit feedback as mediation along with a focus on five tenses: simple present, simple past, present continuous, past continuous and present perfect.

All the above mentioned studies in the literature imply a need for further studies to clarify various dimensions of DA. Considering the characteristics of DA and its fundamental differences with non-dynamic assessment, the present study intended to find out difference between females and males regarding the effect of DA on grammatical accuracy of pre-intermediate EFL learners' writings. Implementing this study can provide more guidance to language teachers who wish to use DA in their language classrooms, but, it has not received the attention that really deserves, and this gap was evident. Therefore, this study aimed at filling this gap. In line with these points the following research question was raised.

Is there a difference between females and males regarding the effect DA on grammatical accuracy of pre-intermediate EFL learners' writings?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants of the Study

To accomplish the objectives of this study sixty five male and female Iranian EFL pre-intermediate students (33 males and 32 females) were selected from male and female First Grade students of high school who attended extracurricula English class at their schools. They had the same level of proficiency and the same native language.

B. Data Gathering Instruments

In order to carry out this research two instruments, a placement test and compositions, were utilized to gather the required data. To make sure about the homogeneity of the participants and equality of the language proficiency in both experimental and control groups the standard Placement Test of Top Notch developed by Saslow and Ascher (2006) was administered to 120 male and female first grade students in extracurricula classes high school and 65 students were selected for this research. The Placement Test consisted of 120 multiple-choice questions. Testees' scores on this test determined their level of proficiency, i.e. according to the criteria of placement test of Top Notch, the learners who got scores among 11-31 at pre-intermediate level. The reliability coefficient calculated by cronbach alpha formula had been 0.78 which lies in an acceptable band to be applied in Iranian context. As the second instrument, two compositions were administered in the study as the pre-test and the post-test. The topics of the pre-test and post-test are the same that are included a composition with two paragraphs (10 sentences about simple present tense and 10 sentences about simple past tense). It means thals the composition was consisted of 20 sentences on the whole to measure the grammatical accuracy of the participants' writing.

C. Data Gathering Procedures

In the present study data collection procedure comprised the following phases: 1) the pre-test; 2) the DA mediation (treatment); and 3) the post-test. In the pretest phase, the students were asked to write a composition about daily activities and past personal events that required the use of simple present and past tenses. The purpose of administering this pretest in both groups was showing if there is any significant difference between the performances of two experimental and control groups at the beginning of this research; in other words, in this study there were four groups of male and female experimental and control and the schools were not co-educational, i.e. it included 16 males and 16 females experimental group students and 17 males and 16 females control group students. It included a composition with two paragraphs i.e. the first paragraph was about "Daily activities of my family" including 10 sentences with simple present tense and the second paragraph was about "Last Friday activities of my family" including 10 sentences with simple past tense. Each correct sentence had one score and the scoring was done out of 20. The high inter-rater reliability (i.e., .76) was established through double rating the written data by another research assistant in the pre-test.

After the pre-test, in the DA treatment phase, the experimental group received DA and the treatment lasted for eight sessions during four weeks. On the other hand, the control group students of control group continued their regular class procedure with no mediation. Each assessment was done in a separate session and to meet the conditions of DA four sessions of treatment of DA were carried out about simple present tense and four sessions of treatment of DA were carried out about simple past tense in mediation sessions. Interventionist sandwich model of DA was applied to in eight DA sessions in this research. In the DA sessions, the teacher of the classroom as a mediator started to mediate the learners from implicit to explicit.

After eight sessions of treatment, the post-test was administered to check whether there is a significant difference between females and males regarding the effect of DA on grammatical accuracy of pre-intermediate EFL learners' writings or not. For scoring the writings of the students in this phase, 'two raters' were used to avoid subjectivity in scoring. The high inter-rater reliability (i.e., .79) was established through double rating the written data by another research assistant in post-test.

IV. FINDINGS

In order to test the research question, the researcher compared the scores of females and males regarding grammatical accuracy of their writings in both pre-test and post-test.

An independent-samples t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the females and males in the pre-test regarding grammatical accuracy of their writing. The results of the descriptive statistics are presented accordingly in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRE-TEST REGARDING GENDER

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Grades	Females	32	14.00	1.84	.32
	Males	33	13.72	1.73	.30

According to the mean scores, there was no difference between females and males regarding grammatical accuracy of their writing and an independent t-test was employed to confirm it, the results of which are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PRE-TEST REGARDING GENDER

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Grades	Equal variances assumed	.00	.95	.61	63	.54
	Equal variances not assumed			.61	62.4	.54

As shown in Table 2 there was no significant difference in scores for females (*M*=14.00, *SD*=1.84) and males [*M*=13.72, *SD*=1.73; *t* (63) = .61, *p*=.54 > .05], that is, both groups were homogeneous in pre-test regarding writing accuracy.

An independent-samples t-test was run to compare the mean score of the females and males in the post-test regarding grammatical accuracy of their writing. The results of the descriptive statistics are presented accordingly in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST REGARDING GENDER

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Grades	**Females**	32	15.46	1.99	.353
	Males	33	15.51	2.15	.374

According to the mean scores, there was no difference between two groups, that is, females and males regarding grammatical accuracy of their writing and an independent t-test was employed to confirm it. Table 4 presents the results of this analysis.

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR POST-TEST REGARDING GENDER

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Grades	Equal variances assumed	.61	.43	-.09	63	.929
	Equal variances not assumed			-.09	62.8	.929

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of females and males in post-test regarding grammatical accuracy of their writing. There was no significant difference in scores for females (*M*=15.46, *SD*=1.99) and males [*M*=15.51, *SD*=2.15; *t* (63) = -.09, *p*=.92 > .05], that is, the effect of DA on the grammatical accuracy of both females' and males' writings was the same. Therefore, the research question indicating that there is no difference between females and males regarding the effect of DA on grammatical accuracy of pre-intermediate EFL learners' writings.

V. DISCUSSION

The present research was an attempt to research the effect of DA on improving grammatical accuracy in writing (simple present tense, simple past tense); in other words, this research was to find out whether there is a significant difference between females and males regarding the effect of DA on grammatical accuracy of pre-intermediate EFL learners' writings or not. The findings indicated that there was not a significant difference between females and males regarding grammatical accuracy of their writing.

The findings of this study are accompanied by the results of previous studies such as Hashemnezhad and Fattollahzadeh (2015), Alavi and Taghizadeh (2014), Nourdad (2013), Ghahremani et al. (2013), and Isavi (2013). The outcomes of this study, however, were in contrast with the study conducted by Frisby and Braden (1992).

Gender has been considered as an important factor that plays a role in second or foreign language acquisition. It is not a problem what gender differences are mainly biologically or culturally specified, educational investigation has recently confirmed that the gender differences obviously affect students' academic interests, needs, and achievements (Halpern, 1986; Kenway & McLeod, 2000; Swiatek & Lupkowski-Shoplik, 2000). It is worth to mention that different educational domains have different assertions to gender issue. Previous studies reveal that female learners indicate possible predominancy in their second language learning process (Burstall, 1975; Boyle, 1987; Ehrlich, 2001). Considering these issues and considering that Iranian schools are not coeducational, investigating gender based differences between learners in using DA technique and its beneficial guidance was valuable, and the results of research showed that there was no significant difference between male and female learners in using DA procedure. Therefore, teachers and examiners can use DA procedure and its effective guidance in both male and female schools in the same way. Also, findings of this showed that impressive guidance of DA can be applied in learners' books without considering gender differences. One of the important reasons why there was no significant difference between male and female learners could be that in both male and female groups DA procedure was applied, and in DA procedure instruction and assessment are integrated with each other and the teacher provides students with mediation. Applying

DA can also show a more accurate picture of the EFL learners' writing ability. Another reason could be that DA aims to examine the differential effects of different training strategies given to the student to improve his/her functioning.

Therefore findings of this study could have some practical implications for EFL curriculum developers and syllabus designers, EFL test developers, EFL teachers and testers, and EFL learners.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of DA on improving grammatical accuracy in writings of male and female EFL learners (simple present tense, simple past tense); in other words, this study was to find out whether there is difference between females and males regarding the effect of DA on grammatical accuracy of pre-intermediate EFL learners' writings or not. The findings indicated that there was not a significant difference between females and males regarding grammatical accuracy of their writings. It was concluded that EFL learners can take the advantage of DA depending on the size of their ZPDs and gender has no role to play in the effect of DA on their development.

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Ghader Ramazanpour was born in the city of Ahar in Iran in 1975. He received his B.A. degree in English Language Teaching from Tabriz University in 2002. He is an MA candidate in Islamic Azad University of Ahar branch. His main areas of interest are language testing, assessment and teaching.

Nava Nourdad is an assistant professor at University of Tabriz where she has been teaching undergraduate and graduate courses. Her research interests include language testing and assessment, syllabus design and course book evaluation, ESP, reading and writing.

Naser Nouri was born in the Northwest city of Ahar in Iran in 1980. He received his B.A. degree in English Translation from Kharazmi University in 2008. In 2011, he completed his MA in English Language Teaching in Azarbaijan Shahid Madani University in Tabriz. His main areas of interest are sociolinguistics (endangered languages), psycholinguistics, critical discourse analysis and multilingualism.

Formality of the Style, Maturity of the Artist — Stylistic Analysis of a Poem in Joyce's *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*

Bing Dong

Foreign Trade and Business College of Chongqing Normal University, China

Abstract—**The language style in James Joyce's *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* renders no uniformity. In fact the language style varies with the growth of the novel's protagonist Stephen Dedalus. By employing the way of stylistic analysis in terms of linguistic levels of phonology, lexicology and grammar, this paper is to objectively describe, precisely interpret and reasonably evaluate those foregrounded linguistic features presented in a poem which was written by the protagonist Stephen when he was a university student in order to explore enough proof to reveal the theme of this novel: Steven, the protagonist, grows into maturity as an artist with his language style developing into formality.**

Index Terms—*A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, **stylistic analysis, formality, maturity**

I. INTRODUCTION

A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man (which is, for convenience, mentioned as *A Portrait* for short in the rest of this paper.) is the first novel of James Joyce, a great master of modernism in Ireland, which symbolizes his first step into his literary experimentation towards modernism. Different from those traditional novels throughout which one style is employed, *A Portrait*, which consists of five episodes, employs various language styles to match with the growth of the protagonist Stephen Dedalus. From the baby-talk in the beginning to the diaries at closing, stylistic variation plays a critical role in this novel, which is also the foregrounded features of it. Therefore, by way of stylistic analysis, this paper is, from the levels of phonology, lexis and grammar, to objectively describe, precisely interpret and reasonably evaluate those foregrounded linguistic features shown in a poem written by Stephen as a young artist.

A Portrait is a novel about the growing-up of Stephen Dedalus from his infancy to young adulthood. To match with this process, Joyce adopts the growing-up of Stephen as the clue and arranges the whole novel episodically with five chapters. "Each chapter takes us through certain periods of Stephen's young life, introducing key events and focusing almost exclusively on Stephen's reactions, thoughts and feelings."(Miller, 2007, p. 63) Episode One includes four sections, depicting Stephen's infancy and childhood. Episode Two consists of five sections, which records what happens in Stephen's boyhood and adolescence. Episode Three, made up of three sections, is mainly about sermon given in the retreat and Stephen's final choice of repentance after he commits sin. Episode Four, the climax of the whole novel, is also made up of three sections which tell that Stephen sets about his spiritual and moral reformation after absolution but finally finds a new "conversion" when he sees a wading girl in the midstream. In the four sections of Episode Five Stephen is a university student who has developed his own thoughts on philosophy, aesthetics and literature. When he finally realizes that he is tired of everything in Ireland, Stephen is determined to self-exile to European Mainland to pursue his artistic goal.

In the second section of Episode Five, Stephen wakes up in the morning in a state of enchantment and poetic inspiration. His mind continues the fantasy of Emma whom he met the day before. Instinctively "he felt the rhythmic movement of a villanelle pass through" his lips from his mind:

"Are you not weary of ardent ways,
Lure of the fallen seraphim?
Tell no more of enchanted days.

Your eyes have set man's heart ablaze
And you have had your will of him.
Are you not weary of ardent ways?

Above the flame the smoke of praise
Goes up from ocean rim to rim.
Tell no more of enchanted days.

Our broken cries and mournful lays

Rise in one eucharistic hymn.
Are you not weary of ardent ways?

While sacrificing hands upraise
The chalice flowing to the brim,
Tell no more of enchanted days.

And still you hold our longing gaze
With languorous look and lavish limb!
Are you not weary of ardent ways?
Tell no more of enchanted days." (Joyce, 1996, p. 202)

Obviously, it is a poem without a title. Even so, it is a symbol which shows that Steven, as a university student at that time, has developed his own qualities of language and literature, has formed his own style of art and aesthetics, and has thus reflected his own physiology and psychology. This is because it is actually a typical verse form of French origin called villanelle. A villanelle, which firstly appeared in English poetry in the 1800s, is a type of poem imitating French models. "The villanelle is a contrived verse form of five three-lined stanza and a final four-lined one that uses only two rhymes throughout." (Blamires, 1987, p. 70) A villanelle consists of only two rhymes. In each tercet or every three-lined stanza, one rhyme is employed in the first and third lines while the other rhyme appears in the second line of each tercet. In the last quatrain or four-lined stanza the former rhyme recurs in the first, third and fourth lines and the latter in the second one. What is more, a villanelle consists of two refrains. The first and third lines of the first tercet recur alternatively in the last line of the rest four tercets and form a couplet in the last two lines of the last quatrain. In other words, a villanelle is fairly musical and strictly metrical. Though ten years ago Stephen once wrote a poem *To E- C-*, it is the first time for readers to read his poem which is such a classical one with recherch é rule and form. No matter whether it is appreciated at the phonological level, the lexical level, or the grammatical level, this poem is undoubtedly of great importance and significance because it is the climax of this episode, symbolizing the summit of all the poems occurring in the whole novel, and also because it is an indication that Stephen is mature in both physiology and psychology.

II. THEORETICAL BASE

A. Style and Formality

Theoretically, the definition of style varies in terms of different respects. However, to apply stylistic analysis to a text, it is, first of all, necessary to be clear about what it is in a literary text that should be described and analyzed because it is the theoretical base in this paper. In the history of defining what style is, there are numerous definitions which focus on one aspect or another. Liu Shisheng (1998) in his book *Outlines of Western Stylistics* lists 31 definitions. Here are some of them:

1) Style as form (Aristotle)
2) Style as personal idiosyncrasy (Murry)
3) Saying the right thing in the most effective way (Enkvist)
4) Style as the choice between alternative expressions (Enkvist)
5) Style as foregrounding (Leech and Short, Mukařovský)
6) Style as deviation (Mukařovský & Spitzer)
7) Style as prominence (Halliday)
(Liu Shisheng, 1998, ps. 9-10)

These views prove to have their advantages and disadvantages by other linguists and stylisticians. The advantageous viewpoints will be adopted as theoretical base for the paper. The revised edition of *A Dictionary of Literary Terms* (Cuddon, 1979, p. 663) says that "style is the characteristic manner of expression in prose or verse or how a particular writer says things. The analysis and assessment of style involves examination of a writer's choice of words, his figure of speech, the devices (rhetorical and otherwise), the shape of sentences (whether they be loose or periodic), the shape of his paragraphs — indeed of every conceivable aspect of his language and the way in which he uses it." To sum up, style in this paper refers to the way in which language is used in a context, by a given person for a given purpose; or it refers to variation in language use, occasioned by conscious choice from the range of phonological and lexical resources of language in order to achieve some effects.

Peter Trudgill (1992) holds that styles are characterized as varieties of language viewed from the point of view of formality. Formality, which in return refers to the way that the style of language will vary in appropriateness according to the social context such as the occasion and the relationship between addresser and addressee(s), can be divided into five levels according to Martin Joos (1962): frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate.

A frozen style, often containing archaisms, is seen in the language which is not allowed to change casually such as Biblical quotations.

A formal style, whose language is filled with technical vocabulary, "fussy semantics" or exact definitions, presents the characteristics of one-way participation and no interruption. Technical theses, introductions between strangers, and

so on are of such a style.

A consultative style involves two-way participation in which background information is necessary. In its language unintentional pauses caused by such interjections as "uh huh", "I see" or "you know" are possible so interruptions are allowed.

A casual style usually happens between friends and acquaintances without background information. Ellipsis and slang are often seen in its language. A large number of interruptions, intentional or unintentional, are common.

An intimate style usually refers to the non-public language style in which intonation plays a more important role than wording or grammar does and private vocabulary occurs frequently.

However, there is little agreement as to how the levels of formality should be divided. Different linguists have different standards. Therefore, it is difficult for learners to grasp the differences between those levels. Despite such disagreement or difficulty, Martin Joos' theory at least provides learners with a comparatively practical theoretical base. It can at least be generally divided into two: formal style and informal style. They are quite distinctive because each has foregrounded features at the phonological, lexical and grammatical levels.

B. Stylistic Analysis

Stylistic analysis is an approach to the analysis of (literary) texts using linguistic description. By stylistic analysis, anyone, no matter whether he is professional or not, can handle the data that any text presents in a scientific and systematic way. The process of such an analysis is rigorous because it is completely based on the linguistic description of the text itself. Therefore, items of stylistic significance in each level of the language are sure to be checked out exhaustively. It replaces a sporadic approach with a systematic one and seeks to avoid over-reliance on intuitive ability in some traditional analysis of a text. It takes the description of the linguistic facts in a text as the first step, then bases some reasonable interpretation on the description, and finally explores the proper artistic or aesthetic value that the text may imply. To sum up, what stylistic analysis tries to achieve is not merely to describe those significant linguistic features a text may display, but also to reason out what functional significance its linguistic choice may present through the interpretation of those features, and finally to dig deeper in the text so that the proper literary effects or aesthetic significance that the author attempts to acquire can equally be comprehended by common readers. It lays stress on the study of language functions and the different structures dictated by these functions.

Then how to put it into practice? Short (1997, p. 3) provides a three-phase approach: description → interpretation → evaluation. The steps in sequence will be: taking a text as the object of study, working through the text thoroughly, and marking out those foregrounded linguistic features; discussing those features from different levels of language and inferring the function those linguistic choices may bring; relating them to the literary effect or theme the text may generate. To put it in detail, description means describing and classifying the particular features at various linguistic levels: phonology, lexis, syntax, etc. Interpretation means providing some semantic explanation and illustration of the described features according to their linguistic context. Evaluation refers to providing some assessment of their stylistic or aesthetic effects of those linguistic facts. By describing and interpreting some specific linguistic features of a certain text, readers are more likely to understand the text better; by evaluating those features, readers are in a better position to appreciate the stylistic or aesthetic effects of a text. Therefore, stylistic analysis is generally believed to be systematic, objective and practical.

III. STYLISTIC ANALYSIS OF THE POEM

A. Phonological Patterns

Firstly, as mentioned above, its rhyme-scheme is "5 aba+ 1 abaa": the alternation of /eiz/ and /im/. "The general function of rhymes is to get the text more organized and to bestow 'music' to the text. Like alliteration, it may also be used to achieve more significant effects." (Wang Shouyuan, 2000, p. 100) In fact, the rhyme /eiz/ refers to "the rays from the rose that was her willful heart." (Joyce, 1996, p. 197) And based on it, other rhymed words are inspired, like "ways", "days", "ablaze", "praise", "raise", "gaze", etc. Each of them produces an image: "ardent ways", "enchanted days", "heart ablaze", "the smoke of praise", "longing gaze", etc. Through the rhyming, these images compose a vivid and lively scene, full of ardor. Therefore, the rhyme-scheme of this poem plays an important part in its emotional effect.

Secondly, assonance, such as /a:/ in words "are", "ardent", "enchant", and "heart"; /ɔ:/ in "fallen", "more", "your", and "mournful"; /əu/ in "smoke", "goes", "ocean", "no", "broken", "flowing", and "hold"; /æ/ in "have", "and", "had", "sacrificing", "hands", "chalice", "languorous", and "lavish", pervades the whole poem from the first stanza to the last, producing strong and harmonious rhythms of music. At the same time, these vowels /a:/, /ɔ:/, /əu/, /æ/ are so resounding that they cause empathy, making readers associate them with an appetence for love.

Lastly, alliteration /l/ continuously occurs in words "*l*onging", "*l*anguorous", "*l*ook", "*l*avish", and "*l*imb" of the last stanza, vividly depicting a figure of a beautiful charming girl who makes Stephen crazy about. "Languorous look" and "lavish limb", together with "longing gaze", make the girl lively and fascinating. And the /l/ sound symbolizes tenderness, making her more amorous. Therefore, though he doesn't directly mention the name of Emma, Stephen has treasured her deeply in his heart for a long time.

Through the unique phonological patterns, the deflection of rhymes, assonance and alliteration, Stephen successfully composes a poem of villanelle, such an old French poetry model, elaborately observing its verse form, which suggests

something formal, cerebral and professional.

B. *Attitudinal and Experiential Epithets*

The epithet, as Halliday said, indicates some quality of the subset, e.g. *old, long, blue, fast*. (2000, p. 184) The epithet may be an objective property of the thing itself which is experiential in function; or it may be an expression of the speaker's subjective attitude towards it which represents an interpersonal element in the meaning of the nominal group. There is, however, no hard and fast line between these two, so most epithets are both attitudinal and experiential ones.

In this poem, 10 epithets are used as pre-modifiers of the nominal group repeatedly occurring 16 times. They are "ardent", "fallen", "enchanted", "broken", "mournful", "eucharistic", "sacrificing", "longing", "languorous", "lavish", all of which are both attitudinal and experiential epithets except "eucharistic". Therefore, they are words of great emotion, by which the writer, namely, Stephen himself, directly shows his attitude towards the one in his fantasy, the love in his dream, and the longing for her love, for example, the nominal group "ardent ways", which repeats four times in the whole poem, shows Stephen's jealousness or anger when he saw Emma flirting foolishly with Father Moran while the nominal group "enchanted days", which similarly repeats four times, suggests that "however he might revile and mock her image, his anger was also a form of homage." (Joyce, 1996, p. 199) The two types of emotion are sharply inconsistent at the very beginning but they fuse together harmoniously at last because "*you still hold our longing gaze with languorous look and lavish limb!*"

Judging from the lexical fields, these epithets can be classified into two: one which is related to love, like "ardent", "fallen", "enchanted", "broken", "mournful", "longing", "languorous", "lavish", the other to religion, such as "eucharistic", "sacrificing". The former classification refers to something common in one's life while the latter suggests something solemn in one's life. By employing the words of the two classifications, Stephen creates two scenes vividly: one is how she conquers "him" which is described as "*Your eyes have set man's heart ablaze And you have had your will of him.*", the other is how Eucharistic rite is going which is depicted as "*While sacrificing hands upraise The chalice flowing to the brim, Tell no more of enchanted days.*" The two scenes are interwoven together which, on the one hand, produces sharp contrast, and on the other hand, unites harmoniously together. It shows that in Stephen's heart, love to him is as solemn as religion to other people, and contrarily, religion to him is as common as love to other people which can explain why he at last refuses to believe in Catholicism.

C. *The Implications of "the Fallen Seraphim"*

In fact, before he intones the poem, Stephen awakes towards dawn, not so clear-headed. Subconsciously, he is inspired. "A spirit filled him, pure as the purest water, sweet as dew, moving as music. But how faintly it was inbreathed, how passionlessly, as if the seraphim themselves were breathing upon him!" (Joyce, 1996, p. 196) Here he mentions "the seraphim" because he feels as if they were introjecting in his spirit. Therefore, he employs "the seraphim" in the poem, but adds a pre-modifier "fallen", combining a phrase of particular significance. Considering the situation and process of his versification, the phrase "the fallen seraphim" have several implications in it.

Firstly, it is an allusion. According to the *Bible*, seraph is one of the angels that protect the seat of god. It is firstly mentioned once in *Isaiah* of the Hebrew *Bible*. Later the Jewish religious image perceives seraph as having the form of a human, and such an image is accepted and adopted by the Christianity and becomes one part of the Christian angelic hierarchy. In the ranks of Christian angels, seraph appears on the highest known rank. And seraph literally means "burning" in the Hebrew, something connected with "ardent", "ablaze", "flame" and "smoke", all of which occur in the stanzas of the poem. They together produce a splendid scene which is full of fire and passion. Therefore, as Harry Blamires put, it "results in a private orgy of sex-in-the-head." (1987, p. 70)

Secondly, it is also regarded as a symbol of charity, the virtue of love which is at the very beginning expressed towards God and then towards oneself and one's neighbors because humans are what God loves. Stephen worships and knows Aquinas so well that he is sure to be familiar with Aquinas' description of the nature of Seraphim:

"The name 'Seraphim' does not come from charity only, but from the excess of charity, expressed by the word ardor or fire. Hence Dionysius (Coel. Hier. vii) expounds the name 'Seraphim' according to the properties of fire, containing an excess of heat. Now in fire we may consider three things.

First, the movement which is upwards and continuous. This signifies that they are borne inflexibly towards God.

Secondly, the active force which is 'heat', which is not found in fire simply, but exists with a certain sharpness, as being of most penetrating action, and reaching even to the smallest things, and as it were, with superabundant fervor; whereby is signified the action of these angels, exercised powerfully upon those who are subject to them, rousing them to a like fervor, and cleansing them wholly by their heat.

Thirdly we consider in fire the quality of clarity, or brightness; which signifies that these angels have in themselves an inextinguishable light, and that they also perfectly enlighten others." (wikipedia)

According to Aquinas's description, Stephen knows that seraphim should stand for both purification and love. And he feels that his love to Emma is that irresistible, excess and pure so that "Your eyes have set man's heart ablaze And you have had your will of him."

Lastly, it performs of course as a metaphor. Stephen considers himself as one of "the fallen seraphim". Especially the pre-modifier "fallen" makes the metaphor produce a unique literary significance and artistic effect. The word "fallen" makes readers associate it with another allusion also from the *Bible*, the fallen angel Lucifer that is especially mentioned

in the sermon of Father Arnall in episode three, and who is the archangel cast from heaven for leading the revolt of the angels and later in a shape of serpent that lures Eve and Adam to eat the apple from the forbidden tree and thus causes the original sin of all human beings. Coincidently the same spelling of the word "seraph" in the Hebrew is also used of snakes, or serpents. Therefore, the phrase of "the fallen seraphim" is a metaphor of Stephen himself, that is, he is like the fallen angel and then becomes the serpent, which suggests that he has then intertwined spirituality, beauty and lust in his passions.

D. Deviation of Normal Short Sentences

Generally, there is the poetic license in the language of poetry. In order to emphasize the phonological, perceptual, allegoric, and imagery beauty, poets often violate the grammatical convention of the language, employing such foregrounded devices as inversion, ellipsis, illogical collocation, etc. however, in this poem, there are 15 sentences with an average number of 8 words per sentence, which is quite short. And there are not any of those foregrounded devices in those sentences. In other words, they are all normal short sentences but deviation from a poem.

Sentences of such a type often function well in expressing one's meaning explicitly, and showing one's emotion directly. They are such affective language that "He spoke the verses aloud from the first lines till the music and rhythm suffused his mind, turning it to quiet indulgence." (Joyce, 1996, p. 200) "A glow of desire kindled again his soul and fired and fulfilled all his body." (Joyce, 1996, p. 201) Since it is a poem of villanelle, there two refrains occur in each stanza. Similarly, the two lines are two normal short sentences which form a rhetorical question. On the one hand, they make the whole poem coherent naturally, on the other hand, the deflection of them once again implies Stephen's great anger to "you", but his anger is the exact reflection of his deep love to "you".

IV. Conclusion

In conclusion, formal style refers to a variety of language often used publicly or officially for some serious purpose. It is generally marked in phonology by skillful use of various types of sound patterning, in lexis by academic use of long words of Latin or Greek origin with complicated implications, and in grammar by deviated use of normal short sentences with special purpose. Judging from the phonological, lexical, or grammatical level, the poem of villanelle without a title is a symbol of Stephen's maturity as an artist. No matter whether it is appreciated from its elegant phonological patterns, its implications of metaphor, affective attitudinal epithet, or the imagery it produces, this poem can be considered to be a perfect art of him through which Stephen successfully expresses his aesthetic idea of "wholeness, harmony and radiance." Compared with those little poems and songs in his childhood, this fully proves that Stephen at this stage develops an very formal style as an artist. The poem also proves that he has achieved great attainment in literature and aesthetics as well as his truehearted yearning for human love but not the love from God. All those vividly reflect the complicated inner world of Stephen as an young adult, which finally represents readers a portrait of the artist as a young man, and thus the theme of the whole novel gets strengthened and sublimed.

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Bing Dong, born in Anyue, Sichuan province, China, 1976, is currently lecturer of English in School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Foreign Trade and Business College of Chongqing Normal University. He earned his master's degree from Chongqing Normal University, and his main research interests cover literary stylistics and language education. He has published quite a few papers in some Chinese academic journals.

Process-oriented Translation Studies: A Case Study Based on Lörscher's Model

Sareh Fereydouni
Department of English Language, Marvdasht Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran

Amin Karimnia
Department of English Language, Fasa Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran

Abstract—The present study aimed at investigating Iranian M.A students of translation uses of TAPs strategies while translating a text from English into Persian. The researchers used Lörscher's (2005) model of TAPs as the main framework of the study. The main translated text was in literary genre. The participants of the study were 20 M.A students of Translation Studies. The participants who were selected through accidental sampling were supposed to translate the text into Persian in thirty minutes. Use of dictionaries was also allowed. Before giving the text in question to the participants in order to be translated, the translators were instructed and asked to verbalize what they were thinking about. Having collected the data, each strategy was given its related issue based on Lörscher's (2005) model of TAPs. After counting out the frequency of each TAPs strategy, to find out whether the frequencies of each strategy type were of any statistically significant differences, the researchers conducted the chi-square test. As the results of the study revealed, there were statistically significant differences among the frequencies of the ten TAPs strategies based on Lörscher's (2005) model. The findings also revealed that out of the five ending strategies pointed out in this model, 'negative solution to a translational problem' was the most frequent one.

Index Terms—think-aloud protocols, process-oriented research, translation studies, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

During the history of translation, there have been a lot of theories, models and procedures introduced by several scholars in order to understand the phenomenon of translation better. Although TS has not been treated as an academic field of science (Munday, 2008) and thus has not been studied in isolation within the academic context, the history of translation shows that many attempts have been made without noticing the academic issues in this field of science. Recently, it has been a core topic of discussion to investigate into different aspects in a translation project in order to know what really takes place from the very beginning steps while translating a text. In doing so, a considerable number of scholars have already categorized different aspects of translation. One of the most comprehensive one, was made by Holmes (1988). In his "map" of TS, Holmes (1988) divided TS into two main categories including pure vs. applied TS. The pure branch was further subdivided into theoretical and descriptive TS. The present study relates to the Descriptive Translation Studies (henceforth DTS) (Gandomkar & Karimnia, 2013). The sub-divisions on DTS are introduced briefly as follows:

1. Product-oriented DTS: examines existing translations. In most cases, a comparison is made between a translated text with its original one.

2. Process-oriented DTS: is related to the psychology of translation and seeks to find out what happens in the mind of a translator (Munday, 2008, p.11).

3. Function-oriented DTS: is the study of context rather than the text. It examines which books were translated when and where, and what influences they exerted (Munday, 2008, p.10).

Having an overview on what these sub-branches of DTS would refer to, the researchers tried to narrow down the topic in the realm of process-oriented DTS, which is the main orientation of the present study.

As Venuti (2004) believes, TS research in 1990s is manifested through a diverse mixture of the theories and methodologies which characterize the previous decade. In Venuti's (ibid.) opinion, 1990s is the time for other sub-branches of TS to enter the realm of research, psychology being one of them. In this regard, TAPs were designed. Scholars of both disciplines were interested to become more familiar with the steps taken in the mind of a translator. Chronological issues of translating were one of these considerations. In other words, the scholars were interested to see what stages take place in the mind of a translator. Therefore, some TAPs designs were formulated (e.g., Gerloff 1986, Lörscher1996; Fraser 1996), which mostly have observed translators at various levels, both as trainees and as professionals.

TAPs are faced by a number of theoretical problems which must be tackled. "Verbalization won't register unconscious factors and automatic processes, and it can change a mental activity instead of simply reporting it.

Similarly, subjects are sometimes instructed to provide specific kinds of information: description, for instance, without any justification". (Venuti 2004 as cited in Gandomkar & Karimnia, 2013, p.18).

The main purpose of the present study was studying the translation strategies applied by Iranian M.A students of translation. This was done using Lörscher's (2005) model of think-aloud protocol, which is in fact a revised model of the 1996 one. To figure out the statistical differences among the frequencies of the stages was another purpose of the study. Finally, the reason for such selections was discussed. The present study tried to answer the following research questions:

1. Are there any statistically significant differences among the frequencies of the strategies taken by Iranian M.A students of translation while translating from English to Persian based on Lörscher's (2005) TAP model?

2. What are the most frequent strategies taken by Iranian M.A students of translation while translating from English to Persian based on Lörscher's (2005) TAP model?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Empirical studies of the translation process have used think-aloud protocols to provide a window into the mental activity which is not directly observable. In this regard, Séguinot's (1996) paper reported on a protocol study in a natural discourse situation involving two professional translators and discussed the relevance of the data to the debate on the use of verbalization as a methodology. The protocol provided evidence of translation strategies and pointed to the need for a dynamic model of the translation process that takes into account activation, suppression, and attending mechanisms.

According to Eftekhary and Aminizadeh (2012. P. 1039), constructs and mental processes in general and translation processes in particular have been the focus of much research in the past three decades. Among the techniques applied in studying such strategies and cognitive processes, the use of TAP has extensively been proposed. Though much has been written on the use of TAPs in recognizing the mental processes translators experience, very little can be found to address the mental processes and mechanisms they undergo while translating a piece of literary text. The aim of their study was to investigate the strategies senior translation students of Islamic Azad University of Bandar Abbas applied while translating literary texts using TAPs. In doing so, 12 senior translation students of Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas Branch participated in the study. Participants were chosen according to the convenience sampling method. The subjects then were asked to translate four literary texts and while translating verbalize whatever goes on in their mind within a TAP framework. The "think aloud protocols" were categorized based on the frequency table and the translations were analyzed qualitatively. The data were analyzed to show the strategies applied by the respondents. In the analysis of the strategies, just the types of strategies were of importance to the researchers, though the frequency of each strategy was also collected and reported. Based on the findings, fourteen strategies were detected with Look-up was as the most frequent strategy applied by the participants in the study .Using imagery and paraphrasing were the second and third most frequent strategies used by the participants respectively. Switching to L1 while translation was found the lowest strategy as reported in TAPs by the subjects. Deductive reasoning strategies were the second lowest strategy reported. Such strategies as evaluating and monitoring, Resourcing and referencing, co-text recourse and problem solving stood in between.

According to Hansen (2005, 511), "in empirical process-oriented translation research with different kinds of introspection, two important questions are raised repeatedly: 1. does concurrent verbalization, likeThink-aloud, have an influence on the translation process and 2. What do we actuallylearn from introspective methods like think-aloud and retrospection? Based on ideasfrom modern psychology and brain research, Hansen (ibid.) argued that think-aloud must have animpact on the translation process. Furthermore, it was suggested that it was not only spontaneous, unmodified thoughts about the actual task that were verbalized, but also memories, reflections, justifications, explanations, emotions and experiences."

TAPs have often been used to study the cognitive aspect of translation. On a paper, Künzli (2009,) revealed the usefulness of TAPs for scrutinizing the linguistic aspect oftranslation. Examples are drawn from material collected in forty think-aloud sessions over several years. The subjects were trainee translators or professional translators. The language pairs were French-German and French-Swedish. The problems discussed fell into four categories: a) sociolinguistic), b) textual, c) functional, and d) grammatical.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Twenty Iranian M.A students acted as the participants of the study. As in the data analysis procedure, each and every word was important, this procedure was very time consuming. Therefore, the number of participants was limited. These students were selected from M.A students studying at Islamic Azad University, Fars Science and Research Branch. The participants of the study were chosen through accidental sampling. These students were further divided into groups of four. Therefore, five groups of students were available to be studied, each group containing four students. The reason to this selection is elaborated under data collection procedure section.

B. Materials of the Study

The selected material was in literary genre. The poem "To His Coy Mistress" by Andrew Marvell (as cited in Perrine, 1970) was given to the students as the material of the study. Participants were supposed to translate the text into Persian in around thirty minutes. It is important to mention that the use of dictionaries was also allowed.

C. Data Collection Procedures

The English poem was given to the participants in order to be translated into Persian. The translators were then asked to verbalize what they were thinking about. As a simple word could have an impact on the results of the study, all the conversations were tape-recorded and further analyzed. During data collection procedure, each strategy was given its related issue based on Lörscher's (2005) model of TAPs. What is important to be mentioned is that in order to avoid any interfering issues during the process of data collection e.g., the interviewer's confirmations, approvals or disapprovals, the data were drawn out from the dialogue between pairs of four students, rather than monologues.

Table 1.describes the strategies pointed out by Lörscher (2005) as related to think-aloud protocol investigations:

TABLE1.
LÖRSCHER'S (2005) MODEL OF TAP

Strategy	Definition
RR	Realizing a translational problem
VP	Verbalizing a translational problem
SP1	Search for a (possible preliminary) solution to a translational problem
SP2	Solution to a translational problem
SP a. b. c…	Parts of a solution to a translational problem
SP Ø	A solution to a translational problem is still to be found (Ø)
SP = Ø	Negative (Ø) solution to a translational problem
PSL	Problem in the reception of the SL text

In addition to these original elements of translation strategies, Lörscher (2005, p.28) proposes other potential elements which consist of three issues presented in the following table:

TABLE 2.
OTHER POTENTIAL ELEMENTS INTRODUCED BY LÖRSCHER (2005)

Strategy	Definition
MSL/MTL	Monitoring (verbatim repetition) of SL- & TL- text segments
REPHR SL/TL	Rephrasing (paraphrasing) of SL- & TL- text segments and other potential elements of checking solutions and mental organization of SL- TL- text segments

D. Data Analysis

In order to find out whether the differences among the strategies introduced by Lörscher (2005) would hold any statistically significant differences or not, the chi-square procedure was used. This was done through SPSS software. In addition, all other related issues were discussed, concluding remarks were dealt with and suggestions for further studies were made by the researchers.

IV. RESULTS AND FINDINGS

After giving the text to each group at different time frames, the acts of each participant were analyzed. The exact frequency of each strategy used by every one of the participants is presented in Appendix A. In addition, sample of data collected from the participants of all five groups is presented in Appendix B. In this regard, Table 3. presents the total frequencies of each strategy used by all twenty participants of the study:

TABLE 3.
TOTAL FREQUENCIES OF EACH STRATEGY USED BY ALL TWENTY PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY

Code	Strategy Abbreviation	Strategy Definition	Total Frequency of Usage
1	RR	Realizing a translational problem	37
2	VP	Verbalizing a translational problem	37
3	SP1	Search for a (possible preliminary) solution to a translational problem	6
4	SP2	Solution to a translational problem	5
5	SP a. b. c…	Parts of a solution to a translational problem	9
6	SP Ø	A solution to a translational problem is still to be found (Ø)	4
7	SP = Ø	Negative (Ø) solution to a translational problem	12
8	PSL	Problem in the reception of the SL text	7
9	MSL/MTL	Monitoring (verbatim repetition) of SL- & TL- text segments	6
10	REPHR SL/TL	Rephrasing (paraphrasing) of SL- & TL- text segments and other potential elements of checking solutions and mental organization of SL- TL- text segments	2

In Table 3., columns 4 to 8 have been colored with specific intention of the researchers. The reason for this isolation is that According to Lörscher (2005), these are the final products of stage 1 in this model (i.e., realizing a translational problem). In other words, an individual participant of the study would first realize a translational problem (i.e., stage 1). Then, the translator may or may not verbalize that translation problem (i.e., stage 2). A search for a (possible preliminary) solution to a translational problem (i.e., stage 3) would be optional, too. However, the final results of this translational problem realization, according to Lörscher (2005) would be one of the following stages (i.e., stages 4 to 8):

a. The translator finds the final solution to the translational problem;
b. The translator will partly find the final solution to the translational problem;
c. The translator has not yet found the final solution to the translational problem;
d. The translator could not find the solution to the translational problem; and
e. The translator faces a problem in the reception of the SL text.

As the findings of the study revealed, the following stages were the most frequent ones among all other types:

a) Stage 1 (RR): Realizing a translational problem (f=37).
b) Stage 2 (VP): verbalizing a translational problem (f=37).
c) Stage 7 (SP = Ø): Negative (Ø) solution to a translational problem (f=12).

However, in order to find out whether the frequencies of each strategy type were of any statistically significant differences, the researchers conducted the chi-square test. In this regard, Table 4. represents some descriptive statistics on the input of the data:

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE FREQUENCY OF EACH TAPs STRATEGY BASED ON LÖRSCHER'S (2005) MODEL

Code	Strategy Abbreviation	Observed Frequency	Expected Frequency	Residual
1	RR	37	12.5	24.5
2	VP	37	12.5	24.5
3	SP1	6	12.5	-6.5
4	SP2	5	12.5	-7.5
5	SP a. b. c…	9	12.5	-3.5
6	SP Ø	4	12.5	-8.5
7	SP = Ø	12	12.5	-0.5
8	PSL	7	12.5	-5.5
9	MSL/MTL	6	12.5	-6.5
10	REPHR SL/TL	2	12.5	-10.5
Total		125		

Following the previous table, Table 5.presents the results of the chi-square test:

TABLE 5.
THE RESULTS OF THE CHI-SQUARE TEST

Chi-Square	125.320
df	9
Asymp. Sig.	0.0001

As the results of the study revealed, there were statistically significant differences among the frequencies of the ten TAPs strategies based on Lörscher's (2005) model. This was due to the fact that the Asymp. Sig. was observed to be more than 0.05 (i.e., 0.6140). However, as mentioned at the beginning of this section, stages 4 to 8 would be one of the ending strategies applied by each and every participant of the study. Likewise, none of these strategies could be achieved together simultaneously (Lörscher, 2005). Therefore, the researchers conducted another chi-square test in order to see whether the frequencies among these five stages (codes 4 to 8) would hold any statistically significant differences or not. In this regard, while Table 6. presents the basic descriptive statistics on this issue, Table 7. represents the results of the chi-square test applied:

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE FREQUENCY OF TAPs STRATEGY BASED ON LÖRSCHER'S (2005) MODEL:
THE QUESTION OF STRATEGY CODES 4 TO 8

Code	Strategy Abbreviation	Observed Frequency	Expected Frequency	Residual
4	SP2	5	7.4	-2.4
5	SP a. b. c…	9	7.4	1.6
6	SP Ø	4	7.4	-3.4
7	SP = Ø	12	7.4	4.6
8	PSL	7	7.4	0.4
Total		37		

TABLE 7.
THE RESULTS OF THE CHI-SQUARE TEST: THE QUESTION OF STRATEGY CODES 4 TO 8

Chi-Square	5.568
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	0. 6140

As the findings of the study related to these five strategies (codes 4 to 8) revealed, there were no statistically significant differences observed (Asymp. Sig. was observed to be less than 0.05). All in all, it could be stated that based on the findings of the present study, there were significant differences observed among the ten TAPs strategies developed by Lörscher (2005). However, these differences were not observed to be significant within the main five strategies which were supposed to be the final outcome of stage 1 of the model (i.e., realization of a translational problem).

V. DISCUSSION

In this section, some related discussions are provided. First of all, the researchers would like to re-present the research questions and hypotheses of the study once more. The first research question of the study was posed as follows:

• Are there any statistically significant differences among the frequencies of the strategies taken by Iranian M.A students of translation while translating from English to Persian based on Lörscher's (2005) TAP model?

As the findings of the study revealed, there were significant differences observed among the ten TAPs strategies developed by Lörscher (2005). Therefore, it could be stated that the first research hypothesis claiming that "there are statistically significant differences between the frequencies of the strategies taken by Iranian undergraduate students of translation while translating from English to Persian based on Lörscher's (2005) TAP model" was supported. However, this fact must not be neglected that these differences were not observed to be significant within the main five strategies which were supposed to be the final outcome of stage 1 of the model (i.e., realization of a translational problem). These strategies included the ones with the codes of 4 to 8.

The second research question of the study was also posed as follows:

• What are the most frequent strategies taken by Iranian M.A students of translation while translating from English to Persian based on Lörscher's (2005) TAP model?

As the results of the study showed, strategy codes 1, 2, and 7 were observed to be the most frequent ones used by the participants. While the frequencies of usage for the first two strategies were observed to be 37 simultaneously, this frequency was revealed to be 12 for the seventh one. Therefore, it could be stated that the second research hypothesis claiming that "'negative (Ø) solution to a translational problem' and 'problem in the reception of the SL text'are the most frequent strategies taken by Iranian M.A students of translation while translating from English to Persian based on Lörscher's (2005) TAP model" was partly supported.

The findings of the study supported those obtained by Barani and Karimnia (2014, p. 26257), who aimed at investigating different reading comprehension strategies, using a TAPs framework. In that study, "the TAPs strategies applied by Iranian B.A students of translation while translating a text from English into Persian were investigated. In doing so, thirty-two students (sixteen sophomores and sixteen seniors) were given a text with a nearly high level of difficulty to be translated. This level of difficulty was double-checked with two of the professors in advance. Each and every step taken during the process of translation was then tape-recorded and further placed in the classes of 'general' vs. 'local' reading comprehension strategies pointed out by Block (1992), which is based on think-aloud protocols. The results of the chi-square procedure indicated that there were statistically significant differences in terms of the frequencies of local strategies among the 'higher' vs. the 'lower' level of students. The findings also revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in using the general strategies among the students."

Likewise, the results of the present study supported the findings of the study conducted by Gandomkar and Karimnia (2013) who investigated different strategies used by Iranian B.A students of translation. In that study, the researchers applied Gerloff's (1986) model of TAPs to review the procedures used by such students during the process of translating a text from English into Persian with special reference to literacy genre. The model they applied to collect the data was similar to the framework used in the present research. First, each recorded action done by the translators were categorized under their possible classifications. Then, using the chi-square test, the differences between the frequencies of such students were investigated. The results revealed that there were significant differences between the frequencies of the TAP strategies used by the participants while translating literary genre from English into Persian. The findings also showed that 'extra-textual' or 'language use and task monitoring' (LUTM), 'Editing' (ED), and 'text contextualization' (TC) were the most frequently used strategies among the seven main strategies introduced by Gerloff (1986).

The procedures and objectives of the present study were also in agreement with those obtained by Bernardini (2002). Similar to the present work, Bernardini (2002) tended to survey the breakthroughs as well as the limits of the growing body of literature on TAPs in TS, and showed the necessity to take issues of environmental, experimental, theoretical validity more seriously. Bernardini (2002) also aimed at addressing some of these issues, at the levels of experimental design/administration, data analysis and report. It was reported that the risks involved in the adoption of a lax experimental methodology in TAPs studies had been somehow underestimated in the past few decades, and that the

generalized lack of concern with it can invalidate not only the results obtained in the single projects, but the validity of the approach itself.

The Objectives of the study were in accordance with Hubscher (2004), who investigated the influence of personalities on translator behavior and discovered links between attitudes, performance and creativity in the target text. In fact, as the results of the present study revealed, there could be a link between a translator's personality type on the one hand, and one's choice of a translation strategy on the other. This issue could possibly be investigated with special reference to the TAPs strategies (Gerloff, 1986). The fieldwork of her study consisted of a translation test from French into English which was administered to twenty postgraduate translation students, and in which they verbalized their thought processes and explained their choices, thereby expressing certain revealing attitudes and behaviors. The experiments were analyzed with different methods, and correlations were made between results found which gave credence to the idea that translators' personality characteristics, which were reflected in their attitude towards their work influenced, and were apparent in their performances. The students' different qualities (resourcefulness, originality, creativity…) were also displayed in varying degrees in the experiment and helped create patterns in the target texts.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present researchers used Lörscher's (2005) model of TAPs as the main framework of the study. This was a comprehensive and a detailed model of TAPs which was developed by Lörscher (2005). During the stage of data collection, the researchers, more or less, observed some frequencies related to each strategy code (i.e., codes 1 to 10). Even strategy codes 9 and 10 which were presented as other potential elements present in the TAPs model (Lörscher, 2005) happened to hold some frequencies. Therefore, it could be concluded that this model of TAPs is applicable within the English-Persian context.

Based on the findings of the present study, there were significant differences observed among the ten TAPs strategies developed by Lörscher (2005). This was observed when comparing the ten TAPs strategies in question. Therefore, it could be concluded that Iranian M.A students of translation mostly make use of certain strategies when translating a literary text from English into Persian. In addition, it could be stated that when comparing the five ending strategies (codes 4 to 8) together, the seventh one would hold a higher frequency than the other ones.

As the findings of the study related to the five ending strategies (i.e., codes 4 to 8) showed, these differences were not observed to be significant. It is important to mention that these strategies were supposed to be the final outcome of stage 1 of the model (i.e., realization of a translational problem). After this stage, the translator would a) find the final solution to the translational problem, b) partly find the final solution to the translational problem, c) not yet find the final solution to the translational problem, d) not find the solution to the translational problem, and e) face a problem in the reception of the SL text. Therefore, it could be concluded that Iranian M.A students of translation make use of these five strategies similarly. This is with special reference to English-Persian literary text translation.

APPENDIX A. THE EXACT FREQUENCY OF EACH STRATEGY USED BY EVERY ONE OF THE PARTICIPANTS

	Groups	Group 1				Group 2				Group 3				Group 4				Group 5				
	Subjects	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10	#11	#12	#13	#14	#15	#16	#17	#18	#19	#20	
	Frequency of Each Strategy Used by each Subject																					
Code	Strategies																					Total
1	RR	1	3	1	1	1	3	0	3	1	0	1	4	1	2	3	2	2	4	3	1	37
2	VP	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	4	2	2	2	5	2	1	37
3	SP1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	6
4	SP2	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	5
5	SP a. b. c…	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	9
6	SP Ø	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4
7	SP = Ø	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	1	2	0	12
8	PSL	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	7
9	MSL/MTL	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	6
10	REPHR SL/TL	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2

APPENDIX B. SAMPLE OF DATA COLLECTED FROM THE PARTICIPANTS OF ALL FIVE GROUPS

Strategy Code	Strategy Abbreviation	Strategy Definition	Sample of the Use of Each Strategy
1	RR	Realizing a translational problem	Ye bare digebexoun!
			One time more read!
			Read it one more time!
			Chi?
			What?
			What?
			Akharesh chi bud?
			Its last what was?
			What was the last part again?
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**
2	VP	Verbalizing a translational problem	In qesmateshyani chi?
			This its part means what?
			What does this part mean?
			Alan shouldstdaqiqanchemaa'nieemide?
			Now shouldst exactly what meaning gives?
			Now, what does shouldst exactly mean here?
			In till the conversion of the Jews yaa'ni chi?
			This till the conversion of the Jews Means what?
			What does it mean: till the conversion of the Jews?
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**
3	SP1	Search for a (possible preliminary) solution to a translational problem	Dicshenary o biar.
			Dictionary bring.
			Open the dictionary.
			Cheratudicshenery search nemikoni?
			Why in dictionary search don't you?
			Why don't you look it up in a dictionary?
			Bezarnegahkonambebinamchizirajebeheshtudicshenaryneveshte!
			Let look to see anything about it in dictionary written!
			Let me check if there's anything about this in the dictionary!
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**
4	SP2	Solution to a translational problem	Aqapeida shod!
			Man find did!
			Man! I got it!
			Aha! Pas darasltalmih be enjilbude.
			Aha! So in fact allusion to Bible it was.
			Aha! So, in fact this was an allusion to the Bible.
			Injamaa'niekaraneyerudmide, motmae'nnam!
			Here means Bank River it, Sure am I!
			Here it means the river bank, I' sure about it!
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**
5	SP a. b. c…	Parts of a solution to a translational problem	Rate injayaa'ninerkh, maa'nierotbe ham mide.
			Rate here means fee, means rank also it.
			Rate here means the fee of something, it also could mean rank.
			Marble ye no'esange. Benevis sang.
			Marble one type of stone. Write stone.
			Marble is a kind of stone. You could write stone.
			Him injabarmigarde be ye chizemozakkar.
			Him here referes to one thing male.
			Here, him would probably refer to a male-being.
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**
6	SP Ø	A solution to a translational problem is still to be found (Ø)	Inoyadetbasheakharsar check mikonim.
			This remember you last turn we check.
			Remember this part! We'll take care of it at the end.
			Bezarhala… Baa'dan.
			Let now… After.
			Wait for now… Later we'll do this.
			Jeloshbenevisehtemalantalmih be ye chizibude.
			In front of it write probably allusion to one thing it was.
			Write in front of it that it might have been an allusion to something.
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**

Strategy Code	Strategy Abbreviation	Strategy Definition	Sample of the Use of Each Strategy
7	SP = Ø	Negative (Ø) solution to a translational problem	Marble yani almas!
			Marble Means diamond!
			Marble means diamond!
			Manzouraz echoing sound hamunsedaye rasa hast.
			Intention form echoing sound that voice strong is.
			Echoing sound here means a loud voice.
			Ball hamunmaa'nietoupe football mide.
			Ball that meaning soccer ball has.
			Ball here means a soccer ball.
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**
8	PSL	Problem in the reception of the SL text	Maakenafahmidim In yaa'ni chi!
			We that don't understand this means what!
			We didn't get this part!
			Engarfaqat ye beiteshmundketarjomenashod.
			Seems just one stanza that translated not.
			Seems we were not able to translate only one stanza.
			Nanevisibehtare age motmaa'ennisti.
			Don't write better if sure not you are.
			Don't jog it down if you're not sure about it.
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**
9	MSL/MTL	Monitoring (verbatim repetition) of SL- & TL- text segments	Now let us sport us while we may, Now let us sport us while we may
			Now let us sport us while we may, Now let us sport us while we may
			Now let us sport us while we may, Now let us sport us while we may
			amorous birds of prey, amorous birds of prey, amorous birds of prey
			amorous birds of prey, amorous birds of prey, amorous birds of prey
			amorous birds of prey, amorous birds of prey, amorous birds of prey
			slow-chapped power, slow-chapped power
			slow-chapped power, slow-chapped power
			slow-chapped power, slow-chapped power
Strategy Code	**Strategy Abbreviation**	**Strategy Definition**	**Sample of the Use of Each Strategy**
10	REPHR SL/TL	Rephrasing (paraphrasing) of SL- & TL- text segments and other potential elements of checking solutions and mental organization of SL- TL- text segments	TuenjilumadekeYahudiaruzeqiamatmasihimishan, yaa'nitaqire din midanbemasihiat.
			In Bible comes that Jews day judgment Christian become, means change religion give to Christianity.
			According to The Bible, the Jews change their religions to Christianity right after the Judgment Day happens.
			Chun rude Gang ba rude Humber az ham kheiliduran. YekishtuHende, yekishtuEnglis.
			Because river Ganges with river Humber from each other very far are. One in India is, one in England is.
			Because the Ganges River and the Humber river are so far away from one another. In fact, one is in India, while the other one is in England.

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Sareh Fereidouni has an M.A. in Translation Studies. She has been teaching English for 5 years.

Amin Karimnia is an assistant professor in Applied Linguistics in the Department of English, Fasa Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran. His research interests are in the area of Discourse Analysis, Sociolinguistics, Pragmatics, and Translation Studies.

Gender Representation in Persian Folktales for Children

Nafiseh Hosseinpour

Department of English Language, Falavarjan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Akbar Afghari

Department of English Language, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—the present study was an attempt to add to the understanding of gendered content in Persian folklore stories for children. A deductive content analysis was performed to identify and record gender representation in titles, central roles, and the total number of characters. Traditionally feminine and masculine stereotypes were also investigated based on a coding scheme. The sample included 50 popular Persian folktales for children. The results indicated significant under-representation of females regarding the overall number of characters in the sample. Additionally, there were disparities in the portrayal of the two groups: females were significantly portrayed as being sex object and attractive due to their physical appearance. On the other hand, males were illustrated as being more independent, rational, strong, sexually aggressive, and attractive due to their achievements.

Index Terms—gender representation, gender bias, stereotypes, folktales, female character, male character

I. INTRODUCTION

In the process of socialization, individuals learn to identify themselves as members of various social groups such as gender, social class, race, and ethnicity. One's basic social status is related to gender. Society maintains different sets of normal behavior for women and men and requires them different responsibilities. Then, one's expected opportunities and outcomes in life are strongly correlated with gender. However, many people believe that differential opportunities for males and females are due to biological differences rather than the process of socialization and social forces of gendered stereotypes (Mills, 1956). On the other hand, Sapir (1949) and Whorf (1956) believe that language is the mechanism through which human beings perceive the world. As children grow up, they are exposed to cultural symbols contained in their language. Based on the assumption that language shapes reality, it seems necessary to investigate what children might learn about gender in the process of learning and mastering their language.

According to Gender Schema Theory, individuals develop a sense of femaleness and maleness based on gender stereotypes in their culture and organize their behavior respectively (Bem, 1981, 1983, 1984; Eagly & Wood, 1999). Ideological messages about gender originate from our culture so that people use them as standards of comparison to make judgments about themselves and others so that it can be said that they are practicing ideology (Taylor, 2003). Mechanisms through which children perceive and practice gender stereotypes are stories, cartoons, toys, and textbooks.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Gender bias is the discrimination against people based on their gender rather than other individual characteristics. It is a belief that one gender is superior or more valuable than the other. As Eckert and McConnell-Ginet (2003, p.50) say, "The force of gender categories in society makes it impossible for us to move through our lives in a non-gendered way and impossible not to behave in a way that brings out gendered behavior in others." One aspect of sexism in language is gender systems (masculine, feminine, neuter) and its possible connections with gender differences (male, female, neither) (Wardhaugh, 2010). According to Thomas (2004, p.76) "sexist language represents women and men unequally." Romaine (1999, p. 66) claims that "ideological factors in the form of cultural beliefs enter into gender assignment in grammatical systems." Languages like English, French, and German are grammatically gender-biased; however, this is not the case with other languages like Chinese, Japanese, Persian, and Turkish. It would be difficult to maintain that people who speak these languages are or are not sexist (Wardhaugh, 2010). So, language plays an important role in maintaining and strengthening the sexist values. The relationship between language and gender has been disputed in sociolinguistic studies since 1960s. Liberal feminism has guided most of the research done by feminist social scientists for more than 30 years (Clark & Fink, 2004). Liberal feminism advocates equal opportunities for men and women as well as non-stereotypical portrayal of both (Cameron, 1992). Issues of sexist bias and gender stereotyping have been of great importance in feminist analyses of educational practices for children (Walkerdin, 1991). These studies fall into three main categories of children's literature, media, and textbooks.

A. Gender in Children's Literature

Children's literature has been studied extensively due to its cultural importance as a powerful mechanism through which children learn their cultural heritage (Bettelheim, 1977). Children's books are celebration, reaffirmation and dominant blueprint of shared cultural values, meanings, and expectations (McCabe, Fairchild, Grauerholz, Pescosolido, & Tope, 2011). The development of gender identity and expectations associated with it starts from childhood. Schemas are broad cognitive structures that organize and guide perception; they are often reinforced through social practices (Bem, 1983). Children's books present a microcosm of ideologies, values, and beliefs from the dominant culture including gender ideologies (Taylor, 2003). Reading story books to children over a sustained period of time shapes children's gender attitudes and beliefs or gender schemas (Barclay, 1974; Trepanier-street & Romatowski, 1999).

Over the last 40 years, several studies have looked at children's literature. The Caldecott Medal winners have been a favorite selection to analyze. Early work by Weitzman et al., (1972) found that the Caldecott Medal winner books published between the years 1966-1971 notably under-represented women in titles and central roles. Many replications of this study came to the same conclusion (Clark, Lennon & Morris, 1993; Hamilton, Anderson, Broaddus & Young, 2006; Kortenhaus & Demarest, 1993; McDonald, 2001; Tepper & Cassidy, 1999). However some other studies document improved visibility of women over time (Oskamp, Kaufman, & Wolterbeek, 1996; Williams, Vernon, Williams & Malecha, 1987; Goodens & Goodens, 2001). In addition, males were shown outdoors, adventurous, and playful whereas female characters were portrayed as passive and most often indoors (Crabb & Bielawski, 1994; Tognoli, Pullen, & Lieber, 1994; Weitzman, 1972). Very few studies compared Caldecott winners to other books producing mixed results which may be due to different methodologies applied (Hamilton et al., 2006; Kortenhaus & Demarset, 1993; McCabe et al., 2011; Poarch & Monk-Turner, 2001; Tepper & Cassidy, 1999).

One kind of literature which has originated from popular culture is folklore literature which is closely related to real life of people in that culture. In fact, folk literature is a reflection of social and cultural norms and values. It can be claimed that children's literature arises from folk literature (Haj-nasrollah, 2005). An inclination to children's folk tales has been increased in the 20th century and different individuals like Anjavi (1974), Hedayat (1931), Sobhi, (1949, 1951) have tried to compile those stories which were mostly in oral form. Bayat (2010) investigated women's role in 40 Persian folktales and claims that females were represented as weak and passive. According to Bagheri (2013) who studied 22 popular folk tales, men appeared in central roles more than women. However, Mirfakhraee (2001) claims that although female characters occupied central roles more than men, they were mostly passive. None of the studies so far have focused on Persian folktales for children.

B. Gender in Children's Media

Several studies focused on gender role portrayals in children's media. Based on the constructivist approach and cultivation theory, children's beliefs and opinions about gender norms and behavior may be influenced by role portrayals in the films (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorelli, 1980; Graves, 1999; Martin, Ruble & Szkrybalo, 2002). According to Thompson and Zerbinos (1995) who analyzed 41 different cartoons, these programs had gender stereotyped messages. However, those produced after 1980 showed less stereotypical gender behavior. Leaper et al (2002) conducted a content analysis of gender-stereotyped character portrayals across four genres of TV shows among which educational cartoons showed less gender bias. Disney films have also been shown to depict stereotypical gender portrayal (England, Descartes & Collier-Meek, 2011; Lacroix, 2004; Towbin, Haddock, Zimmerman, Lund & Tanner, 2003; Wiserma, 2001).

C. Gender in Children's Textbooks

Textbooks play an important role in education. Since 1970s, numerous attempts have been made to analyze gender role in textbooks at all educational levels. Based on these studies, the main characters were male (Graham, 1975), and men occupied skilled or managerial positions but females were mostly housewives or workers (Ansary & Babaii, 2003; Arnold-Gerrity, 1978; Behnam & Rahimi, 2010; Coles, 1977; Hall, 2014; Hellinger, 1980; Peterson & Kroner, 1992; Porreca, 1984).Nonetheless, disparities between male and female characters remain in recent years. This message is reinforced in the books, films, and textbooks intended for children. This widespread pattern of female under-representation may contribute to a sense of unimportance among girls. According to Marshall (2004), liberal feminism tends to privilege certain modes of girlhood namely white, western, middle class feminity that excludes other perspectives. So, it is necessary to invite researchers to investigate gendered identity in terms of how global or local sites of experiences and social practice differ.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study was conducted to assess gender bias in popular Persian folklore stories for children given that other researchers have come to the conclusion that children's literature provides them with standard behavioral models of masculinity and feminity (Rachlin & Vogt, 1974; Peterson & Lach, 1990; st. Peter, 1979; Sunderland, 2005). Most research so far has focused on picture books for young children. What is ignored is that children are exposed to lots of oral folk tales much earlier than they start to read books. The following hypotheses were formulated and tested in this study:

1. Male and female characters are equally presented in the title of the stories.

2. Female and male characters occupy central roles equally.

3. There is parity between the overall number of male and female characters.

4. Traditional gender stereotypes are applied equally to represent female and male characters.

IV. METHOD

A deductive content analysis was performed to identify and record gender representation in titles, central roles, and the total number of characters. Traditional feminine and masculine stereotypes were also investigated based on a coding scheme.

A. Sample

The sample included 50 popular Persian folktales for children which were obtained from *Ghesseh-hye Sobhi* (*Sobhi's Stories,* Saleh Ramsary, 2008, vol.1) that is the most inclusive one in this regard. The book consisted of five sections each of which was based the original books compiled by *Sobhi* who was entitled as the *Father of Children* in Iran.

B. Instrument

The coding scheme consisted of 31 items. The first three were the title, main character, and the total number of characters. For the first item, gender in the title was coded as 1) male, 2) female, 3) both male and female, and 4) none (if it was neutral or gender was not identifiable). The second item focused on the number of main characters as well as their gender (female, male, or neutral). The third item was about the total number of male, female, and neutral characters per story. Items 4-31 considered the traditional feminine and masculine stereotypes (see appendix A) based on a coding frame proposed by Macionis (as cited by Taylor, 2003, p. 304).

C. Procedure

Each story was analyzed twice by both researchers (one male, one female) for gender representation in the title, central roles, and overall number of characters in the story based on the coding scheme. Each time the main characters of the story were mentioned to have a stereotypical characteristic or exhibited that trait in their speech, it was coded and tallied. The coding themes were identified as traditionally masculine or feminine based on the past content analysis literature (Taylor, 2003; England et al., 2011; Bayat, 2010, Bagheri, 2013). The intrarater/intracoder reliability was measured with Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. After analyzing 15 stories, the discrepancies between the two raters' counts decreased and a reliability coefficient of .80 was reached. One-way ANOVA and paired t-test were used to analyze the interval data and nominal data was analyzed by chi-square test.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The first hypothesis concerned occurrence of male and female characters in the title of the stories. A chi-square test indicated a significant difference in the proportion of genders in the titles, x^2 (3, n= 50) = 15.12, p = .00. Of the 50 stories studied, 21 titles (42%) were neutral. There were 15 (30%) male and 12 (24%) female titles with a ratio of 1.25:1. Only 2 titles (4%) included both male and female characters. So, the neutral titles outnumbered gendered ones. Therefore, the first hypothesis is accepted that is male and female characters were equally represented in the titles.

With regard to the second hypothesis, there were 80 (52.63%) male, 63 (41.44%) female, and 9 (5.93%) neutral characters occupying central roles in the stories. A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore gender representation in central roles. There was a statistically significant difference between these three groups at p<.05: F (2, 149) =31.18, p=.00. Post hoc comparisons using Scheffe test indicated that the mean score of neutral main character (M=.18, SD=.62) was significantly different from both male (M=1.60, SD=1.10) and female (M=1.26, SD=.98) characters. However, gendered main characters did not differ significantly, so the second hypothesis that is equal representation of male and female characters in central roles was accepted too.

Considering the overall number of characters, there were 226 (51.14%) male, 141 (31.90%) female, and 75 (16.96%) neutral characters in sum. An ANOVA test was carried out to compare these three groups. A significant difference was observed at p<.05: F (2, 149) =24.61, p=.00. Post hoc Scheffe test revealed significant differences between all three groups with the following mean scores: male characters (M=4.52, SD=2.56), female characters (M=2.82, CD=2.04), and neutral ones (M=1.50, SD=1.78). As it is clear, male characters outnumbered both female and neutral ones. So, the third hypothesis was rejected.

For the last hypothesis, main characters were compared based on the traditional feminine and masculine descriptions. Table I shows descriptive statistics and distribution of feminine traits for both female and male characters. As it is shown in table 1, feminine characteristics are arranged from the most frequent to the least one for both female and male characters. Interestingly, traditionally feminine traits were not exclusively applied to represent female characters but also for male ones. To further explore the differences between female and male characters regarding the traditional feminine traits; paired t-tests were conducted for each characteristic separately. Results revealed statistically significant differences (indicated by *) between male and female characters on the portrayal of *sex object* t (49) =6.53, p=.00, and *physically attractive* t (49) =5.46, p=.00. That is female characters were more represented as sex object, and physically

attractive than men. There were also noticeable disparities regarding other traits including *analytical* t (49) = 1.73, p=.09, and *weak* t (49) =1.77, p=.08; however, they were not statistically significant at p<.05.

TABLE I.
DISTRIBUTION OF FEMININE TRAITS FOR FEMALE AND MALE CHARACTERS

Females	Sum	Mean	SD	Males	Sum	Mean	SD
dependent	136	2.72	2.40	emotional	137	2.74	2.38
submissive	130	2.60	2.79	submissive	120	2.40	2.19
passive	119	2.38	2.37	passive	119	2.38	2.34
emotional	118	2.36	2.47	receptive	114	2.28	2.68
physically attractive*	108	2.16	2.41	dependent	106	2.12	1.97
cooperative	106	2.12	2.47	unintelligent	96	1.92	2.83
sex object*	90	1.80	1.94	sensitive	86	1.72	2.14
receptive	88	1.76	2.47	cooperative	82	1.64	1.95
unintelligent	83	1.66	2.93	intuitive	65	1.30	1.55
weak	57	1.14	1.76	content	48	.96	1.71
sensitive	56	1.12	1.68	weak	31	.62	1.22
content	44	.88	1.80	timid	26	.52	1.35
timid	44	.88	1.54	physically attractive*	17	.34	.87
intuitive	42	.84	1.39	sex object*	0	.00	.00

* Significant at p<.05

Table II shows descriptive statistics and distribution of masculine traits for both female and male characters. Amazingly, masculine traits were applied to represent male characters as well as female ones. These traits are arranged in a descending order for both groups. To investigate the differences between the two groups, paired t-tests were carried out for each trait separately. There were significant differences between male and female characters with regard to the following traits: *independent* t (49) =3.94, p=.00, *rational* t (49) = 2.68, p=.01, *strong* t (49) =4.17, p=.00, *sexually aggressive* t (49) =5.5.7, p=.00, and *attractive achievement* t(49)=1.99, p=.05. That is male characters were more represented as being independent, rational, strong, sexually aggressive, and attractive due to achievements rather than females. There was also a remarkable difference between *active* males and females but it was not statistically significant t (49) = 1.91, p=.06.

TABLE II.
DISTRIBUTION OF MASCULINE TRAITS FOR FEMALE AND MALE CHARACTERS

Females	Sum	Mean	SD	Males	Sum	Mean	SD
assertive	106	2.12	2.55	competitive	148	2.96	3.75
dominant	98	1.96	2.39	dominant	139	2.78	2.46
competitive	96	1.92	2.50	assertive	131	2.62	2.94
intelligent	90	1.80	2.33	active	129	2.58	2.77
insensitive	74	1.48	2.41	intelligent	114	2.28	2.68
active	74	1.48	2.24	insensitive	113	2.26	2.27
ambitious	67	1.34	1.93	attractive achievement*	88	1.76	1.90
attractive achievement *	44	.88	1.90	sexually aggressive*	76	1.52	1.93
analytical	42	.84	1.37	analytical	72	1.44	1.79
brave	25	.50	1.31	independent*	67	1.34	1.69
rational*	22	.44	1.01	rational*	62	1.24	1.81
independent*	15	.30	.70	ambitious	61	1.22	1.68
strong*	2	.04	.19	strong*	45	.90	1.44
sexually aggressive*	0	.00	.00	brave	43	.86	1.67

* Significant at p<.05

On the other hand, male and female characters enjoyed rather equal portrayal on other feminine and masculine traits except those mentioned above. This may lead to the conclusion that there is a spectrum of traditional themes and stereotypes which both genders possess. A descendent arrangement of the traits also shows a mixed collection of traditionally masculine and feminine characteristics for males and females (see table 3).

TABLE III.
DESCENDING ARRANGEMENT OF MASCULINE AND FEMININE TRAITS

Females	Sum	Mean	SD	Males	Sum	Mean	SD
dependent	136	2.72	2.40	competitive	148	2.96	3.75
submissive	130	2.60	2.79	dominant	139	2.78	2.46
passive	119	2.38	2.37	emotional	137	2.74	2.38
emotional	118	2.36	2.47	assertive	131	2.62	2.94
physically attractive	108	2.16	2.41	active	129	2.58	2.77
assertive	106	2.12	2.55	submissive	120	2.40	2.19
cooperative	106	2.12	2.47	passive	119	2.38	2.34
dominant	98	1.96	2.39	intelligent	114	2.28	2.68
competitive	96	1.92	2.50	receptive	114	2.28	2.68
sex object	90	1.80	1.94	insensitive	113	2.26	2.27
intelligent	90	1.80	2.33	dependent	106	2.12	1.97
receptive	88	1.76	2.47	unintelligent	96	1.92	2.83
unintelligent	83	1.66	2.93	attractive achievement	88	1.76	1.90
insensitive	74	1.48	2.41	sensitive	86	1.72	2.14
active	74	1.48	2.24	cooperative	82	1.64	1.95
ambitious	67	1.34	1.93	sexually aggressive	76	1.52	1.93
weak	57	1.14	1.76	analytical	72	1.44	1.79
sensitive	56	1.12	1.68	independent	67	1.34	1.69
content	44	.88	1.80	intuitive	65	1.30	1.55
timid	44	.88	1.54	rational	62	1.24	1.81
achievement attractive	44	.88	1.90	ambitious	61	1.22	1.68
intuitive	42	.84	1.39	content	48	.96	1.71
analytical	42	.84	1.37	strong	45	.90	1.44
brave	25	.50	1.31	brave	43	.86	1.67
rational	22	.44	1.01	weak	31	.62	1.22
independent	15	.30	.70	timid	26	.52	1.35
strong	2	.04	.19	physically attractive	17	.34	.87
sexually aggressive	0	.00	.00	sex object	0	.00	.00

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results support an egalitarian gender representation in the titles. This was also the case for central roles which was in line with the findings of Bagheri (2013), Goodens and Goodens (2001), Mirfakhraee (2001), Oskamp et al., (1996), and William et al., (1987). However, there was disparity between the overall number of female and male characters, that is female characters were under-represented compared to their male counterparts. This was similar to the results of previous studies by Hamilton et al., (2006), Mcdonald (2001), Weitzman et al., (1972).

In this study, main male and female characters were analyzed based on traditionally gendered stereotypes. Results indicated that females were more represented as being sex object, and attractive due to physical appearance. Males were more portrayed as being independent, rational, strong, sexually aggressive, and attractive due to achievements. Earlier studies found various results for example England et.al, (2011) found gendered bias toward strong male and female's inclination to physical appearance. On the other hand, women appeared to be weak more than men in findings of Bagheri (2013) and Mirfakhraee (2001). A strong bias toward active male characters was found in Kinman and Henderson (1985), Oskamp et al (1996), and William et al, (1987). Moreover, men were found to be more assertive than women in Oskamp et al (1996), and William et al, (1987).

Whereas there were discrepancies between male and female characters regarding the seven stereotypical gender qualities of sex object, and being attractive due to physical appearance, independent, rational, strong, sexually aggressive, and attractive due to achievements; the other 21 characteristics were applied rather equally to portray both genders. This may inspire an egalitarian view at first sight; however, other social factors might influence the results such as the positive or negative nature of characters, their age, or social class. This necessitates a more in-depth analysis including other social factors as well as gender.

The present study was an attempt to add to the understanding of gendered content in Persian folklore stories for children. The results indicated significant under-representation of females regarding the overall number of characters in the sample. Additionally, females were portrayed as being sex object and attractive due to their physical appearance more than males. On the other hand, males were illustrated as being more independent, rational, strong, sexually aggressive, and attractive due to their achievements.

This study demonstrates that there are both stereotypical and non-stereotypical gender role portrayals in Persian folktales for children. The gendered messages did not consistently verify the taxonomy proposed by Taylor (2003). Both female and male characters were represented by a wide spectrum of traditionally feminine and masculine traits. This may be better explained in further studies taking into account other social factors as well.

APPENDIX. CODING SCHEME

Traditionally Feminine Traits	Traditionally Masculine Traits
submissive	dominant
dependent	independent
unintelligent	intelligent
emotional	rational
receptive	assertive
intuitive	analytical
weak	strong
timid	brave
content	ambitious
passive	active
cooperative	competitive
sensitive	insensitive
sex object	sexually aggressive
attractive due to physical appearance	attractive due to achievement

Source: Taylor, F. (2003). Content Analysis and Gender Stereotypes in Children's Books. *Teaching Sociology, 31* (3), 300-311.

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Nafiseh Hosseinpour was born in Isfahan, Iran. She got her BA in TEFL from Kashan University, Kashan, Iran in 2000. She got her MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, (Khorasgan) Branch, Isfahan, Iran in 2003. She is currently a PhD student in Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch. She has been a faculty member of Islamic Azad University, Falavarjan Branch since 2005. Her research interests are teacher education, teaching and learning strategies, and teaching English as a foreign language, sociolinguistics, and discourse analysis.

Akbar Afghari was born in Isfahan, Iran. He got his B.A. in English Language and Literature from Isfahan University, Isfahan, Iran in 1970. He got his M.A. in English Language and Literature from Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran in 1975. He got his M.A. in Applied Linguistics from Stanford University, USA in 1979. He got his Ph.D. in Foreign Language Education from Stanford University, USA in 1984. He has been the assistant professor of English Department in University of Isfahan. Now, he is the faculty member of Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch. He has published papers in national and international conferences. His research interests include applied linguistics, discourse analysis, testing, and sociolinguistics.

Short-term Working Memory and Chunking in SLA[*]

Fang Xu

School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Song Ling Road, Qingdao, China

Abstract—After elaborating the definition of working memory, the relationship between short-term memory and working memory, chunking in SLA and the relationship between short-term memory and chunking, this paper proves the importance of chunking through the experiment: the students' capacity in fast reading, reading in depth, listening and cloze from experimental group was affected by vocabulary depth through learning the theory of chunking and states how to apply chunking to second language acquisition.

Index Terms—chunking, short-term memory, working memory, SLA (second language acquisition)

I. THE ORIGIN OF WORKING MEMORY

The type of early memory Baddeley stated actually contains a specialized component of LTM but also has some characteristics of STM. This type of memory is named working memory, which is conceptualized as a system that temporarily stores and controls information as we carry out cognitive tasks. Baddeley and Hitch (1974) put forward the evolution of a single short-term memory into working memory.

Working memory can be defined as a type of workbench in which new and old information is constantly being changed, integrated, and changed. Working memory disputes the view that STM is only another "box" in the head – a simple station along the way to either being forgotten or transmitted on to LTM — in which information is not actively stored. It suggests that our working memory is coordinating with activity.

The idea of working memory also disputes the concept that the capacity of STM is restricted to about 7 items. Baddeley proposes that the span of memory is decided by the speed with which we practise information. Concerning verbal material, he assumed that we have an articulatory loop in which we can retain as much information as we can practice in an unchanging duration. Working memory holds a phonological loop that is a rehearsal circuit which retains inner speech for verbal comprehension. There is also a visuospatial scratchpad that is obliged to practise images and maintain them transiently. These processes are controlled by a central executive, which teams attentional activities and controls responses. The central executive behaves much like a supervisor who determines which issues need attention and which will be neglected.

II. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SHORT-TERM AND WORKING MEMORY

The study of short-term memory, the storage of small amounts of information over transient time intervals, constituted a main part of the development of cognitive psychology during the 1960s. The effort to form information-processing models of short-term memory (STM) resulted in some main arguments. Unluckily, solving these issues clearly proved beyond the ability of the methods available at the time, leading to a decrease of interest in STM during the 1970s, and afterwards even to a declaration of its death (Growder, 1982). Nevertheless, as the old idea of STM was losing support, it became integrated within a more complicated framework, working memory (WM), which assumed that the older idea of a unitary store be substituted by a multicomponent system that used storage as component of its function of helping complicated cognitive activities such as learning, understanding, and concluding (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974). Keen interest in WM went on to boost through the 1980s, though with little different focuses on different sides of the Atlantic. During the 1990s, the whole area has achieved a further boost from the development of functional imaging techniques, with the parts of working memory presenting a suitable level of complicatedness for the processing techniques of brain scanning. This development was helped by the very productive relationship between cognitive psychology and the neuropsychology of working memory, which offered hypotheses as to which areas of the brain might be most easily to be engaged in particular tasks, as well as concepts that help the relating of the neuroanatomy to a related cognitive framework.

The traditional concept of STM depicts a more or less passive temporary memory retention, the capacity of which is typically evaluated through the immediate serial recall of lists of information (e.g., Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968). The concept of WM, as well as being chronologically newer, describes a more energetic system, concerned with the temporary retention and transformation of information to support cognitive activity (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974). Although STM and WM unequivocally have a intimate relationship, both referring to brief memory, it has been debated

on both empirical and conceptual bases that there are nevertheless important differences to be made.

III. CHUNKING IN SLA (SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION)

The term "chunking" was invented by George Miller in his classical review of short-term memory (Miller 1956). It is the development of everlasting sets of coherent connections in long-term retention and is the process that forms the attainment of automaticity and fluency in language. Newell (1990) reasons that it is the overarching principle of human cognition (Ellis, 1996):

A chunk is a unit of memory organization, formed by bringing together a set of already formed chunks in memory and welding them together into a larger unit. Chunking implies the ability to build up such structures recursively, this leading to a hierarchical organization of memory. Chunking appears to be a ubiquitous feature of human memory. Conceivably, it could form the basis for an equally ubiquitous law of practice. (p.7)

Its role in language acquisition is reexamined by McLanghlin (1987) and Schmidt (1992) (Ellis, 1996).

Melton made his conclusion on data about the learning of letter or digit sequences: The more stimuli are repeated in STM, the greater the LTM for these items and, in succession, the easier they are to repeat as sequences in STM. But the process is much more omnipresent: If we are concerned with the acquisition of form either as perceptual units or as motor programs for output, then the pervasive quantitative law, *the power law of practice*, applies (Anderson, 1982). The crucial feature in this relationship is not just that performance, typically time, increases with practice, but that the relationship is concerned with the power law in which the amount of improvement declines as a function of improving practice or frequency. Anderson (1982) demonstrated that this function is relevant to a variety of tasks, involving, for instance, cigar rolling, syllogistic reasoning, book writing, industrial production, reading inverted text, and lexical decision. As for language acquisition, Kirsner (1994) demonstrated that lexical recognition processes (for both speech perception and reading) and lexical production processes (articulation and writing) are controlled by the relationship $T=BN^{-\alpha}$, where T is some measure of latency of response and N is the number of trials of practice. Newell (1990; Newell & Rosenbloom, 1981) formally showed that the following three assumptions of chunking as a learning mechanism could result in the power law of practice: (a) People chunk at a changing rate: Every time they get more experience, they establish extra chunks; (b) performance on the task is faster, the more chunks that have been built that are linked to the task; (c) the structure of the environment hints that higher level chunks happen again more rarely (Ellis, 1996).

IV. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STM AND CHUNKING

That STM retains seven units no matter whether the type of data concerned seems contradictory. Evidently, a string of words holds greater information content than a string of letters. Nonetheless, by examining the amount of information recall (at least according to letters), it is evident that more information is remembered in the latter condition than in the former. Miller (1956b) provided an explanation as to how items are coded in STM. He assumed a model of memory in which seven units of information could be stored. Individual letters symbolized individual pieces of information, and, as such, each letter would occupy a slot. The letters that made up a word, nevertheless, were "chunked" into one word unit, so that each of these word units also took up one slot in STM. Thus the expanded capacity (in terms of numbers of letters) of STM was accomplished through the coding of letter sequences into word units. So, even though our brief memory capacity seems to be restricted to seven units of information, chunking (or coding single units into larger units) greatly increases our capacity. For Miller, this kind of linguistic recoding appeared to be "the very lifeblood of the thought process." At any rate, chunking is crucial because it provides an explanation of how so much information is dealt with through STM, which, if limited to seven units, would create a bottleneck in the information-processing sequence.

The ability of STM to manipulate a vast amount of information, then, is helped by our ability to chunk information. Nevertheless, chunking cannot happen until some information in LTM is stimulated. Our wide-ranging knowledge can put a structure on apparently unrelated material once a match happens between the incoming items and their LTM representation. The capacity of STM, then, may be restricted to seven units, but the density of information in a unit can change to a very great extent.

V. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

The participants in this study were 112 non-English majors placed into two classes, from Qingdao University of Science and Technology. 56 students were in controlled group; while 56 students were in experimental group. The subjects had nearly the same experience in English learning. They had had six years of English learning experience in the secondary school and were in the first term of their freshman period at the time when this study was conducted. They were all students of rubber. In addition, they used the same textbooks. Therefore, they shared the same environment and experience, and their ages were nearly the same, ranging from 18 to 21. In the second semester, 56 students from experimental group will be taught theory of working memory, short-term memory and chunking besides

being taught the textbooks while 56 students from control group were only taught the textbooks (Xu, 2009).

B. Instruments

1. Pretest

The listening material for the pretest was a listening model test from Public English Test System 3 (PETS-3). It contained 2 parts. They were all multiple-choice questions. (See Appendix 1) (Xu, 2009).

The pretest was a part of language proficiency test. Thus it was administered simultaneously by two teachers and the author herself in the language lab. Before the test began, the testers told the subjects in Chinese: "You are going to listen to the tape. The tape will be played once from the beginning to the end. Please listen to the tape and write down the answers on the answer sheet. The test will last 25 minutes." After the instruction, the testers handed out test papers to the subjects. When time was up, the testers required the subjects to stop at once and hand in their answer sheets (Xu, 2009).

According to the scores of the pretest, the 112 subjects were divided into 3 groups of high, medium and low listening proficiency levels. The high listening proficiency level, with scores from 80-90, contained 3 subjects. Scores from 60 to 79 were considered the medium listening proficiency level, including 63 subjects. The low listening proficiency level consisted of 46 subjects, the scores ranging from 30 to 59 (Xu, 2009).

2. Post-test Questionnaire

After pre-test, the testers distributed the questionnaires to the testees. The requirements were read aloud to the testees in Chinese as follows: "This questionnaire is to investigate whether the content of the test is familiar to you or not. As you may notice, on it are some multiple-choice questions. Please read them carefully and tick the best answer." (Xu, 2009).

The post-test questionnaire for the test (see Appendix 2) involved multiple-choice questions constructed to investigate whether the subjects had done the pretest listening comprehension test or not. If someone ticked A (Yes), or B (most of them), he/she was thought to have done the material before, while if he/she ticked C (few of them) or D (Never), he/she was thought to have not done the material before. The post-test questionnaire indicated that no one chose A, B and C for the pre-test—120 students ticked D, demonstrating that all the subjects were unfamiliar with the test (Xu, 2009).

3. Lectures on working memory, STM and chunking

In the first semester, 112 students used the same textbooks. They had the same lessons. In the second semester, 56 students from experimental group will be taught theory of working memory, short-term memory and chunking besides being taught the textbooks while 56 students from control group were only taught the textbooks. In the experimental group, the author lectured on the theory of working memory, STM and chunking; taught testees how to recognize chunks and how to memorize set phrases, proverbs, collocation, etc..

The theory of working memory, STM and chunking was also applied to listening comprehension and speaking. Thus, testees grasped how to chunk in their listening comprehension.

The testees were required to hand in their compositions after each unit by using comprehensible phrase, patterns, collocation as much as possible. At the same time, they were asked to recite much more proverbs related to the textbooks.

4. Two final examinations

The first semester and the second semester final examinations were analyzed. They included: vocabulary, cloze, fast reading, reading in depth and listening tests. The examination pattern is the same as College English Test Band 4(CET Band 4). All these tests were objective questions and were calculated by the computer.

Vocabulary test mainly examined the testees' depth of vocabulary knowledge (DVK). According to Levelt (1989) and Nation (1990), vocabulary's syntax and semantic characteristics are main contents of vocabulary depth.

C. Results

1. English proficiency prior to the experiment

All the statistical procedures were completed with the help of the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS), a package of computer programs for statistical purposes. The results were analyzed according to the students' first semester final examination, including fast reading, listening, reading in depth, cloze and vocabulary. The mean score for each part and mean scores of total scores are displayed in **Table 1**. From **Table 1**, we can see the mean scores of cloze and vocabulary from students in control group are little bit higher than students in experimental group while the mean scores of fast reading, listening, reading in depth and total scores from students in experimental group are higher than students in control group. The results from T-test show that the scores of students' each part and total scores reveal no significant difference from two groups (Sig.>.05). Therefore, we think that the students from two groups prior to the experiment are similar in English proficiency.

TABLE 1
MEAN SCORE, STANDARD DEVIATION AND T-VALUE

	Control Group n=56		Experimental Group n=56				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
fast reading	5.8393	1.17205	5.8571	1.35417	.075	110	.941
listening	9.3929	3.27347	9.5357	3.50565	-.223	110	.824
reading in depth	20.7143	4.86066	20.7143	5.31794	.000	110	1.000
cloze	6.0625	1.34185	5.8661	1.71488	.675	110	.501
vocabulary	8.3214	2.91146	8.1607	2.66135	.305	110	.761
total score	49.9732	10.06904	50.0446	10.03416	-.038	110	.970

2. Results after the experiment

After one semester's experiment, the results were analyzed according to the students' final examination in the second semester, including fast reading, listening, reading in depth, cloze and vocabulary. The mean score for each part and mean scores of total scores are displayed in **Table 2**. From Table 2, we can see that mean scores of fast reading, reading in depth, vocabulary, listening, cloze and total scores from students in experimental group are higher than students in control group. The results of T-test show that the students' scores reveal a significant difference from two groups (Sig.<.05), that is to say, the students from experimental group have stronger capacity in fast reading, reading in depth, vocabulary, listening and cloze than the students from control group.

TABLE 2
MEAN SCORE、STANDARD DEVIATION AND T-VALUE AFTER THE EXPERIMENT

	Control Group		Experimental Group				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
fast reading	4.9821	1.58104	5.8214	1.40269	-2.972	110	.004
listening	11.2857	3.88804	13.2500	3.50714	-2.807	110	.006
reading in depth	17.8571	4.29557	19.5357	4.39820	-2.043	110	.043
cloze	3.2768	1.81639	3.8750	1.23307	-2.039	110	.044
vocabulary	7.5268	2.34214	8.7143	1.92792	-2.929	110	.004
total score	44.9464	8.08572	51.1607	7.66759	-4.173	110	.000

3. Correlation Analyses

TABLE 3
CORRELATION ANALYSES FROM THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP   N=56

		fast reading	listening	reading in depth	cloze	vocabulary	total score
fast reading	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig.(2-tailed)						
listening	Pearson Correlation	.113	1				
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.408					
reading in depth	Pearson Correlation	.193	.220	1			
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.155	.104				
cloze	Pearson Correlation	.108	.226	-.122	1		
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.429	.094	.372			
vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	.307*	.359**	.351**	.285*	1	
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.021	.007	.008	.033		
total score	Pearson Correlation	.414**	.709**	.729**	.258	.631**	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000	.054	.000	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From **Table 3**, it can be seen that vocabulary is positively correlated to fast reading, reading in depth, listening, cloze and total score respectively. They are p= 0.021; p= 0.007; p= 0.008; p=0.033; p= 0.000. Variables' sig values are all less than .05, which shows that the students' capacity in fast reading, reading in depth, listening and cloze from experimental group was affected by vocabulary depth through learning the theory of chunking.

VI. MAKING USE OF CHUNKING IN SKILL BUILDING

The idea of chunking is mainly due to the work of Miller (1956) who differentiated between bits and chunks of information. Chunking is the process of arranging and grouping bits of information into familiar units or chunks. The capability to chunk information helps an individual to memorize more and gives a means of using the information that is finally held in his or her memory. More importantly, chunking improves "the amount of information we can process" (Miller, 1956: 95). Miller also assumes that we recode information very often in an attempt to absorb new information with existing knowledge. Thus, the process of chunking also appears to function as a mechanism for emphasizing information. For example, as we learn new information, if it seems well known or if it fits into a current category, we

are likely to memorize and link the new information to the current category (Higham, 1997; Gobet & Simon, 1996b). This permits more powerful connections to be made by the learner. (Bodie, Graham D., & Powers, William G., & Fitch-Hauser, Margaret, 2006)

Chunking functions as both a triggering device and as a code-building device for our memory. The triggering aspect of chunks depends on the strength of a chunk or group of associative chunks. Since chunks are organized in a hierarchical style, the most memorable will be made up of information that is most connected to the individual effort to learn (Servan-Schreiber & Anderson, 1990). Code-building is often achieved through replication of chunks or relevant information that lets the participant to remember chunks for future use. As students establish a system of codes (i.e. chunks) patterns begin to occur with which they are able to associate with other chunks and finally develop larger and larger stores of information (Koch & Hoffmann, 2000). At last, students are capable of building skills that are more complicated than simple rules yet easy enough to be retained in memory improving skill in a given capacity. (Bodie, Graham D., & Powers, William G., & Fitch-Hauser, Margaret, 2006)

Another point that must be contained in any effective instructional effort is repetition. Just as our memories are arranged and retained in chunks, they are emphasized through repeated exposure to an ides, concept or expertise. In one aspect chunking offers a way for repetition to the extent that the chunks are developed as bits of information and put or combined into a chunk. This is especially obvious in observations of a variety of ritualistic behaviors, such as many compulsive behaviors (Graybiel, 1998). Although message production and reception are not ritualistic behaviors, it is obvious to everyone that we are concerned in these acts often enough (see Wolvin & Coakley, 1996) that much of the skills considered vital for communicative competence are carried out in chunks. As we learn more skills, we seem to establish cognitive and neural sequences that may help with the use of these expertise. (Bodie, Graham D., & Powers, William G., & Fitch-Hauser, Margaret, 2006)

APPENDIX 1.   TAPE SCRIPTS FOR PRETEST

Listening Test
NAME_____ CLASS_____NO_____
Directions**:**
You will hear a selection of recorded materials and you must answer the questions that accompany them. There are two parts in this section, Part A and Part B..
Part A
You will hear 10 short dialogues. For each dialogue, there is one question and four possible answers. Choose the correct answer--A, B, C or D. You will have 15 seconds to answer the question and you will hear each dialogue ONLY ONCE.
1. Why can't the woman get the size she wants?
   [A] Because the white shirts are too long.
   [B] Because she wants a special style.
   [C] Because the size she wants is not available.
   [D] Because all the leather shoes are sold out.
2. What is the woman's reply?
   [A] She knows Professor Arnold has come.
   [B] She thinks Professor Arnold has checked in.
   [C] She is sure that Professor Arnold has arrived.
   [D] She doesn't know whether Professor Arnold arrived.
3. How much will the woman pay for the chairs?
   [A] $150   [B] $85   [C] $115   [D] $170
4. When does the conversation take place?
   [A] On Friday [B] On Thursday [C] On Tuesday [D] On Monday
5. Why is the man calling the campus newspaper office?
   [A] Because he wants to buy a walkman.
   [B] Because he wants to contribute an article to the newspaper.
   [C] Because he wants to advertise a sale.
   [D] Because he wants to buy a newspaper.
6. What did the woman say about the weather?
   [A] It was very cold.
   [B] It snowed in December.
   [C] It snowed all winter.
   [D] The temperature was below zero.
7. Where did the conversation take place?
   [A] In a shop   [B] At the office
   [C] In a friend's home   [D] In the hospital
8. What does the man think about Jane.

  [A] She will quit her job.
  [B] She will be sorry if she quits her job.
  [C] She will not quit her job.
  [d] She will not accept his present.
9. What is the man's profession?
  [A] A waiter   [B] A cook
  [C] A salesman   [D] A shop-assistant
10. What could be concluded from the conversation?
  [A] Jim is a poor typist.
  [B] Jim types better than David.
  [C] David is a better typist.
  [D] Jim is too busy to help.

Part B

You are going to hear four conversation or talk, before listening to each conversation or talk, you will have 5 seconds to read each of the questions which accompany it. After listening, you will have time to answer each question by choosing A, B, C or D. You will hear each conversation ONLY ONCE. Mark your answers in your test booklet.

Questions 11--13 are based on a conversation about robots.

11. What kind of robots is Paul going to discuss?
  [A] The ones that walk and talk like human being
  [B] The ones that are used in industry
  [C] The ones that are built to resemble human beings
  [D] The ones that are often shown in the movies
12. Which of the following is NOT important for robots to perform a task?
  [A] A head shaped like a human being
  [B] A computer brain
  [C] Signals in the form of electrical impulses
  [D] A claw
13. What is NOT the advantage of the new robots?
  [A] They can perform different tasks.
  [B] They are easy to reprogram.
  [C] They increase productivity.
  [D] They perform a single operation at a time.

Questions 14--17 are based on the following dialogue.

14. Where is the Bank of English created?
  [A] At the University of Buckingham
  [B] At the Oxford University
  [C] At the Cambridge University
  [D] At the University of Birmingham
15. How many words are there in the Bank of English?
  [A] 120 million   [B] 112 million   [C] 7 000   [D] 20 million
16. Which of the following is NOT mentioned in the use of the Bank of English?
  [A] The way ordinary people use English
  [B] The way language is developing
  [C] The way people communicate
  [D] The way psychologists treat the mentally diseased people
17. What does Professor John Sinclair say about one of the findings coming out of studies?
  [A] "Ex" and "former" are often associated with "lover".
  [B] "Her lover" is more often used than "his lover".
  [C] English language is used wittily and lively.
  [D] Ordinary people use English language more frequently.

Questions 18--21 are based on a talk by Mary Raffety.

18. At what point in the semester does this talk take place?
  [A] At the beginning   [B] In the middle
  [C] Near the end   [D] During the final exam
19. Which of the following is NOT the duty of the lab instructor?
  [A] Taking care of the students' safety.
  [B] Grading their lab notebooks.
  [C] Helping set up the experiments.
  [D] Giving them lectures on physics.
20. Why does the speaker tell the story about Newton?

[A] To illustrate what a great scientist he was.
[B] To explain why lab equipment must be cleaned carefully.
[C] To emphasize the need for proper precautions.
[D] To show how theoretical chemistry has advanced.
21. What will the students probably do after the talk?
[A] Leave the room.
[B] Hand in their lab notebooks.
[C] Go to Professor Kaplan's office.
[D] Work on an experiment.

Questions 22--25 are based on a conversation between Irene, a secretary and her boss Mr. Jerome S. Buck. They are talking about Buck's trip to Europe.

22. How long will the sales conference in London last?
[A] From Tuesday to Wednesday
[B] From Tuesday to Thursday
[C] From Wednesday to Thursday
[D] From Thursday to Friday
23. What are they going to discuss at the meeting on Friday morning?
[A] The trade in Scotland
[B] The industry in Scotland
[C] The new factory in Scotland
[D] The site of their new plant in Scotland
24. Where is Mr. Buck going to see Mr. Chambery, the European Manager?
[A] In London   [B] In Paris   [C] In Rome   [D] In Madrid
25. Why must Mr. Buck be back on Friday?
[A] It's his daughter's birthday.
[B] It's his son Sharon's birthday.
[C] It's his wife's birthday.
[D] It's his friend Sharon's birthday.

APPENDIX 2.   POST-TEST QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate whether you have done the listening material of pretest or not. You are required to choose the answer that best suits you to complete the following statements.

I have done the listening material before.
A. Yes   B. Most of them
C. Few of them   D. Never

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Fang Xu was born in Qingdao, China in 1970. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from PLA University of Foreign Languages, China in 2004.

She is currently an Associate Professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include Psycholinguistics and Applied Linguistics.

Ms. Xu's paper "Short-Term Memory, Listening Comprehension and Input Hypothesis" won the third prize from China English Language Education Association**.**

EFL Learners' Attitudes toward Writing Instruction Based on Critical Language Awareness

Abdorreza Tahriri
University of Guilan, Iran

Mansour Shabani
University of Guilan, Iran

Siavash Zokaei
University of Guilan, University Campus 2, Iran

Abstract—**The present study sought to investigate the attitudes of upper-intermediate EFL female learners toward writing instruction based on critical language awareness (CLA). Sixteen participants were selected based on their performance on a quick placement test (QPT) and a writing task. Three instruments namely, QPT, a researchers made opinionnaire and semi-structured interview were used to elicit the data. The findings of the opinionnaire and semi-structured interview revealed an overall positive attitude toward CLA-based writing class. This study might be of help to writing teachers, and textbook and syllabus designer in that they can bring critical language awareness into consideration in EFL context.**

Index Terms—**attitude, critical language awareness, writing, EFL**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the post-method epoch of language teaching and learning, the importance of psychological factors has been argued to be inevitable. The psychology of language encompasses postulated views from behaviorism to humanism to cognitive psychology and social constructivism. Williams and Burden (1997), in a comprehensive book on social constructivism, designed their framework via four interrelated concepts of teacher, learner, task, and context, in which, constructs such as motivation and attitude were argued to have a direct influence on teacher and learner. Among the aforementioned constructs, attitude has been defined by Gardner (1980) as "the sum total of a man's instinctions and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, fears, threats, and convictions about any specified topic" (p.267); hence, this specified topic can be the mother tongue or other languages (Crystal, 1997).

It is axiomatic that students with high degree of positive attitude or feeling toward a particular language or skill will show better results in their language education lifespan. Accordingly, Kara (2009) stated that positive attitude will result in positive behavior; therefore, better learning is the outcome of their enthusiasm on solving the problems through acquired skills. Rich literature exists on the attitudes of learners such as Al-Kahtany (1995) who investigated the views in relation to different languages, or Gan's (2004) study which probed the relationship between attitude and learning strategies. In order to alleviate some possible difficulties regarding the language studies, we have to put the focal attention on the skills as well. Among the skills of English language, writing is reputed to be difficult; the complexity of this skill might be due to different factors such as the distance between reader and writer, absence of suprasegmental features, body posture or cultural factors (Rivers, 1981; Chastain, 1988; Brown, 2001; Richards & Renandya, 2002). This complexity might affect the attitudes of the learners in relation to language and language learning as Gardner (1985) emphasized the role attitude plays on enthusiasm of learners toward language learning.

To faint the negative attitude of the learners, practitioners came with different approaches and techniques for writing skill. For instance, Ismail, Hussin and Darus (2012) recommended online writing programs as a compensatory solution. Notably, the aforementioned instrument might not be applicable in various circumstances where economical factors play an important role. In this respect, critical language awareness (henceforth CLA) may come in handy. This approach was designed by Fairclough in early nineties to empower learners in resisting, revising, or at least making learners aware of discriminations, inequalities, injustice, and conventions that became norms by authority in educational contexts (Fairclough, 1992). The existing shortcomings and limitations as crux of the matter provoked the present researchers to use a new approach namely, CLA in an upper-intermediate EFL writing classroom to investigate the attitudes of the EFL learners toward their writing skill. It seems that understanding manipulative thoughts of writers might not only be interesting but also worthy of consideration in language related studies. This study aimed at

investigating the attitudes of learners as a main objective by unveiling hidden meanings in comprehension and production of texts through the tenets of CLA in EFL writing class.

This study might be of help to teachers who seek the interest of their learners as a pinpoint of their teaching in writing classes by the strands of critical studies. CLA might trigger the learners' attitude with the aim of obtaining writing proficiency when they find themselves active participants. In addition, CLA might come into account for institutes' supervisors, curriculum designers, test makers, and other stakeholders as a motivational phenomenon. Textbook designers might take an advantage of this study to give some hints for unveiling the hidden ideological assumptions in the adapted texts.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Attitude has numerous facets and applications in different contexts via new approaches or technology in the realm of language learning and teaching. Gardner (1980) has classified attitude into specificity, generality, social and educational. The first two categories, as the terms are self-explanatory, were exemplified by attitude toward learning French or learning a foreign language which is a good indicator of the construct to be investigated. The other subsequent categories referred to attitudes to educational context which encompasses teachers, classrooms, classmates, beside attitudes toward social factors of target language, respectively. Later on, Dornyei, Csizer and Nemeth (2004) determined the modifying factors in language attitude and motivation such as gender differences, geographical variation and language instruction in Hungary. For the gender, the result of their survey indicated significant difference for languages such as English, German, and Russian in which boys were more into them compared to feminine Italian and French languages (Dornyei, Csizer, & Nemeth, 2004). They also found that there was tendency of positive attitudes in relation to foreign languages by the geographical situations. Dornyei, Csizer and Nemeth (2004) used these two components of attitude as the main variables along with some others to scrutinize the attitudes of non-learners and active learners, in which, the result indicated higher scores of active learners against non-learners.

Other criterion that became the vogue these days in language-related studies is the usage of technology in the classroom. Although, non-probability of its application in all contexts might be considered as a weakness but Ushida (2005) probed the motivation and attitude in relation to online learning of Spanish and French which revealed a satisfactory positive attitude. The aforementioned study beside Kern (1995), Warschauer (1996), Ismail, Hussin and Darus (2012) and Tahriri, Danaye Tous and Movahedfar (2015) highlighted the importance of technology in language learning which results in higher motivation and positive attitude of learners.

In educational contexts of leaner-centeredness, the focal attention is chiefly on the attitude of learners; however, the teachers' view toward learning, learners and different methods play a crucial role. Salema (2015) probed the attitude of the teachers and the students through mixed methods in learner-centered pedagogy in two separate contexts of private and public schools. Salem's result revealed positive attitudes of teachers and learners along with the significant difference between attitudes of public and private teachers as a major outcome of that study. Apart from the attitude of teachers toward different methods, their perceptions on different skills were reported to have a tremendous effect on education system as a whole. In what follows, other more pertinent studies on attitudes toward writing skill will be reviewed.

Jones (2007) sought to investigate the negative views in the direction of male writers through interview and detailed observation. In a nutshell, the findings not only revealed a weak piece of evidence to support males as weak writers but also the structures of their writings were more similar to successful writers. Other than gender, Cunningham (2008) found that the quality of the literacy classrooms had a significant impact on learners' attitude to writing and reading.

The attitude of pre-service teachers in addition to possible effects of age, educational background, proficiency level and gender have been probed in EFL writing by Aydin and Basoz (2010); in brief, the result of their study indicated positive attitudes of teachers and significant correlations between background and proficiency level. Moreover, age didn't play a significant role unlike gender; females were reported to have more positive attitudes to writing; hence, it is inline with the studies that positioned males as less enthusiastic in writing compared to females (Browne, 1994; Barrs & Pidgeon, 2002).

Farrah (2011) conducted a research on the attitudes in relation to collaborative writing and the result revealed positive attitudes in relation to writing; additionally, female students favored it more than their male counterparts did. In addition, Erdogan (2013) explored the effect of the creative drama on teachers' writing and their attitude via mixed methods. The creative drama was found to be influential in terms of improving writing skill and positive attitudes of the learners. Teachers also reflected positive attitudes when they considered themselves writer or writing teachers (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013).

Various educational methods lead teachers to play various roles. By the same token, when we discuss the teacher's role in different circumstances, it reminds us of the power of teachers in the classrooms; CLA tries to empower and emancipate learners against possible transmissible attitudes of power sources such as teachers, textbooks, peers, etc. (Clark, 1992).

Kumaravadivelu (2006) characterized teachers as providers and manipulators in language-centered methods, as facilitators or interdependent participants in learner-centered methods, and as authorities (teacher-fronted classes) in learning-centered methods. Accordingly, teachers might apply banking model instead of problem-posing model,

proposed by Freire (1970), in all the mentioned methods or even post-method classes. In other words, they might consider themselves as an authority or sources of power. Sahragard, Razmjoo and Baharloo (2014) conducted a study on the awareness of the teachers in terms of critical pedagogy (CP) and their standpoints regarding the implementation of CP in the classrooms through mixed methods. Their findings revealed that participants were aware of CP which might fetter the impact of considering themselves as the only one in the class. They also found that PhD students reflected better familiarity compared to MA students and their views favored CP but there were degrees of mismatch between their views and aspects of CP. Moreover, they found class size, top-down system and time as major barriers in bringing CP into practice. Equally important, the findings of Anari and Zamanian (2014) determined a positive significant relationship between teachers' effectiveness and critical pedagogical attitudes. Kumaravadivelu (2006) divided vantage points towards language into three aspects of language as system, language as discourse and language as ideology. Putting aside the system and discourse, ideologies in the English textbooks along with the attitude of the learners in two separate contexts and awareness of teachers toward those ideologies were examined by Abdollahzadeh and Baniasad (2010); in this study, the prevalent ideologies in the commercial textbooks (Spectrum and True to life) were about sexism, consumerism and hegemony. In order to empower learners and teachers in unveiling ideologies, Rashidi and Safari (2011) introduced a model for EFL materials development through which practitioners should bring into consideration aspects such as process, culture, teachers' role, and expectations along with the learner roles. To have a better grasp on the implementation of CP in language skills, Barjesteh, Nasroulahi and Esmaili (2014) checked out the contribution of critical literacy approach in writing ability and the attitude of the learners towards writing classroom. The results showed a significant progress in writing after the treatment and positive attitude to critical awareness. In the respect of critical studies, Chaparro (2014) argued that CLA is a must in educational context vis-à-vis the use of pluralism and transnationalism as resources of learning. Concomitantly, the importance of CLA and its significant effect on raising critical thinking and motivation of learners have been highlighted.

The present study seeks to answer the following research question:

- What are the upper-intermediate EFL learners' attitudes toward CLA-based instruction?

III. METHOD

This study took an advantage of mixed-method design (QUAN-Qual) and triangulation to provide a clear picture of various vantage points of the issues under the investigation. To achieve this goal, two research tools, namely, an opinionnaire and interview were used the details of which will be discussed in the following sections.

A. Participants

The target participants of this study included 16 upper-intermediate EFL female learners who were studing English for general purposes in a private institute located in Tehran province, Iran. Using convenience sampling, the study was conducted on adult female EFL learners with the mean age of 24 years. In addition, the background of the learners was examined to check their familiarity with CLA in order to decrease its possible effect on their attitude.

B. Instruments and Materials

 Oxford Quick Placement Test (version 2)

This test was administered to determine the participants' level of language proficiency. It consists of 60 vocabulary and grammar items. The participants were required to answer the test items within 60 minutes as standard allocated time.

 Independent five-paragraph essay

The researchers administered a five-paragraph essay within 30 minutes to assure the requirements. The rubric used for evaluation of the participants' essays was the rubric of City University of New York (CUNY); as such, the internal consistency of the rubric was already confirmed. The inter-rater reliability was also established for this instrument.

 Opinionnaire and semi-structured interview

Best and Kahn (2006) distinguished questionnaire from opinionnaire while enquiring attitude; that is why, opinionaire was used in this study. A 4-point Likert scale opinionnaire (strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree) was developed based on the existing literature.

The content validity of the opinionnaire was confirmed after several amendments by two experienced faculty members who examined it thoroughly. To ensure the participants' understanding of the items, a translated version was given to the participants. To check the appropriateness of the translation, its validity was ensured through back-translation. The SPSS (version 21) was used to check the reliability of the instrument through Cronbach's alpha. The alpha reliability coefficient was assessed through a pilot study (n=9) which indicated a reliability coefficient of .736. An acceptable level of reliability, as indicated by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliot (1994), is .7.

The second instrument used to validate the participants' responses to the opinionnaire was a semi-structured interview. This type of interview was selected because of the flexibility and control as discussed by Nunan (1992).

 Textbook

Participants received the texts of the Mosaic paragraph review and essay development 1(2008) which were modified. In terms of ideological orientations. The framework of Fairclough (1989) which embraced the analysis of text,

interaction and social action was used to unveil those ideologies. This part was chiefly centered on their reading; to bring CLA approach into writing, the principles of Ivanic and Simpson (1992) was taken into account.

C. Procedure

A pilot study was first conducted on nine EFL students similar to those who took part in the main phase of the study. The shortcomings of the study were determined and the steps were checked. Then, the level of the participants was determined through a placement test and independent essay writing. Next, they received the instruction of Mosaic essay writing during 12 sessions. This instruction encompassed Fairclough's (1989) and Ivanic and Simpson's (1992) models. After the experiment was over, the EFL learners received the opinionnaire to checkmark the items in 30 minutes. The confidentiality of the responses and the anonymity of the respondents were guaranteed. After the completion of the opinionaire, 20-minute interviews were held on the subsequent days. During the interview, the information was jotted down by a colleague while the participants were interviewed by another. It is worthwhile to mention that instruction of CLA, the interview, and the opinionnaire were all piloted to check the blind spots in advance.

D. Data Analysis

In accordance with the nature of this study, the analysis of the collected data was done in two separate dimensions. For the opinionnaire, the SPSS (version 21) was used to calculate means and standard deviations of the items. For interview, the transcribed responses of the interviewees were scrutinized through content analysis. To this end, the the pertinent themes were summarized, categorized, and reported.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In order to find the upper-intermediate EFL learners' attitudes toward CLA-based instruction, the opinionnaire along with the semi-structured interview were administered. The opinionnaire included fourteen items. The following table presents the means and standard deviations for the items of the opinionaire (see Table I).

TABLE I.
ITEM STATISTICS FOR THE ITEMS OF THE OPINIONNAIRE

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1) I felt good when I analyzed the texts before I started to write.	2.81250	.655108	16
2) The analysis of texts was an interesting activity for me.	2.75000	.447214	16
3) I found the interpretation of texts motivating.	2.93750	.680074	16
4) The interpretation of texts in group-work activity was boring.	2.56250	.892095	16
5) The class discussions on authors' thoughts made me feel stressful.	2.56250	.629153	16
6) I found it interesting not to limit myself to the thoughts seemingly expressed in the texts.	2.68750	.704154	16
7) I enjoyed the activities for text analysis.	2.75000	.774597	16
8) Categorization of connecters was an interesting activity.	3.00000	.516398	16
9) I feel I can write better in a course like this.	2.75000	.856349	16
10) I can have a better self-understanding in writing.	3.06250	.680074	16
11) Familiarity with the choice of words (for example, use of police officer instead of policeman) was useful.	3.18750	.543906	16
12) I enjoyed understanding the beliefs of writers through analyzing grammatical points.	2.68750	.793200	16
13) I enjoyed taking the responsibility of my beliefs in my writing.	2.43750	.813941	16
14) This writing class was less exhausting and boring class like my other experiences in writing.	2.93750	.680074	16

The participants expressed their highest positive attitude towards items (8, 10, and 11) that investigated the participants' viewpoint with respect to "categorization of connecters" (*M*= 3.00), "having a better self-understanding in writing" (M= 3.06), and "the usefulness of familiarity with the choice of words" (M= 3.18). In contrast, the lowest mean rank was reported for item (13). Item 13 asked the respondents about their opinion with respect to "taking the responsibility of their beliefs in their writing" (*M*= 2.43).

With respect to the diversity with which the participants rated the items of the opinionnaire, items (4 and 13) had the highest variation (SD≥ .80). Item four evaluated the participants' attitude in relation to "the interpretation of texts in group-work activity" (SD=.89). On the other hand, item (2) reflected the least degree of variance implying that the respondents were highly consistent in their responses to this item (SD≤.50). Item two appraised their reflection towards "the analysis of texts as an interesting activity" (SD=.44). The following figure illustrates the participants' responses to the opinionnaire.
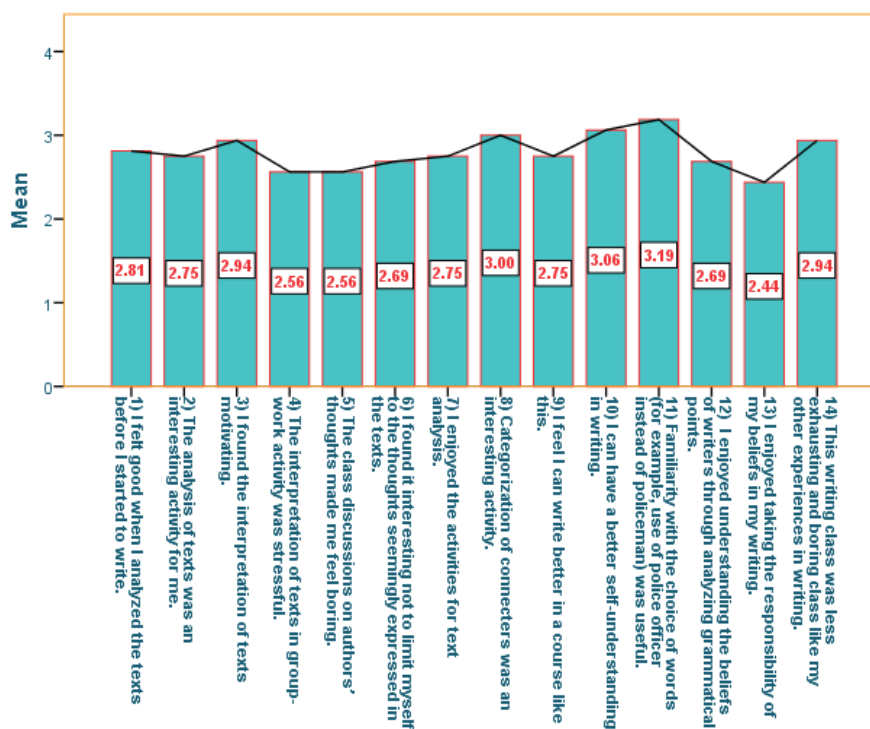
Figure 1. The Participants' Attitudes towards Critical Language Awareness (Opinionnaire)

Consistent with the result of the opinionnaire, the interests of the participants (n=16) regarding different aspects of the course were sought through the semi-structured interview.

Firstly, most of the participants (14 out of 16) found the presentation of the lessons interesting, in that, the course instructor tried to respect the participants' viewpoints. This has been driven from Wallace's (1992) view who "wished to make it clear that a range of interpretations were acceptable but that they would need to be argued through and defended against rival interpretations of the group" (p.70). Consequently, this attitude might improve the self-efficacy of the participants and positively influence their writing performance (Williams & Takaku, 2011; Hashemnejad, Zoghi, & Amini, 2014). Some of the unedited excerpts of the interviews are as follow:

He didn't tell me about what I want to write and it was difficult for me first, but it helped me to learn better and feel I can write myself because he taught me how to support my opinion . My other experience was writing in the way my teacher told me not the way I want to write.

I liked it because he respects my opinion and taught me how to support it. Also, I liked it because I could finish the task myself. He explained his interpretation and asks ours. He didn't confirm or reject it. It was interesting because I was responsible for my writing and he only guided me.

In my opinion, it was very interesting because my point of view was different from his point of view but he didn't stop me. He asked me to support my point of view and I searched a lot to do that and finally support it. But my other class teacher changed my mind.

Secondly, the area of their interests over the texts analysis and the discussed materials was sought. The obtained data shed light on the eagerness and the interest of the participants on the analysis, unveiling the hidden intentions of the author and different types of activity. Twelve participants found the activities difficult but interesting.

I enjoyed the division of texts into separate section for understanding hidden intention of the writers. I think it is good for reading skill too. Many things are clear for me that I didn't think of before. I want to use this model in other skills too.

Before I learn how to analyze the essay, I couldn't easily understand text and writers' wants but now I can do it. It is time-consuming but when I put elements of the texts away from each other, I can understand the intention of the author and it is cool.

Finally, the overall feelings of the participants about the course and their learning was sought. Mostly, they found the course motivating compared to other writing class experiences. Moreover, they enjoyed the deviation from biased language along with the possible impacts of the vocabulary and grammar on the meaning. Some statements of the participants are given below:

My other writing classes were extremely boring because I had to copy what my teacher wrote but the text analysis and my writing analysis made it interesting. I learned to think about the words that I want to use or grammar that I want to use.

This course was very good. I enjoyed when I looked at my writings and other writings from another person's eyes. I understood how words and grammar influence our writing and the readers of our writing. I prefer to think more about the words that I want to use. I enjoyed preventing offensive words for other races and gender.

Putting forward the critical approaches toward writing skill, the findings of this study are in line with those of Barjesteh, Nasroulahi and Esmaili (2014) and also support the findings of Aydin and Basoz (2010). Kara (2009) argued that the positive attitudes lead to positive behavior; the participants of this study showed positive behavior to writing skill. If CLA can be considered as a new approach like technology, this study is also in line with that of Ushida (2005). Moreover, as item 6 showed, the participants did not restrict themselves to the thoughts expressed in the texts. If they restrict themselves to the book or teachers' talk, they would probably gain good scores but they preferred their own thoughts rather than a good score.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This study was carried out to investigate the attitudes of the participants toward CLA-based writing. To attain this goal, 16 participants took part in this study and their views were investigated through an opinionnaire and semi-structured interview. The results showed an overall positive attitude towards CLA-based writing which might play a crucial role in syllabus designing for writing course. The categorization of connecters, better self-understanding in writing, and the usefulness of familiarity with the choice of words were the items with the highest positive attitude. As already indicated, most of the participants found the CLA-based instruction interesting as the diversity of viewpoints was respected. This is indicative of the noticeable impact of CLA in improving EFL learners' writing skills. As a result, writing teachers can take an advantage of CLA their classes to overcome the existing barriers of writing. Curriculum and syllabus designers should also pay more attention to CLA as a potentially influential approach to writing instruction.

VI. SUGGESTIONS

This study was an attempt to check the attitude of the learners toward CLA-based writing class. Other studies could be conducted toward other skills, namely, speaking, reading or listening. Since the present study was conducted on EFL female participants, the same study can be carried out on EFL male learners; in which, the main variable of the study become gender. The number of participants can be added to improve the level of generalizability. Because of the vastness of critical studies, the view points of other scholars such as van Dijk or Wodak can be used as the treatment of the study.

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Abdorreza Tahriri is currently an assistant professor at the English Department of University of Guilan. His major research interests are differentiated instruction and L2 acquisition.

Mansour Shabani is currently an assistant professor at the English Department of University of Guilan. His major research interest is syntax.

Siavash Zokaei is currently graduated student of TEFL. His research interest is critical language awareness.

On the Effect of Online Peer Knowledge Sharing on Iranian EFL Teachers' Professional Development

Hossein Alimirzaee

English Department, Torbat-e Heydarieh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Torbate Heydarieh, Iran

Hamid Ashraf

English Department, Torbat-e Heydarieh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Torbate Heydarieh, Iran

Abstract—Online peer knowledge sharing is an effective way which can help English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers improve their profession. The present study sought to explore the effect of online peer knowledge sharing on Iranian EFL teachers' professional development. To achieve the goals of this study, 50 Iranian EFL teachers were selected from Khorasan Razavi, Iran, based on their score in Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) adopted from Pirtaj's unpublished thesis (2013). Then, they were randomly assigned to experimental (N=25) and control (N=25) groups. During the course lasting for 16 sessions, participants in the experimental group shared their knowledge (content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge) on the internet and the control group received the instructions being the same as those shared among participants in the experimental group without any knowledge sharing. Finally, at the end of the course posttest was administered which was the same as the pretest. Results of t-test confirmed that online peer knowledge sharing was significantly effective in improving Iranian EFL teachers' professional development. Pedagogically, the present findings help EFL teachers, students, and curriculum designers.

Index Terms—on-line learning, peer knowledge sharing, professional development, content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

A community of practice encourages its members to accept their duty for sharing the information and solving the problems, to grow their own identities in the community, and to promote the ideas to unify their community (Yang, 2009). On the assumption that reflective practice is "the relationship between an individual's thoughts and action and the relationship between an individual teacher and his or her membership in a larger collective called society" (Leo, as cited in Yang, 2009, p. 12), for teachers, a community of practice is viewed as a suitable substitute for reflective practice (Yang, 2009).

Professional development simply implies as any progress achieved by EFL teachers through their career. Jansem (2014) asserts that after discussing the concept of professional teachers by Shulman (1987), it is teachers' knowledge base which illuminates the research in the area of education. Shulman (1987, as cited in Jansem, 2014, p. 252) introduced such categories of knowledge base as content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts, and that of educational ends, purposes, and values. Among the mentioned categories, Shulman stresses on pedagogical content knowledge, explaining that this subset of knowledge represents the sphere where other categories intertwine. Afterwards, teachers' knowledge base was highlighted in not only teacher education programs, but also research (Jansem, 2014).

Content knowledge revealed in Jansem's study (2014). It is a type of language knowledge, including both language elements and skills. Jansem (2014) explained about the appropriate method of writing a topic sentence, pronouncing multi-syllable words, and identifying the main idea of a reading text represented the teachers' content knowledge. O'Neal Ringler, and Rodriguez (2008) state that "the role of teacher preparation programs has traditionally been to prepare future teachers with content knowledge, understanding of cognitive, psychological, and linguistic development, as well as the current and historic pedagogical theories and methodologies"(p.1). Chen Wei (2006) enumerates characteristics of teacher's knowledge structure as being purposeful, creative, comprehensive, open, advanced, diverse, and dynamic.

Because the employment of technology in EFL classroom is necessary, EFL teachers must "technologize" their professional knowledge, and to incorporate technology in their Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) (Liu, Liu, Yu, Li, & Wen, 2014). The concept of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) was introduced by Koehler and Mishra (2008, as cited in Liu et al. 2014, p. 683). They explained that the three major knowledge types

including content, pedagogy and technology should be interacted into the teacher's professional knowledge to develop TPACK which is necessary for successful teaching to digitally intelligent students.

According to Koehler and Mishra (2008, as cited in Liu et al. 2014, p. 683) TPACK includes three types of knowledge. The first component of TPACK is Technological Knowledge (TK), which plays a key role in teachers' professional knowledge system. The second component is Technological Content Knowledge (TCK). Content knowledge is the "formal knowledge", widely referred to by educators as "the knowledge base" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, p. 254, as cited in Liu et al. 2014, p. 683). For EFL teaching, English language itself is the content knowledge (Liu et al. 2014). When teachers integrate technology into this type of knowledge as TCK, they have a "deep understanding of the manner in which the subject matter (or the kinds of representations that can be constructed) can be changed by the application of technology" (Koehler & Mishra, 2008, p.16, as cited in Liu et al. 2014, p.682). The third component is technological pedagogical knowledge (TPK). An experienced teacher differs from a novice one since the former has more information about how to employ various teaching models and strategies and how to promote classroom communication (Nilsson, 2008, as cited in Liu et al. 2014, p. 684).

The application of Computer and Internet, recently, has paved the way for sharing information among the users. Different EFL teachers tend to employ different teaching skills and techniques. With the emergence of computer and its application in EFL contexts, EFL teachers can easily communicate with their professional counterparts in order to share their knowledge and experiences. Beneficial and effective teaching experiences of some EFL teachers can be exploited as new input of teaching by the rest of EFL teachers hence improving their teaching knowledge and skills.

According to Salmon (2002) networked learning communities provide opportunities for collaborative learning to develop via the sharing of teaching experiences, resources and the meaningful construction of knowledge. Similarly, Liaw, Chen, and Huang (2008) believe that the collaborative learning that improves the performance of learn, both for group knowledge sharing and the construction of individual knowledge, was supported by web-based technology.

Levin and Wadmany (2008) explain that educators and instructors can use technology for such purposes as formal training, time and practice and professional development opportunities. Teachers may refuse to employ technology because of two reasons: they might not be aware of the ease in which technology can be employed to facilitate learning, and they may not be aware of the fact that technology offers a much easier method of designing curriculum, planning lessons, galvanizing students and tracking students' achievement. Therefore, the ways to incorporate technology should be shared with instructors and instruction should be offered if necessary (Graham, Tripp & Wentworth 2009).

The present study aims at exploring the effects of online peer-knowledge sharing with a problem solving strategy on Iranian EFL teachers' professional development. To do so, two groups, experimental and control, were selected and the treatment was implemented. The objective of implementing the treatment was to prepare qualified EFL teachers for new era in which technology-based education will replace traditional one.

A. Statement of the Problem

The problem which arises here is related to problems EFL teachers encounter when presenting instructional materials in language classrooms. They need to enhance their teaching knowledge through effective ways. Knowledge sharing through yahoo-group can be viewed as an effective way to help EFL teachers benefit from their colleagues' experiences and knowledge. The present study aims at creating an environment in which EFL teachers are provided with an opportunity to discuss with their colleagues and share their knowledge (content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge).

With the introduction of web-based contexts, EFL teachers can share their teaching information, knowledge and experiences regarding their teaching profession. Through such interactions and discussion, EFL teachers can benefit from their colleagues' knowledge and experience and try to improve their teaching. Teachers' sharing of their practices through blogging promotes collaboration and sharing of knowledge that benefits both the teachers and their students (Zandi, Thang, & Krish, 2014).

B. Research Questions

The following research question was posed by the researcher which were addressed throughout the study:
1. Does online peer knowledge sharing have any significant effect on Iranian EFL teachers' professional development?

C. Research Null-hypotheses

The following null-hypothesis was formulated:
H01: The online peer knowledge sharing does not have any significant effect on Iranian EFL teachers' professional development.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Pedagogical Knowledge (PK)

Mullock (2006) defines teacher's pedagogical knowledge base as the "accumulated knowledge about the act of teaching, including goals, procedures, and strategies that form the basis for what teachers do in classroom" (p.48). Badawi (2009) states that "pedagogical knowledge refers to teachers' knowledge about the basic teaching/learning

matters such as learning theories, teaching approaches, curriculum designs, evaluation techniques, and relevant managerial issues."(p.15). Lenhart (2010) defines it as any theory or belief regarding the process of teaching and learning which a teacher has, hence, influencing that teacher's teaching. Pedagogical knowledge refers to the ability to design and provide necessary instruments and materials; the skills related to time allocation for each task and classroom management; implementation, solving the problems, and teaching strategies; questioning techniques; and assessment (Lenhart, 2010).

B. Content Knowledge (CK)

Koehler and Mishra (2009) believe that CK is teachers' knowledge about the subject matter to be learned or taught. The content included in middle school science or history is different from what is included in an undergraduate course on art appreciation or a graduate seminar on astrophysics. They consider it as an important factor for teachers. According to Shulman (1986, as cited in Koehler & Mishra, 2009), CK covers a wide spectrum of knowledge, e.g. knowledge about concepts, theories, ideas, organizational frameworks, knowledge of evidence and proof, as well as established practices and approaches toward developing such knowledge. Knowledge and the nature of inquiry have great differences between fields, and teachers should understand the deeper knowledge fundamentals of the disciplines in which they teach (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). For instance, in the case of science, CK covers knowledge regarding scientific facts and theories, the scientific method, and evidence-based reasoning. Regarding art appreciation, the knowledge includes knowledge about art history, famous paintings, sculptures, artists and their historical contexts, as well as knowledge about aesthetic and psychological theories for evaluating art (Koehler & Mishra, 2009).

C. Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)

It is viewed as a type of teaching knowledge according to which the expert teacher is different from the subject expert mastering only the content knowledge in a subject area (Seleim & Mahmoud, 2013). According to Lin, Wu, and Wang (2012) coining the term, PCK, contributes to effective teaching since it is associated with the capability of representing and formulating content in the class; that is, PCK relates to how to teach.

Various terms employed for describing teachers' PCK consider teacher knowledge as going beyond what the training or the disciplinary content has offered and consist of a qualitatively different body of knowledge including experience (Azma & Talebinejad, 2012). As Koehler (2011) argues, PCK differs from the knowledge of a disciplinary expert and also from the general pedagogical knowledge shared by teachers across disciplines. PCK relates to representation and formulation of the concepts, pedagogical techniques, knowledge about what makes concepts difficult or easy to learn, knowledge about students' prior knowledge, and theories of epistemology. It also entails knowledge about teaching strategies integrating suitable conceptual representations to address learner difficulties and misconceptions and to enhance meaningful understanding (Seleim & Mahmoud, 2013).

D. Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK)

As Mishra and Koehler (2006) argue, with the emergence of digital technology dramatic changes occurred in routines and practices in most fields of human work. Advocates of technology in education often "envisage similar dramatic changes in the process of teaching and learning. It has become clear, however, that in education the reality has lagged far behind the vision" (pp.1017-1018).

It is claimed that a conceptually based theoretical framework regarding the relationship between technology and teaching can transform the conceptualization and the practice of teacher education, teacher training, and teachers' professional development (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Traditional classrooms employ different forms of technology, like textbooks, overhead projectors, typewriters in English language classrooms, and charts of the periodic table on the walls of laboratories. Recently, the more common employment of technology applies to digital computers and computer software, artifacts and mechanisms which are new and not yet a part of the mainstream. These modern technologies are combination of hardware and software including computers, educational games, and the Internet and the numerous online applications (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). According to Rashtchi and Hajihassani (2010, as cited in Saeedan, Ashraf, & Motallebzadeh, 2015, p. 325), integration of technology into language pedagogy is a reality in the 21st century and the Internet and weblogs are viewed by educators and teachers as effective tools which involve a vast amount of information from different sources.

Such reasons as a fear of change and lack of time and support can cause some teachers to not welcome the modern technologies; however, it is a fact that they are here to stay (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Employing technology for pedagogy of particular subject matter could be expected to remain relatively static over time. Therefore, teachers could concentrate on the variables associated with content and pedagogy and make sure that technological settings would not change too dramatically over their career as a teacher (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Technological knowledge, according to Mishra and Koehler (2006), is an important part of overall teacher knowledge.

E. EFL Teachers' Knowledge Sharing

Beyer apud Golombek (1994, as cited in Valencia, 2009, p. 77) has a statement which best demonstrates the significance of research in teachers' knowledge sharing: Research in which teachers share their stories may result in 'a humanizing and democratizing of knowledge'. EFL teachers appear to differ regarding the knowledge they have, the

methods they use and so on. Knowledge sharing can provide them with an opportunity of becoming aware of various teaching methods applied in EFL contexts. EFL teachers can also take benefits from their counterparts' teaching experience and knowledge. Knowledge can be shared through discussions, meetings, and conferences. These methods of knowledge sharing can take place in two contexts: real or virtual. Real contexts include real-world environments where an EFL teacher can establish face to face interactions with his/her counterparts. Virtual contexts, on the other hand, include web-based environments where EFL teachers can interact with each other outside real-world environments through electronic lines (E-lines). Specifically, teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning are expanded through the dialogue between them hence stressing the significant role of sharing knowledge in professional development (Akyel, 2000; Kraft, 2002, as cited in Mede, 2010).

F. Related Empirical Studies

Yang (2009) in an article entitled "Using Blogs to Enhance Critical Reflection and Community of Practice" investigated the employment of blogs as a reflective platform in the training processes of EFL student teachers, who were learning to teach English for future employment in Taiwan. It was found that the student teachers actively discussed teaching theories and their implications via blogs. The participants were reflective, and some critically mirrored on their thoughts and made valuable comments; they also viewed technology as a useful platform for reflecting and communicating with each other. According to Yang's findings (2009), blogging provided student teachers with a more flexible time and space to reflect and discuss Posting messages did lead to a kind of inquiry that accentuated critical reflection. Moreover, a community of practice has a tendency to encourage every member to take responsibility for information-sharing and problem-solving, to develop their personal identities in the community, and to promote unification of the community. Language teachers can employ blogs to ask students questions, share perspectives and ideas, and encourage learners to discuss issues and express their concerns. Learners can collaborate with others to establish a specific topic of mutual interest (Yang, 2009).

Chou (2011) investigated educational practices associated with teaching practices, home teacher practices, administrative practices, and service learning from teaching blogs constructed by student teachers and online feedback. Chou's findings showed that (1)student teachers' teaching demonstration can improve the socialization strategy of 'job proficiency'; (2) teaching blog can offer student teachers' dialogues and feelings about 'goals and values' in the virtual community; (3) student teachers' cognitive sources for socialization strategies of 'school culture' is based on peer student teachers, mentor teachers, and internet communities; and (4) socialization strategy of 'role regulation' is based on teacher certification and school expectations. It was found that student teacher interactions with mentor teachers, peer student teachers, and students in practice schools affect the outcome of socialization (Killeavy & Moloney, 2010; Ward & McCotter, 2004, as cited in Chou, 2011, p. 190).

Cruz-Yeh (2011) used an online teacher professional development (oTPD) framework which integrated the principles of cognitive apprenticeship and informal mentoring in online environments to facilitate 1) the delivery of oTPD during a period of time, 2) the transfer and construction of teacher knowledge and skills that would directly influence teachers' practice and students' learning, and 3) the social interaction and collaborative attempts of international teacher-experts in the oTPD process. The results obtained from Cruz-Yeh's study indicated that teachers participating in this study took advantages from oTPD through the construction of new knowledge and skills.

Liu (2012) explored the effect of implementation of an online video-case discussion community on development of professional development among pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' in Taiwan. It was revealed that the pre-service and in-service teachers appeared to play different roles in discussing teaching video-cases online, respectively. Yet, what they paid attention to in the teaching events shifted from different to similar focuses after attending online video-case discussion for about one year. According to these teachers, the community provided them with professional learning opportunities, although several issues might prevent some of them from attending the discussion frequently (Liu, 2012).

Chen (2012) investigated the effect of telecollaboration between pre-service and in-service teachers on their two-way professional development. Their findings indicated the enhancement of the participants' reflective thinking through sharing knowledge and learning experiences-occupationally, pedagogically, and academically-with each other. Chen's study (2012) emphasizes on a need-based and task-based collaboration mechanism through a web-based professional community.

Seleim and Mahmoud (2013) employed a studio-based learning classroom to improve students/teachers' PK and explored the effect of this treatment on their PCK. Having analyzed the data, the researchers found that the treatment group significantly outperformed the other group on the post- administration of both the test and the rubric. In addition, the proposed studio-based learning classroom was found to enhance the PK of the targeted topics of the experimental group. Therefore, they arrived at the findings that it had a greater effect on enhancing the targeted PK topics for the experimental group compared to the traditional lecturing for the control group. Also, students/teachers' PK and developing their PCK were directly correlated (Seleim & Mahmoud, 2013).

Utilizing the theory of community of practice and through observing blog activities of teachers, Zandi, Thang and Krish (2014) explored the effects of blogging on teacher professional development. Their paper presented some preliminary findings indicating that teachers' sharing of their practices within the communities enhances collaboration and sharing of knowledge which benefits both the teachers and their students. It is based on a study involving seven

Iranian EFL teachers who shared their experiences and knowledge within the community through blogging for one semester. It was found that blogging had a positive effect on teacher learning within a community of practice. Zandi et al. study was framed by the theory of Community of Practice (Cop). The phrase 'community of practice' was invented by Lave and Wenger in 1991. In fact, (CoP) is a model developed in line with social constructivism's point of view on sharing experiences within a community (Zandi et al. 2014).

Saeedan, et al. (2015) explored effect of weblogging on Iranian English teacher professional development. The participants included 50 ELT teachers who were assigned to control and experimental groups. Both groups received the same treatment. However, participants in experimental group received it via the blog while the control group received it in the pamphlet format. The results of t-test indicated the experimental group's outperformance in the posttest.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants and Setting

For the purpose of this study, the researcher selected a sample consisting of 50 EFL teachers in Khorasan Razavi, Iran based on their scores in Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) adopted from Pirtaj's unpublished thesis (2013). Both males (N=44) and females (N=6) took part in this study. Their age ranged from 27 to 50. Their teaching experience ranged from 7 to 28 years. Only participants with BA and MA academic degrees were chosen. These participants were randomly assigned to control (N=25) and experimental (N=25) groups through which two females were placed in experimental and four in control group.

B. Instrumentation

In order to measure the effects of online peer knowledge sharing with a problem solving strategy on Iranian EFL teachers' professional development, the following instrument was employed:

C. Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT)

To assess the participants' knowledge in EFL teaching, this test containing 45 items was given to a population (N=90) of EFL teachers in Khorasan Razavi, Iran. The test was adopted from Pirtaj's unpublished thesis (2013) at Islamic Azad University of Torbat-e Heydarieh Branch, Iran.

The original test developed by University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (2004) includes 80 multiple-choice items which was then modified and shortened to 45 items by Pirtaj (2013). The test was validated by two language professors in Torbat-e Heydarieh. The test reliability was recalculated by using SPSS to make sure that it was reliable. Coronbach's Alpha observed for the test was relatively high (α=.71).

Those participants whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean, were selected as the subjects of the current study. The same test which was used as the pretest was given to the participants of both groups at the end of the study as the posttest (Appendix A).

D. Procedure

First a population of EFL teachers in Khorasan Razavi (N=90) became aware of the purpose of the present study. Then 90 EFL teachers announced their contentment. They received TKT and their scores were calculated. Those participants whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the participants of the present study. Therefore, 50 homogenous EFL teachers were selected as participants of this study. This test was administered via internet which was available on a special link. The participants were allowed to respond in a limited time (40 Min). In the next phase of the study, these participants were randomly assigned to control (N=25) and experimental (N=25) groups. Since the major purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of online peer knowledge sharing with a problem solving strategy on EFL teachers' professional development and knowledge, participants in experimental group created accounts in the yahoo group created by the researcher. The group was managed by the researcher and participants were asked to perform their online discussions on specific time. Based on an agreed schedule, all members had to be on line in two occasions per week to discuss the issue offered by the researcher (issues such as use of short stories based on EFL students' proficiency, use of internet and smart-boards in language classrooms, importance of establishing oral communications in EFL settings, error treatments, class management, CLT, professional issues). The treatment lasted for eight weeks (16 sessions).

Since the present study concentrated on EFL teachers' knowledge sharing on the net, issues assigned by the researcher ranged from content and pedagogical to pedagogical content knowledge as well as professional knowledge.

The first issue regarding the use of CLT in EFL classrooms was introduced by the researcher in the first session. Implementation of technological tools was another issue which was assigned by the researcher and participants in experimental group shared their information and experience, if any, with other members of this web based community.

During the study, these participants themselves took part in online discussions relevant to content, pedagogical and pedagogical content knowledge and some solutions to teaching problems were proposed (Appendix B & C). The researcher had access to this online information to collect his required data. These participants shared their teaching experiences, teaching information, various teaching methods and approaches and educational aids they have utilized in their classrooms (with a focus on content, pedagogical and pedagogical content knowledge). They gave their comments

regarding the efficiency of teaching and learning process and their teaching problems following every session. It is necessary to mention that, the participants were allowed to write as many relevant and appropriate comments as they liked in each session.

Participants in control group did not have any kind of peer knowledge sharing (with and without internet). They received instructions regarding teaching methods, approaches, educational aids and so on provided by the researcher. For example they received instructions on CLT, technological tools, teacher versus student centered classrooms, class management, and error corrections (Appendix E). Finally, at the end of the course (16 sessions within two months), Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) was administered to participants of both groups.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Test of Normality

In order to ensure the normality of data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted. The results are shown in Table 2. Null hypothesis of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicates the normality of data. If sig (p-value) is greater than 0.05 then the null hypothesis is accepted which confirms the normality.

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

		Pretest	Posttest
N		50	50
Normal Parametersa	Mean	22.00	26.88
	Std. Deviation	6.667	7.044
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.162	.082
	Positive	.162	.082
	Negative	-.080	-.058
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.146	.578
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.144	.892
a. Test distribution is Normal.			

As Table 1 shows p-value for all data is greater than .05 (α=.144 for pretest; α=.895 for posttest), therefore the null-hypothesis is accepted which confirms the normality of data.

B. Results of Independent Samples T-test for Pretest

In order to check participants' performance at the outset of the study, this test was conducted through which means of two control and experimental groups in TKT pretest were compared (Table 2).

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PRETEST

Group	N	M	SD	df	t	Sig (2-tailed)
Control	25	22.20	6.72	48	.21	.83
Experimental	25	21.80	6.74			

As Table 2 shows there is not any statistically significant (df=48; t=.21, sig=.83>.05) difference between control (N=25, M=22.20; SD=6.72) and experimental (N=25, M=21.80; SD=6.74) groups, thus confirming the participants' homogeneity at the start of the study. In order to ensure the study legitimacy it was necessary to select participants whose teaching knowledge was close to each other.

C. Results of Independent Samples T-test for Posttest

In order to compare participants' performance in the posttest, independent samples t-test was conducted again. Data are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR POSTTEST

Group	N	M	SD	df	t	Sig (2-tailed)
Control	25	24.64	6.62	48	2.35	.023
Experimental	25	29.12	6.85			

As Table 3 shows, participants in experimental group (N=25, M=29.12, SD=6.85) significantly (df=48, t=2.35, sig=.023<.05) outperformed those in control (N=25, M=24.64, SD=6.62) group in posttest. Accordingly, the null-hypothesis proposed by the researcher indicating that "The online peer knowledge sharing does not have any significant effect on Iranian EFL teachers' professional development" was rejected.

The findings indicated positive effects of establishment of virtual contexts in which EFL teachers can share their knowledge on a variety of issues related to teaching knowledge, teaching methods and techniques, teaching problems and so on. Teachers' views on language teaching and learning are expanded via the dialogue between them hence stressing the significant role of sharing knowledge in professional development (Akyel, 2000; Kraft, 2002, as cited in Mede, 2010, p. 38888).

Through the course the participants in the experimental group showed interest in attending online discussions and forums. Similarly, Yang (2009) found that the student teachers actively attended discussions held on teaching theories and their implications through blogs. Yang (2009) showed that the participants were reflective, and some critically mirrored on their thoughts and made valuable comments; they also viewed technology as a useful platform for reflecting and communicating with each other.

The present finding is in agreement with what found by Cruz-Yeh (2011) after employing an online teacher professional development (oTPD) framework which integrated the principles of cognitive apprenticeship and informal mentoring in online contexts. It was manifested that teachers participating in this study took advantages from oTPD through the construction of new knowledge and skills.

Similarly, Zandi et al. (2014) explored the effects of blogging on teacher professional development. It was manifested that teachers' sharing of their practices within the communities improves collaboration and sharing of knowledge which benefits both the teachers and their students.

V. Conclusion and Implications for EFL Teachers

The present study concludes that the employment of online peer knowledge sharing had significant effects on Iranian EFL teachers' professional development. Through discussions held on the net, the participants of the present study shared their knowledge in a variety of teaching areas which helped them improve their teaching profession. Discussion has been found as a facilitator in increasing knowledge. Latif (2010) found that the discussions can play a key role in attaining knowledge about other teachers' teaching methods and strategies and integrating the effective ones into their own classrooms. Since the discussions were managed by the researcher, the topics were mainly about three types of teaching knowledge, e.g. content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge.

The present study was unique in that it was the first one which introduced the online forums and contexts where EFL teachers chatted concerning different areas of teaching. The employment of such virtual contexts was effective and motivated the participants to update their knowledge before the session. Similarly, Al-Madani and Allaafiajiy (2014) discussed the Saudi development framework for training its teachers on skills and knowledge regarding Information Communication Technology and found it helpful in knowledge dissemination, knowledge transfer, knowledge sharing, and knowledge production. It was found that teachers' continuous training and the employment of modern technology devices do not only support country's manpower but also strengthen the country's economy (Al-Madani & Allaafiajiy, 2014). Therefore, it can be concluded that use of modern technological tools, in general, and internet, in specific, will result in positive outcomes in the field of EFL teacher training, which can improve EFL students' academic achievement, which can finally have positive effects on all dimensions of the society and teachers.

EFL teachers can participate in online peer knowledge sharing in order to communicate with their colleagues on a variety of issues related to teaching career. Through such discussions they can enhance their teaching knowledge and learn how to behave in their class. since the present study covered a vast area of teaching profession including pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge, EFL teachers can be provided with a lot of teaching instructions and guidelines which can facilitate and improve their teaching profession. They need to employ internet technology as a teaching and learning tool in EFL contexts. It is not surprising if we claim that in future technology will replace traditional classrooms and virtual educational contexts will be created. Therefore, EFL teachers need to take steps to prepare themselves for this modern technological life.

A. Implications for EFL Students

EFL students can benefit from the findings. They can employ computer as an effective and friendly tool in order to facilitate their learning process. They need to learn about technology and consider internet as an informative source which can provide them with valuable information and knowledge.

B. Implications for Syllabus Designers

EFL syllabus designers need to emphasize on use of technology and virtual contexts in EFL programs. They should develop materials which require EFL teachers and students to use modern technology. For example, incorporation of computer-based tasks in text-books provides EFL classrooms with an opportunity of experiencing different computer programs. In addition, they should provide EFL teachers and students alike with instructions on how to integrate technology into language classrooms.

APPENDIX A. TEACHING KNOWLEDGE TEST (TKT)

In the name of God, the exalted

Dear participant;

This test which is part of an MA thesis schedule is exclusively designed, validated and standardized to investigate if online peer knowledge sharing affects Iranian EFL teachers' professional development or not.

***Read instruction for each section (i-vii) and then write your answers in the answer sheet provided"**

Time to answer: 40 Minutes

5 Points	**(i)** For questions 1-5, look at the following terms for language skills and three possible descriptions of the terms. Choose the correct option A, B or C. Mark the correct letter (A, B or C) on your answer sheet. **1.Summarising** is _____ . A. explaining a text in detail. B. writing the last sentence of a text. C. giving the main points of a text. **2.Interactive listening** is _____ . A.listening, responding and giving feedback. B.listening for detail, mood and attitude. C.listening and identifying word stress and linking. **3.Oral fluency** is _____ . A.speaking without making any mistakes. B.speaking naturally without hesitating too much. C.speaking without considering the listener. **4.Paraphrasing** is _____ . A. using phrases to say something instead of using complete sentences. B. connecting sentences together in speech or writing by using conjunctions. C. finding another way to say something when you cannot think of the right language. **5.Scanning** is _____ . A. reading a text quickly to get the general idea. B. reading a text quickly to find specific information. C. reading a text quickly to identify the writer's attitude.
6 Points	**(ii)** For questions 6-11, match the general advice on motivation with the techniques for encouraging motivation listed A-D. Mark the correct letter (A-D) on your answer sheet. You need to use some options more than once. **Techniques** A. Encourage learner autonomy. B. Find out what students think. C. Make your feedback positive and constructive. D. Build variety into your teaching. **Advice** **6.** Listen to student feedback using a class 'suggestion box' or a short questionnaire. **7.** Don't always do the same kinds of things in the classroom. Try new activities and change activities in each lesson. **8.** Think about how you tell students about their progress. How can you praise or encourage them instead of just giving marks? **9.** Choose activities that different students can respond to in different ways, for example, making posters or writing poems. **10.** Give comments on students' work which are helpful and enable them to feel a sense of progress. **11.** Train students to use reference resources to help them study successfully on their own.

7 Points	**(iii)** For questions 12-18, match the following learners' comments to the descriptions of learner preferences listed A-H. Mark the correct letter (A-H) on your answer sheet. There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Comments

12. 'Most of the time should be spent doing grammar exercises.'
13. 'I prefer working with other students to speaking to the teacher in front of the class.'
14. 'I really like knowing how language works.'
15. 'Rules just confuse me – give some examples and let me work it out myself.'
16. 'Why should I listen to other students' mistakes? The teacher should talk most of the time.'
17. 'I just want people to understand what I mean. I don't worry if I make mistakes.'
18. 'I like deciding for myself what and how I learn.'

Preferences

A. This learner wants explanations of grammar rules.
B. This learner enjoys explaining language to other students.
C. This learner enjoys practicing language in pairs and groups.
D. This learner enjoys doing language practice that focuses on accuracy.
E. This learner doesn't want to work with other students.
F. This learner enjoys learning independently.
G. This learner focuses on communicating.
H. This learner doesn't want the teacher to explain grammar.

6 Points	**(iv)** For questions 19-24, match what the student does with the learning strategies listed A-G. Mark the correct letter (A-G) on your answer sheet. There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

What the student does   **Learning Strategies**

What the student does	Learning Strategies
19. To learn new words, I always create pictures of them in my mind. 20. I always keep new vocabulary on cards which I separate into topics. 21. Whenever I can, I talk with native English speakers in social situations. 22. I work out the meaning of a new word from the language around it. 23. I pay attention to my own language to make sure it is accurate. 24. If I am not sure of the meaning of a word or of how to use it, I look it up in a dictionary	A. self-monitoring B. guessing from context C. memorizing D. organizing learning aids E. repeating F. consulting reference resources G. using opportunities for practice

7 Points	**(v)** For questions 25-31, match the statements with the teaching approaches that they describe listed A, B or C. Mark the correct letter (A, B or C) on your answer sheet.

Teaching approaches

A. Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP)
B. Task-based Learning (TBL)
C. Grammar-Translation

Statements

25. The teacher moves from providing models of language use to monitoring learners' use of language.
26. First the learners complete a communicative task: they are encouraged to use any English they know and they do not have to use any particular language item.
27. The written form of the language is more important than the spoken form.
28. The language focus is at the start of the teaching sequence, with fluency activities coming later.
29. The language focus comes after a communicative activity, so that learners notice gaps in their language.
30. Learners acquire language by trying to use it in real communicative situations.
31. The learners' first language plays a central role in the teaching.

7 points	(vi) For questions 32-38, match the classroom activities with the types of speaking practice listed A, B or C. Mark the correct letter (A,B orC) on your answer sheet.

Types of speaking practice

A. oral fluency practice
B. controlled oral practice
C. neither

Classroom activities

32.At the beginning of the lesson, we got into groups and talked about an interesting newspaper article that we had read.

33.The teacher gave us word prompts such as 'cinema' and 'friends', and we had to say them insentences using the past simple, e.g. 'We went to the cinema'; 'We visited some friends'.

34.The teacher read a passage to us, which we then wrote down.

35.The teacher gave us roles such as 'filmstar' or 'sports star' and we had to role play a party inwhich we chatted to each other.

36.We had a discussion about the advantages and disadvantages of the Internet.

37.The teacher read out some sentences, some of which were correct and some incorrect. We had to shout out 'Right' or 'Wrong'.

38.We had to ask our partner five questions about their abilities, using 'can', e.g. Can you swim?

7 Points	(vii) For questions 39-45, match the examples from teaching or assessment activities with the terms listed A-H. Mark the correct letter (A-H) on your answer sheet. There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Terms

A. Sentence transformation
B. Jumbled sentence
C. Odd one out
D. Form-filling
E. Multiple choice
F. Categorizing
G. Labeling
H. Gap fill

Examples of teaching or assessment activities

39. Complete the sentence.
Last night I went _____ the cinema.

40. Complete the sentence.
The weather yesterday was ....
A. delicious   B. exciting   C. fantastic

41. Find the word that does not fit.
banana, apple, onion, pear, orange

Put the words in the list in the correct box.
Thai, India, Britain, Chinese, Swedish, Hungarian, Czech, Portugal

Countries	Languages
Malaysia	

43. Complete Sentence B so it means the same as sentence A.
A: The man built the bridge in 1982.
B: The bridge ....

44.

Complete with your personal details.
Family name: ....
First name: ....
Date of birth: ....
Address: ....
....

45. put the words in the right order.
do – usually – what – in – you – do – summer

In the name of Allah, the exalted

Answer Sheet

Time to answer: 40 Minutes

Note: All your personal information and test results will be confidential.

It will be highly appreciated if your best is done answering the questions.

If you wish to know about your test results please provide your email address or mobile phone number in the boxes below.

Please send my test score via my email address _____@_____ or through SMS to the number _____

Please provide your detailed bio-data in the fields below. All fields are required to be filled in.

Name (optional) .... TEFL/TESL Experience: .... Years   Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐   City of Residence: ....

Date of Birth: /   /   First Language: ....   I teach English as a foreign ☐   second ☐   language.

Holding University Degree: Diploma ☐   2-year degree ☐   BA ☐   MA ☐   PhD ☐   Graduated from University of ....

Instruction: Write the matching letter for each item in the corresponding box

Important note: All questions are required to be answered

(i) For questions 1-5, mark the correct letter (A, B or C) in the boxes below.

1	2	3	4	5

(ii) For questions 6-11, mark the correct letter (A-D) in the boxes below.

6	7	8	9	10	11

(iii) For questions 12-18, mark the correct letter (A-H) in the boxes below.

12	13	14	15	16	17	18

(iv) For questions 19-24, mark the correct letter (A-G) in the boxes below.

19	20	21	22	23	24

(v) For questions 25-31, mark the correct letter (A, B or C) in the boxes below.

25	26	27	28	29	30	31

(vi) For questions 32-38, mark the correct letter (A, B or C) in the boxes below.

32	33	34	35	36	37	38

(vii) For questions 39-45, mark the correct letter (A-H) in the boxes below.

39	40	41	42	43	44	45

Number of Correct answers (C): _____

Number of Incorrect answers (I): _____

Number of Unanswered items(U): _____

Score: _____ out of forty-five

APPENDIX B. LOOK UP TABLE FOR TOPICS DISCUSSED THROUGHOUT THE TREATMENT

Sessions	Topic	Shared Information& Knowledge
1.	Use of Communication Language Teaching	Pedagogical content knowledge
2.	Implementation of technological tools	Technological pedagogical content knowledge
3.	Teacher vs. student centered classrooms	Pedagogical knowledge
4.	English text-books used in EFL settings	Content knowledge
5.	Classroom management	Pedagogical knowledge
6.	Use of short stories based on EFL students' language proficiency	Content knowledge
7.	Establishing oral communications in EFL classrooms	Pedagogical content knowledge
8.	Types of error corrections and feedbacks	Pedagogical content knowledge
9.	Various teaching methods	Pedagogical content knowledge
10.	Approaches to language teaching and learning	Pedagogical content knowledge
11.	Educational aids	Pedagogical knowledge
12.	Teaching experiences	Pedagogical knowledge
13.	Cross-cultural issues	Content knowledge
14.	Needs analysis	Pedagogical content knowledge
15.	Psychological issues (EFL teachers' and students' autonomy, anxiety, …)	Content knowledge
16.	Extra-curricular activities (language clubs, out of class activities)	Pedagogical content knowledge

APPENDIX C. CLT

Participant	Idea
1.	CLT needs to be more emphasized in EFL classrooms.
2.	Due to the communicative use of language, CLT is an effective approach to teaching.
3.	Students should become familiar with CLT.
4.	It is better to improve students' spoken and written ability of communication.
5.	Speaking needs to be more stressed in such classrooms.
6.	CLT deals with students' real-life communications outside the classrooms.
7.	Students need to receive relative assignments to enhance their communication abilities.
8.	Use of group work and pair work is recommended in these classrooms.

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Hossein Alimirzaee was born in Khorasan Razavi, Iran 23/8/1976). He did MA in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) from Azad University of Torbate Heydarieh, Khorasan Razavi, Iran, winter, 2014. He got BA in TEFL from Mashhad Azad University.

He is a Secondary school English TEACHER in education office. He has been teaching English for more than 21 years in different secondary schools of Sarakhs, Khorasan Razavi, Iran. His published paper is "Iranian EFL Teacher's Beliefs about Online Peer Knowledge Sharing was published in IJLLALW, June 2015, *9(2),* 298-307"

Hamid Ashraf did his PhD in English Language Teaching at English Department, University of Pune, India. He has been a member of faculty at English Department in Islamic Azad University of Iran (Torbat Heydarieh Branch) since 1996. He has published papers in scientific journals, and presented in international and national conferences on issues in ELT such as: critical thinking in ELT, speaking assessment (iBT TOEFL), electronic material preparation (Podcasting), and English project works, etc. He has authored textbooks on listening for IELTS, critical reading, and ESP, and also has done three granted research projects. He has supervised and advised MA theses of a number of TEFL students.

Hamid Ashraf is a now the head of English Department, a member of Asia TEFL society, and TELLSI. He has been the chair of scientific committee in two national and international conferences in Iran.

Fluency First Guided Cultivation of Academic Communication Competence for Chinese Graduates Based on EAP

Shuang Liu

School of Computer Science and Engineering, Dalian Nationalities University, Dalian, China

Peng Chen

Department of Computer Science and Technology, Dalian Neusoft University of Information, Dalian, China

Abstract—**English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which is a branch of English for specific purposes (ESP), focuses instruction on skills required to perform in an English-speaking academic context across core subject areas. For Chinese graduates whose mother tongue is not English, EAP teaching consists of four parts, which are academic listening, academic reading, academic listening and academic writing. This paper takes EAP teaching for computer major graduates with professional master degree as an example to introduce our creative teaching methods such as games, memory competition, debates and international conference simulating, with purpose of cultivating graduates' academic communication competence, broadening their academic fields and improving their job competitiveness. Key of these teaching methods is students centered and situation-based teaching, focusing on students' competence of free expression in oral or written English. Our teaching design concentrates on encouraging graduates interests in EAP learning, which is guided by fluency first principle. This teaching reform is also one exploration for IT international talents cultivation for computer major graduates with professional master degree.**

Index Terms—**EAP, ESP, fluency first, computer major graduates, academic communication competence**

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditional English teaching for graduates revolves around common English teaching such as grammar rules, translation or reading comprehension. In other words, traditional English teaching is only suitable for some entrance exams, not for communication, not to mention academic communication. Moreover, most teachers who teach English for graduates are teachers majoring in English. They can hardly lead graduates to other academic fields such as computer science or other engineering science (Zhang, 2011).

For graduates with professional master degree, the accelerated program is designed to develop professional engineering or other fields leaders in every profession (Jin, 2013). The graduates needs not only competence of cross-cultural communication, but also grasp of international competitive experiences to become talents. If teaching program for graduates with professional is only concerned with traditional English teaching content, there is no point in improving or promoting their learning progress.

To solve this problem, EAP courses become more and more popular (Cai, 2012a; Cai, 2012b; Wang, 2013). On successful completion of one EAP course in computer science, students should be able to grasp of basic paradigm of academic communication in the academic cultural context such as Computer Science and show competence in presenting concepts and ideas in spoken form for one academic topic clearly and establishing working relationships with their lecturers and other students. They should have capacity to take control of their own researching and summarizing by using appropriate learning strategies. They should also have confidence and ability to think critically and to analyze an argument and ability to write an academic report or short papers.

To keep up with the teaching developing situation, our university set up EAP course for graduates of computer technology field. As one subversive reform for public English teaching (Cai, 2014), EAP puts more emphasis on application capability of academic reading, academic listening, academic speaking and writing in one academic fields (Gillett, 2015). Through learning process, they will need to develop the ability to think logically and independently (Su, 2014), to be reflective and critical, to analyze, to synthesize and to be creative. Our EAP teaching content consists of three parts, which are oral communication part, written communication part and speaking and listening part. Here, we adopt fluency first as our guiding principle to cultivate graduates' academic communication competence, which are discussed in detail in the following sections.

II. SURVEY OF CURRENT ENGLISH TEACHING FOR GRADUATES WITH PROFESSIONAL MASTER DEGREE

Figures and Tables

Our university was approved to enroll graduates with professional master degree in 2011. From 2012, we began to enroll new postgraduates. Now our students who are pursuing master degree are 78. In September of 2015, enrollment scale expands to 67, in other words, 67 new postgraduates will begin to study in our university. To grasp English learning proficiency of all 172 students enrolling from 2012 to 2015 in our university, one table is designed to get some statistical data, which is shown in TableI.

From Table I, we know that nearly 70% students have passed CET4. So they have the capability of basic English listening, reading, speaking and writing. But no more than 30% students have passed CET6. In English learning process, most students have difficulty in oral English and academic writing. And over 70% postgraduates are not satisfied with their English proficiency. So nearly 70% students take it for granted that EAP teaching will helps to improve their English proficiency, especially for job employment and further education such as PhD study.

TABLE I
STATISTICAL TABLE FOR ENGLISH LEARNING PROFICIENCY OF NEW POSTGRADUATES IN RECENT FOUR YEARS

Enrollment Year	2012	2013	2014	2015
total no.	27	53	25	67
no. of passing CET4	20	42	19	46
percentage of passing CET4	74%	79%	76%	69%
no. of passing CET6	8	12	7	12
percentage of passing CET6	30%	23%	28%	18%
difficulty in English listening	75%	81%	77%	83%
difficulty in oral English	86%	89%	90%	91%
difficulty in academic writing	91%	93%	90%	92%
difficulty in academic reading	87%	85%	83%	85%
satisfactory for English learning	30%	26%	31%	35%
necessity of learning EAP	67%	75%	78%	82%

Graduates of grade 2012 are our first enrollment students. EAP teaching is not set for them. Most students have difficulty in flexible application of academic English. One student attended an English interview of one international software company. There is a certain gap for his oral English and requirement of the company. He had difficulty in expressing his ideas in professional field and finally he failed to pass the English interview. Only one excellent girl continued her further PhD study and most of graduates entered domestic software companies to work.

For graduates of grade 2013, traditional English teaching was set for them in the first semester, which is taught by English teachers. In the second semester, EAP teaching is set for them, which is taught by supervisor or professional teachers with overseas learning experiences. Focus of EAP teaching is to train capability of oral academic communication and academic writing communication for graduates. From April of 2014, executive officer Mohamed EI-Refai of IBM provides 9 internship positions for our graduates. All working language or environment is English. By training of EAP teaching, these 9 students adapted themselves to the new working environment quickly and showed their excellent competence in the work.

III. INTRODUCTION OF EAP TEACHING FOR GRADUATES WITH PROFESSIONAL MASTER DEGREE

A. Requirments of EAP Teaching for Graduates with Professional Master Degree

With development of integration of world economy, more and more IT talents are required in IT industry. Take Dalian as an example, talents requirements increase year by year from 2009 to 2015. But few candidates are highly qualified for international IT talents. So university teaching and reform should adapt to talents requirements of IT industry. In China, there are over tens of millions of IT talents in software industry. Among them, at least 10% should have a good command of English. But in fact, only 1% of these talents are good at English expression in oral or written. For IT industry, listening and oral English are the basic requirements. In addition, technology communication is the most important part. By traditional English teaching, only some of candidates are qualified for the former requirements. It is almost impossible for them to be qualified for the latter requirements. For practitioners of IT industry, they should also have capability of fast search for key information in large amounts of English technology documents. Finally, they should learn to write formal project reports and instruction manual.

In order to adapt to IT talents requirements of IT industry, it is necessary to set EAP teaching for graduates. By academic training, students will learn to express themselves correctly in certain academic field. In this paper, computer science is chosen as our academic field.

B. Oral Communication Teaching Design of EAP Teaching

Enrollment quality of our university is not so good. Their English proficiency is ordinary, not to mention academic communication. From application point of view, teaching idea of vocabulary guidance and fluency first is adopted. Vocabulary building is the basis of international communication. So training of academic listening, academic reading, academic writing and academic speaking consists of large amount of professional vocabulary. Based on elicitation teaching method and games introduction, more and more professional vocabulary is introduced to students and strengthened in the latter application. Key point of oral communication teaching design is taking fluency first as the

most important principle, with purpose of training capability of expressing ideas in English. Simple sentence is enough to express a point, so complex structures or sentences are not encouraged in our teaching.

Teaching process is as follows. Each lesson begins with a vocabulary memorization competition or a guessing word game. For vocabulary memorization competition, each student can write one to five words he or she has memorized from words list on the wall. The group with the largest number of correct words for all students belonging to this group wins. Because all students are interested in playing games and they want to win, they will put all their efforts in memorizing these words. By this way, passion for learning professional English vocabulary will be aroused and good teaching effects will be obtained. For guessing word game, different groups of new vocabulary will be sent to different group of students to learn. Then one delegate of each group tries to explain the meaning of words belonging to his or her group. If other students guess the correct word for the English explanation, then this group will get 1 point. The group who guess the word will get 1 point too. Purpose of this process is to train English oral expression for one professional word with simple sentences.

Second step for oral communication teaching is debate. Here, free debate is adopted, which will be around two teams consisting of four students. Topics of free debate is concerned with development of computer science or new technology such as cloud computing. Students will have enough time to prepare materials for their supporting point. A debater in pros speaks first then a debater in cons speaks. Two teams take turns, until the time is up. During the debate, debaters cannot read the information that is prepared before. But they can show the summary of any newspaper or book. By this debate preparation and statement process, students will learn to catch key points of English expression for academic oral communication.

After two or three classes of preparation, formal academic oral communication teaching begins. The teaching will revolve around specifications, presentation, discussion and other factors, which is shown in Fig.1.
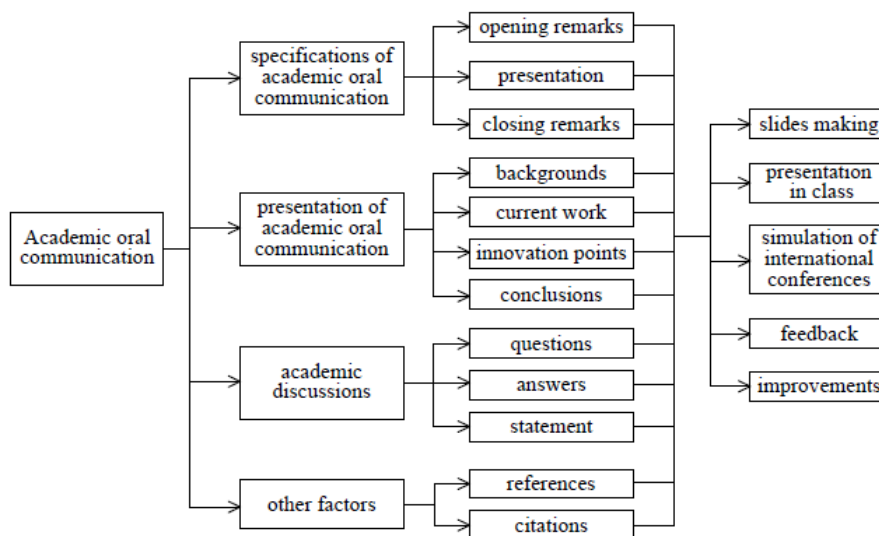

Figure 1. Teaching design of academic oral communication.

Specifications of academic oral communication need to follow some routines provided by examples. Students will learn how to do opening remarks, presentation and closing remarks from examples. Presentation is the most difficult part for this teaching. Based on research backgrounds and related works, students will learn to introduce his or her current work with adoption of research methods and experimental results and give conclusions. In simulation of international conferences, each student is one author of one paper and each student should give a presentaion before all audiences in class, which he or she learns how to make slides and give formal oral presentation. In discussion practice, each student learns to answer questions and argue with other researchers. According to academic routines, students learn to cite or reference other works. Based on these teaching activities, students are instrested in the learning process and practice their academic oral expression automatically.

C. Written Communication Teaching Design of EAP Teaching

Written communication is very important for students in their future education or jobs. So this training is necessary in our teaching. The introduction of written practice is a letter. It is very easy for students to introduce his or her study life to a friend. They will learn to write some sentences with correct grammar and spelling. Then teachers give some abstracts to students to read after class. There are some common rules in writing an abstract. For example, passive sentences are usually used and backgroud-purpose-your work-conclusion routine is usually used. Based on main body of one paper, students learn to catch key points of the paper and write an abstract for the paper. It is a little difficult for them to complete this work because most of these students have difficulty in writing acadmic papers even in Chinese. But with help of supervisors, students will learn a lot from this training process. Here, fluency is also the guidance principle. Simple sentences are enough for the abstract. The whole teaching design is shown in Fig.2.
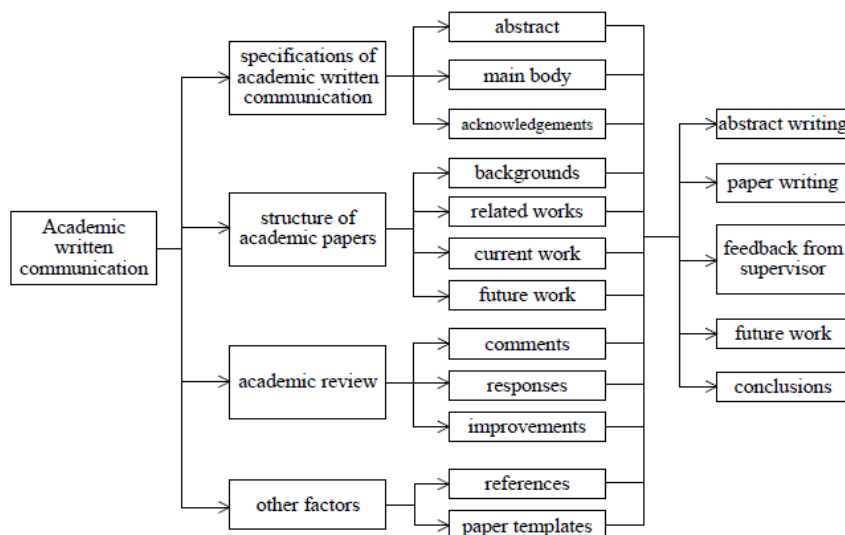
Figure 2. Teaching design of academic written communication.

As shown in Fig.2, specifications of academic written communication include abstract writing, main body of a paper and acknowledgements expression. Then structure of a formal academic paper will be introduced to students. One author should introduce research backgrounds, related works and give his own work and then the future work. After submission to one journal or conferences, the author will receive the review result. For comments of experts, one author needs to learn how to give right response to each comment and revise the paper. Based on the training, students will learn to write an abstract. Some good students learn to conclude their current work and write a formal academic paper. In the whole teaching process, both the EAP teacher and the supervisor of one student are the guiders for the student.

D. Speaking and Listening Teaching of EAP Teaching

Academic speaking and listening are included in each class. Singing English songs and some popular games are introduced as a best manner in the teaching process. For example, game of running man is very popular in China. So this game is adopted and changed in the class based on our requirements. How to express clearly and get understood are very important in the game. Different groups have different secret sentence as their code. Each group tries to guess a story to get the final conclusion. Each student enjoys the game very much, which revolves learning and practicing English process. Our students like to sing popular English songs such as "take me home, country roads" and "my heart will go on". Singing each sentence is also a kind of speaking and listening practice.

In general, teaching methods such as games, competitions, role play, debate, songs, simulation in various forms are adopted in our EAP teaching process for graduates of computer technology field. Different teaching methods and different teaching content are tried in two years of teaching. Each student enjoyes the teaching process and learns a lot from the class from feedback of students.

IV. IT TALENTS CULTIVATION BASED ON EAP TEACHING

A. Reasons for IT Talents Cultivation Based on EAP Teaching

In recents years, EAP teaching is very popular for graduates in all majors. But for students whose major is computer science, it is especially important for the following reasons. First, all up-to-date information or technology for computer science is English. And development of computer science comes from USA and Europe countries. So as a practioner in IT industry, each graduate should learn to know something he or she needed from large amounts of English documents. Second, all programming languages are English. Most of our graduates will do jobs related to software or project management. So professional vocabulary building and much pratice in EAP teaching are very important for their future work. Third, the most competitive software companies are international companies, which will adopt English as their working language. If our graduates want to enter these companies, language is the first stepping stone for their positions. By these reasons, EAP teaching is clearly in order in graduate teaching schedule especially for students with computer science as their major.

B. Key Points of IT Talents Cultivation Based on EAP Teaching

Based on experiences of two years EAP teaching, there are some key points we need to emplasize. IT talents cultivation especially IT international talents cultivation based on EAP teaching is feasible. Certaily, EAP teaching is only the basis for academic introduction, not the crucial factor. Students will learn something important for their future research work. With academic training of listening, speaking, reading and writing, most students will learn to begin their research by reading English academic documents. Fluency is the primary element for English expression whether

in oral or in written. Simple sentence is enough for most cases. And clear expression and statement are the key points in a lot of best English papers in science or other top journals. So fluency is our teaching priciple. Complex sentences or complicated expressions are not encouraged. Hardware and software for dummies are not bad, but are our goals. So our graduates, IT practitioners should learn to express clearly and fluently with simple senteces.

V. QUESTIONS WORTHY OF CONSIDERATION FOR EAP TEACHING

EAP teaching tries to set a bridge between college English and professional English. So teaching content, teaching design, teaching method of EAP should be different from traditional English teaching. There are some questions needed to be considered in EAP teaching process.

(1) how to adopt flexible and enjoyable teaching methods in EAP teaching

From primary school to high school to university, our students have too many English classes. The emphases of these English classes are entrance grades or passing the exam. Few of them have a lot fun in the learning process. So in graduate education, students will be reluctant to learn English. How to attract students attention and interests plays a very important role in EAP teaching. Teaching purpose of EAP is to train students how to apply English in academic communication. So how to adopt flexible and enjoyable teaching methods in EAP teaching is very important for teachers. If popular TV games such as "Running man" or "reality show" are introduced in EAP teaching, students will be full of enthusiasm and try their best to fulfill each task arranged in the game because they want be the winner. They will enjoy the studying process and learn something important for academic communication. Whether a student has good or bad command of English expression, he or she will find it easy to participate in the teaching and learning process. All classes are students-centered. What a teacher should do is to make a careful plan for each minute of the lessons. Certainly, game is only one form of teaching methods. Other methods such as competition, interaction, guessing words, team work, debate and discussions can also be adopted. By these activities, students will learn to build self confidence in oral or written English expression and try to pursue and further the practice of a higher development goals.

(2) how to make full use of all kinds of online or offline IT technical means for EAP teaching

With limited class hours, it is very hard for EAP teaching to meet requirements of all students. Regardless of many teaching contents a teacher has designed, students will find it hard to complete an academic task such as paper writing. So how to solve this problem is very difficult. With development of IT industry, App of mobile phones, Wechat, QQ discussion group, electronic book, online learning system, multimedia platform have been very popular in the university. Moreover, working emphasis of guidance committee for national engineering graduate education is to construct online courses. So EAP teaching resources should be covered in mobile App, Wechat, QQ, online systems and so on. Only by deployment of teaching resources on all kinds of new platforms, EAP teaching will be changed from traditional teaching to open teaching. With integration teaching resources in audio, video, animation, image, text forms, students will find it easy to access any resource he or she want to search to learn. So teaching places or teaching activities have been expanded from classrooms to everywhere.

(3) how to train highly qualified and well trained EAP teacher teams

Teaching teams are the last, but not the least factor for EAP teaching. Academic background of EAP teacher is very different from tradition English teaching. Many people from USA or Europe find it easy to be an English teacher in China because English is the only determining factor. But for academic English teaching, not only English but also major is very important. A teacher of EAP teaching needs to design simulation of international conferences, discussion for one academic topic, academic debate for some academic idea. If he or she knows nothing about the academic field, it is impossible for him or her to complete the teaching design. The teacher of EAP teaching must lead students to complete PPT presentation for their work, papers searching, papers review, papers writing and template using. So major of EAP teachers should be some academic field. One feasible way for EAP teacher teams is to choose professional teachers with some academic background and with some overseas study or teaching experiences. To be prepared for the requirement of EAP teachers, a university should be prepared to train some EAP teacher teams in every academic filed. Overseas training and teaching practice in EAP teaching are both important. By this way, EAP teachers not only have a good command of English, but also have advantage of academic views.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

For graduates with professional master degree, especially for computer science major, EAP teaching is very important for their academic communication and their future job or further education. In order to cultivate students with competence of cross-cultural communication and international competitive experiences, EAP teaching began from two years ago in our university. With statistical data collected from nearly 100 graduates of our university, EAP teaching program plays a very important role in their future education or jobs. They have learned to do their research seraching and summarization and to think critically and to analyze an argument. The ability to express himself or herself is the most important. So fluency first is our guiding principle to cultivate graduates' academic communication competence, which is in accordance with trend of development of computer science. In our future EAP reform, new teaching

methods will be tried and flexible teaching schedule will be designed. And EAP teacher teams, introduce of new IT technology and flexible teaching practice will be also tried.

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Shuang Liu, born in Jinzhou, Liaoning, China, received her Ph.D degree of Traffic Information Engineering & Control from Dalian Maritime University in 2006. And she finished her postdoctoral research of computer science and technology at Dalian University of Technology in April, 2015.

She currently works as an Associate Professor at the school of computer science & engineering, Dalian Nationalities University, Dalian, China. Her research interests include computer education, intelligent transportation system and machine learning algorithms. Her academic papers are published both national and international journals and conferences such as IJWMIP (2014), ICIC Express Letters (2015) and Proceedings of The Ninth International Conference on Innovative Computing, Information and Control (2014). She is also a review expert for the Journal of Systems Engineering and Electronics and the 2010 International Conference on Computer Application and System Modeling.

Peng Chen, born in Xuzhou, Jiangsu, China, received his master degree of computer science from Liaoning Shihua University in 2003. Now he works as an associate professor at the deparment of computer science and technology in Dalian Neusoft University of Information. His research interests include network security and machine learning algorithms.

The Effect of Collaborative Discovery Learning Using MOODLE on the Learning of Conditional Sentences by Iranian EFL Learners

Monireh Eskandari

Department of English, College of Humanities, Qom Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Qom, Iran;
Department of English, College of Humanities, Qom Branch, Islamic Azad University, Qom, Iran

Hassan Soleimani

Department of Applied Linguistics, Payame Noor University, Iran

Abstract—**The present research examined the impact of collaborative discovery learning using Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment (MOODLE) platform on the learning of conditional sentences by Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. In addition, attitudes of the participants were investigated towards virtual learning and MOODLE Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) through three face to face semi-structured interviews. The analysis of the data was done through the analysis of the *t*-test. Finally, it was concluded that the experimental group outperformed the control group; however, there was no statistically significant difference between the achievements of two groups. Moreover, the interviews data indicated that the participants had an overall positive attitude towards virtual learning and MOODLE VLE.**

Index Terms—**collaborative discovery learning, conditional sentences, MOODLE**

I. INTRODUCTION

Grammar has always been one of the great important issues in second and foreign language learning. According to Dykes (2007), many believed that the absence of grammar instruction was the reason for decreasing in literacy of people. Nowadays, people agree that grammar is more important than to be neglected and furthermore language development of a learner without a good knowledge of grammar will be seriously constrained (Richards & Renandya, 2002). However, grammar is a facet of language which is often misunderstood and this misunderstanding refers to the way that grammar is defined as a set of rules and paradigms about linguistic forms. Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988) indicate that disappointingly, teachers often teach grammar through isolated and unconnected sentences; because of this, students learn nothing more than a fragmented, unrealistic picture of English and consequently find it difficult to apply what they have learned in real situations. Richards and Renandya (2002) describe that a competent language user is a person who not only knows the rules of grammar, but also knows how these rules are used in real communication.

There are some active ways in teaching grammar including *collaborative discovery learning* which have intentionally departed from traditional approaches. Bruner (1961) maintains that discovery is not limited to finding out and discovering something which before was unfamiliar to mankind; on the contrary, it contains all ways of obtaining knowledge for oneself by using of one's own mind. Schunk (2012) explains that discovery refers to constructing and testing hypotheses rather than simply reading a passage or listening to the teacher presentations or other students lectures. Due to the fact that, learners move from studying specific examples to formulating general rules, concepts, and principles, discovery is known as a type of inductive reasoning (Schunk, 2012). Bruner (1961) describes that learning through discoveries results in benefits including increasing in intellectual potency, shifting from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards, learning the heuristics of discovering, and fostering memory processing. Ögeyik (2011) mentions that discovery activities are generally helpful for deep processing in all language skills and help students in grasping learning strategies. Schunk (2012) explains that teachers who apply discovery learning for teaching should present questions, problems, or puzzling situations to be resolved and should encourage students to make intuitive guesses when they are uncertain about the answers; in addition, for leading a class discussion, teachers can ask questions with no readily available answers and grading so that students come to their understandings and teachers can also give suggestions to students on how to search for answers in order to achieve a better result. On the other hand, teachers should not restrict discoveries to the activities in a classroom; in other words, students may find their answers in other places like classroom workstations, the school media center, and on or off the school grounds (Schunk, 2012).

Moreover, the process of education has been enriched by the advent of computers, the Internet, and information technologies. Nowadays, they have interwoven with the educational systems generally and language classrooms specifically in such a way that it is difficult to think about them separately. Haythornthwaite (2008) indicates that e-

learning means technology-based Learning; for example, through e-learning lectures, homework, quizzes, and exams are delivered almost entirely or completely online and in some cases even no in-person interaction takes place over the length of the course. According to Haythornthwaite (2008), e-learning offers more learner-friendly environments, allows more learner-centric activities, makes the teacher to act as a facilitator, enhances the collaborative nature of learning, motivates students to be much more engaged , and causes students to take more responsibility for their learning. Knight (2004) defines e-learning as a kind of learning which is facilitated and supported through the use of information and communications technology and may take advantage some or all of such technologies as desktop and laptop computers, software, interactive whiteboards, digital cameras, mobile and wireless tools like mobile phones, electronic communication tools such as emails and chats, discussion boards, audio and video conferencing, Virtual Learning Environments (VLEs), and Learning Management Systems (LMSs).

Knight (2004) explains that e-learning can deal with a spectrum of activities ranging from supporting learning, to blended learning which is a kind of learning combined of traditional and e-learning practices, to learning that is delivered entirely online; more importantly, e-learning is no longer simply a kind of learning which is associated with distance or remote learning, but rather it is part of a conscious choice of the best and most appropriate ways for promoting effective learning. AlHogail and El-Masri (2013) express that nowadays, e-learning is considered as an essential part of the higher education and one of the most widely used e-learning technologies across universities which also supports traditional learning is VLEs like *MOODLE*; in addition, every day tutors around the word upload many valuable learning resources like lecture notes, tutorials, and tests to the VLEs systems in order to make them more effective for teaching and learning. On the other hand, the ability of reusing and sharing these resources, saving teacher's time, enhancing the course content development, and being integrated with web tools such as wikis and blogs which is possible through the VLEs increases the value of these environments and adds more strengths and advantages to them (AlHogail & El-Masri, 2013). Being among these modern technologies, MOODLE is a modern digital technology that can be used effectively for language learning purposes. Brandl (2005) states that MOODLE is a kind of LMS and it has been popular as an open Course Management System (CMS); in other words, it is a software package designed to help teachers to produce internet-based courses. Moreover, this kind of VLE is based on socio-constructivist pedagogy whose goal is to offer tools and facilities that support a discovery-based approach to online learning and to create an environment that permits collaborative interaction among learners as a standalone or in addition to conventional classroom instruction.

A. Statement of the Problem

There has been a negative reaction against grammar for a long time, and attempts to engage students in active grammar learning have been futile because grammar has been considered as a set of rules without any chance for applying them in the real life situations. Teaching grammar traditionally by explanation, memorization, and repetition of grammatical rules has a long disappointing history. Under this condition, students have not become involved in learning and they have found it difficult, distant, and boring. Over the years, many methods and approaches in teaching grammar have gone through wax and wane. However, deficiencies in learning grammar show that the implementation of effective and innovative ways in this field is necessary.

On the other hand, the application of new technologies particularly the Internet offers teachers the opportunity to integrate many innovative ways and tools for improving the teaching and learning processes. Abedi Kargiban and Kaffash (2011) argue that most foreign language courses in Iran secondary schools are supported by textbooks which take advantage of audio materials such as audio-cassettes, CDs, and even CD-ROMs; however, it seems that students in these courses are still quite reluctant to use such tools effectively. So it is time our educational system took advantages of new technologies including MOODLE e-learning platform to help students to have a deeper and more meaningful learning. This study addressed the following questions:

1: Is there any statistically significant difference between the achievements of learners learning conditional sentences using collaborative discovery learning in the MOODLE environment and in the non-MOODLE environment?

2: What are the attitudes of the participants of the experimental group towards virtual learning and MOODLE VLE?

B. Purpose of the Study

The researcher in this study attempts to investigate whether collaborative discovery learning under MOODLE environment has any effect on improving the knowledge of the grammatical system of the Iranian learners. However, there are a wide diversity of grammatical rules across languages, but for the sake of the manageability and feasibility of the project, this study focuses on the instruction of conditional sentences.

C. Significance of the Study

The significance of this research can be viewed both theoretically and practically. They are as follows:

First, it is theoretically expected that the results from this project allow a reappraisal of the competing theories regarding teaching and learning grammar. Moreover, this topic is one of the important issues in the realm of a foreign or second language teaching and learning. Also the topic illustrates the importance of integrating innovative tools and environments for enriching the educational system. This study puts the emphasis on verifying an approach that enables students to use conditionals more effectively. In this case, the researcher uses the collaborative discovery learning under

MOODLE platform in teaching conditionals in order to improve the ability of learners to use these structures more actively.

Second, it is practically expected that this research may be helpful for those course designers who have paid attention to the potential of effective ways and VLEs for creating new courses. Moreover, information presented in this research may be useful for teachers in planning more effective lessons, devising more creative learning activities, fostering teaching materials, and improving teaching methods. This project may also move teachers away from boring traditional instructions and offers them positive input to experience a new way and environment generally in teaching grammatical structure and particularly in teaching conditional sentences. This paper may give students a chance to have a deeper learning, to learn more actively, and to control the pace of their learning. Therefore it is anticipated that this project may generate an interest, not only among educationalists, but also among the students.

II. Literature Review

Grammar has been considered one of the controversial facets in the field of teaching and learning a foreign language. Due to the fact that grammar plays an important and crucial role in communication in both written and spoken language, the main aim of teaching grammar is to enable students to use language accurately and actively. Ellis (2006) expresses that grammar teaching refers to any instructional techniques which are aimed at drawing students' attention to some specific grammatical forms in a way that it helps them in understanding those forms metalinguistically and/or processing them in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize them.

Castronova (2002) discusses that discovery or constructivist learning is considered an active learning process. Castronova also adds that fostering higher-level skills in students for building a deep understanding of major concepts results from this kind of learning; besides, motivating students and enabling them to seek information for satisfying their natural curiosity is an important advantage of the discovery learning method. Based on the results of a study by Setyowati (2013), collaborative learning techniques is considered an alternative technique in teaching grammar and an effective way for fostering learners' motivation and ability in mastering the grammatical materials. On the other hand, relationship between discovery and collaboration is achieved easily and the design of collaborative discovery learning environments is impressed by this relationship (Saab, Van Joolingen, & Van Hout-Wolters, 2005). According to Gijlers and De Jong (2005), it seems that integrating discovery learning with collaboration makes a promising approach and leads to increasing in effectiveness of discovery learning. According to Saab et al. (2005), knowledge regarding discovery learning processes as well as interaction data from students with the discovery environment can support the communicative process too. Gijlers and De Jong (2005) maintain that discovery learning motivates learners to express and explore their own conceptions, and collaborative discovery learning encourages them to share these plans and ideas with their partners, and one of significant advantages of collaboration is engaging learners in collaborative learning task and providing them with the opportunity to talk about their own understandings and ideas; moreover, collaboration allows learners to discuss their ideas, the design of their experiments, and the experimental outcomes with others learners; because of this, conditions required for cognitive conflicts, knowledge co-construction, and knowledge elaboration are provided. According to Gijlers and De Jong (2005), it is generally believed that knowledge construction which is a social process or a social cognitive process is impressed by the social setting in which they happen. Collaborative learning tasks enable learners to explore differences in opinion; consequently, cognitive conflicts become possible; besides, confronting with other partners who have different opinions or propose different solutions for the same problem fosters this conflict (Gijlers & De Jong, 2005).

Garrett (1982) states that a wide variety of foreign language software has been developed so far and most of them have focused on grammar as one important aspect of foreign and second language teaching and learning. Garrett (1982) defines that Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is a software which refers to uses of the computer based on the hypotheses regarding the process by which learners can communicate grammatically in the language. Garrett (1982) expresses that in order to deal with more interesting purposes, CALL engages learners in using the target language without noticing explicitly to the formal aspects of the language which they are producing. Yaman (2010) maintains that computers, multimedia, the Internet, and so on are considered powerful tools to enrich learning process; however, to be effective in learning process, technology should be integrated into a rich, meaning-centered curriculum. Yaman expresses that MOODLE is one of the most widely used open-source learning management systems on the Internet, for it has been addresses to all teachers and students without exception of any age group and offers them many opportunities.

Recently, constructivism has attracted a lot of attention in order to keeping up with employing innovative methods in educational systems. Weegar and Pacis (2012) argue that constructivism is a learning theory which is proposed by Swiss psychologist Piaget and the Russian psychologist Vygotsky and is evolved from the extensive study of cognitive development; in other words, Piaget and Vygotsky studies regarding cognitive development have made the foundation for the psychological theory of constructivism. Brown (2007) describes constructivism which is a school of thought lays great emphasis on the learner's role in constructing meaning out of available linguistic input and the importance of social interaction in creating a new linguistic system as well.

Can (2009) mentions that according to constructivist approach, using technologies such as the Internet, websites, and the VLEs which creates new environments for language learning and teaching transforms the pedagogy and causes the

classroom and course books to diversify; moreover, creating these designs for learning requires employing new approaches to learning like collaborative learning, problem-based learning, and goal-based scenarios; on the other hand, learners need to work together and collaborate with each other when they are learning the language by making their own designs and projects and they need to learn for themselves when they are solving real life problems and achieving goals in groups like real micro societies regarding the constructivism. Can also states that creating such societies out of classroom simulates the real life solutions to real life problems. In addition, this kind of collaborative and meaning construction approach makes the negotiation of meaning more accessible.

Educators try to validate the outcomes of the teaching by employing effective methodologies based on new philosophies like constructivism. Wiener (1992) discusses that over the past decade, those college English teachers who have rejected philosophically approaches to teaching that isolate learners instead of drawing them together find collaborative learning an important method for effective learning. MacGregor (1992) expresses that social constructionism which comes from the assumption that knowledge is socially constructed by communities of individuals rather than individually makes the philosophy of collaborative learning. MacGregor (1992) argues that according to social constructionism, knowledge is shaped by successive conversations and ever-changing social and political environments over time. Saab et al. (2005) indicate that making the learning environment in which students can construct knowledge themselves and negotiate this knowledge with others is the focus of attention in constructivist approaches to learning. According to Saab et al. (2005), some learning contexts such as discovery learning and collaborative learning contexts satisfy knowledge construction processes. Saab et al. (2005) argue that collaborative learning environment makes learners to share and construct knowledge in working towards a solution of an assignment or problem, to expand their thoughts as part of the communication, and to search for a common way of working, so students make the discovery learning processes explicit.

Nowadays, the accepted models for instruction mainly focus on the potential ways that actively involve learners in learning. Veermans (2003) mentions that "anyone, who has ever experienced the feeling of excitement that can accompany discovering something 'new', may recognize the potential of discovery learning" (p. 1). Van Joolingen (1998) discusses that discovery learning is a type of learning which makes students to construct their own knowledge by experimenting and inferring rules from the results of the experiments; therefore, constructing the knowledge by the student is considered the main idea of discovery learning. Van Joolingen (1998) also adds that as opposed to expository learning environment, which presents necessary information by a teacher, discovery learning causes understanding at a higher level due to these constructive activities. Alfieri, Brooks, Aldrich, and Tenenbaum (2011) mention that if the learner is not provided with the target information or conceptual understanding and is required to find it independently with only the provided materials, discovery learning occurs. Alfieri et al. (2011) argue that within the framework of discovery-learning methods, the teacher can provide the learners with intensive or minimal guidance, and both types can appear in many different forms including manuals, simulations, feedback, example problems; however, the amount of the assistance depends upon the difficulty in discovering the target information. Gijlers and De Jong (2005) maintain that learners through discovery learning are motivated to be active agents in their own learning process; on the other hand, finding the properties of a domain is the main task of the learners within a discovery learning environment and these properties are not offered to learners in a direct manner; however, learners are required to discover them through experimentation and interpretation. Schunk (2012) argues that in discovery learning, teachers should arrange activities in such a way that allow learners to form and test hypotheses and learners cannot simply do what they want.

The educational system in general and language classrooms in specific are undergoing marked changes in the fields of teaching and learning. A good illustration of this is the application of new digital technology; in other words, such powerful tools as computer technology and the Internet have revolutionized the foundation of learning and teaching and offer teachers and students some significant advantages. CALL holds enormous potential for offering innovations in the field of language teaching and learning. Ahmad and Al-Khanjari (2011) argue that the world is changing into a comprehensive society in which the Internet and other related technologies are becoming dominant and ubiquitous and nations are also entering the digital phase; meanwhile, the world of WWW offers MOODLE as an innovative environment for instruction and learning in education.

Corich (2005) expresses that MOODLE was first released in 2002 and was developed by Martin Dougiamas an Australian computer scientist and educator at the Curtin University of Technology in Perth, Australia. Corich (2005) also argues that MOODLE has been provided freely as open source software; in other words, although MOODLE has been copyrighted, users have been allowed to copy, use, and modify MOODLE if they provide the source to others, not modify or remove the original license and copyrights, and offer this same license to any derivate work. Dougiamas (2004) discusses that MOODLE is programmed in Hypertext Preprocessor (PHP), a programming language that can create web pages based on user input and data-based information; moreover, all elements on the page can be modified, repositioned or deleted in MOODLE. Dougiamas (2004) mentions that there are there columns in MOODLE platform, two columns consisting of blocks on either side with special functions regarding course settings and information and a center column with blocks related to the course content; furthermore, the core blocks can be labeled automatically, either numerically or with sequential weeks. All course elements of MOODLE are presented in a flat view so teachers can easily hide specific sections when required and elements can be moved up or down just with two clicks of the mouse (Dougiamas, 2004). Yang and Lin (2010) argue that CMSs or LMSs are recently used in the areas of teaching

and learning as a modern alternative to using such applications and a good illustration of these systems which is undergoing a worldwide popularity is MOODLE. Uzun (2012) maintains that by applying online foreign language learning the learner rather than the teacher decide about the process, the individual needs and interests come before the contents, and assistance to learners in learning the foreign language instead of teaching them makes the main philosophical principle. Stickler and Hampel (2013) argue that there is a direct connection between socioconstructivist theories of learning and the context of language learning; in other words, language learners are more proficient in terms of using and understanding of a foreign language through collaboration and in co-construction with other learners.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The current study employs both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. Regarding the quantitative analyses, the researcher employed a quasi-experimental research design. On the other hand, the researcher tried to employ methodological triangulation through face-to-face semi-structured interviews for investigating the attitudes of the participants towards virtual learning and MOODLE VLE.

B. Participants

The population of this research was chosen from some English institutes including Zabansara, Ava, Mehr-E-Nasir, Poyesh, and Farhihktegan branches one and two in Qom, Iran. Sampling in this research was not random for the sake of including beginners in the concept of conditional sentences. Convenience sampling was used in this paper for having an easier accessibility to the proposed subjects. First, the researcher-made conditional sentences pre-test was piloted in branch one of Farhikhtegan Language Institute with 20 participants of similar test-takers from 71. The subjects' English proficiency was classified as pre-intermediate level by the institutes based on the participants' score in an English interview; however, in order to guarantee the homogeneity of these 51 participants in terms of their language proficiency, a version of Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used. Having been homogenized by the Solutions Placement Test (Edwards, 2007), 35 participants met the homogeneity criterion of the test and were chosen for the next phase of the research. Then, these 35 participants were pretested and 30 of them met the necessary conditions of lack of ability to recognize and produce conditional sentences. Next, they were put into two groups of 15 students each: the experimental and the control groups.

C. Instrumentation

In this study, the researcher used two different kinds of materials to collect data, namely teaching materials and testing materials. Teaching materials included the treatment, pictures, and MOODLE platform. The researcher employed the MOODLE site of Al-Mustafa Open University. Testing materials in this research also contained the Solutions Placement Test (Edwards, 2007), the conditional sentences pre-test, the conditional sentences post-test, pilot testing, and three face-to-face semi-structured interviews.

D. Procedure

Before implementing the treatment, the necessary information concerning an overview of working with different modules of MOODLE like Adobe Connect live class, forum, wiki, and quiz was taught to the participants in the experimental group during one session. Under Adobe Connect live class in MOODLE platform, subjects of the experimental group were divided into small groups. Team working, group discussion, and peer correction comprised the main part of the classroom activities.

The treatment which was conducted in the experimental group was composed of three steps including:

1. Preview: During this phase, the researcher tried to prepare participants by asking some warm up questions about conditional sentences. The researcher asked participants to work in their specified groups through writing on their whiteboards. Finally, one of the members of each group as a volunteer answered loudly through her microphone or wrote answer in the chat room.

2. View: Under Adobe Connect live class, participants of the experimental group were provided with pictures which were downloaded from the Internet via Microsoft PowerPoint program, and they heard and saw the questions through microphone and screen or chat room respectively. Questions were related to the pictures, and they were used for leading and helping the participants to make the story about them. They worked in their teams on their whiteboard. Then, they answered to questions via their whiteboard, chat room, or microphone. The stories were made through the ideas which were elicited form the participants. Finally, the researcher tried to elicit the aimed structures.

3. Review: Through this stage, participants of the experimental group in Adobe Connect live class were given a Portable Document Format (PDF) file with some fill in the blank or unscramble questions on it. They worked individually, selected a question, and answered to the question using their whiteboard, chat room, or microphone.

In order to practice conditionals, the researcher set different assignments for participants in the experimental group. First, 10 fill in the blank or multiple choice questions with feedback were made. For doing more conditional exercises, participants of the experimental group also took part in some free discussions via forum every other session.

The same procedure, content, and material were also applied for the control group under non-MOODLE environment. The participants worked through team working, group discussion, and peer correction. Like the experimental group, the implemented treatment in the control group also consisted of three steps followed through including:

1. Preview: Under this phase, the researcher started the lesson plan by asking some warm-up questions about conditionals from participants and preparing them in every session.

2. View: During the view phase, the researcher showed some printed pictures which were download from the Internet to participants and asked them some questions related to aforementioned pictures. The researcher helped the participants to make stories based on pictures and questions. Participants were encouraged to work in close collaboration, to share their opinions, to find answers, and finally to discover the aimed structures. Finally, the researcher elicited the intended conditionals from participants by asking questions based on the story which was made with the cooperation of participants. To be made the story leads participants towards the proposed grammar rule; in other words, participants are required to use the aimed conditional for making the story.

3. Review: Throughout the review phase, the researcher offered participants in the control group the papers with fill in the blank or unscramble questions on them to answer. They selected a question and answered or the researcher herself assigned one question to every participant based on her weak points.

Regarding assignments, participants in the control group were given 10 fill in the blank or multiple choice questions every session. The subjects also took part in free discussion every other session. Sentence writing around different topics also gave them the extra opportunity to practice conditional sentences more. In addition to the teacher's feedback, peer correction and self-correction were made other techniques for correcting learners' errors.

The current study also investigated the attitudes of the participants of the experimental group towards virtual learning and MOODLE VLE. Data were collected from 13 participants via methodological triangulation through three face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Basic structures for the interview protocol consisted of attitudes towards virtual learning, MOODLE VLE, its activities, and fulfillment. In order to give the interviewees the opportunity to express themselves comfortably and to make a better understanding, the interviews were carried out in the mother tongue of interviewees (in Persian). All the interviews were audio recorded and subsequently transcribed with the interviewees' permission.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Results Related to the First Question

Having got the data from the pre-test and the post-test, descriptive statistics were employed to summarize the characteristics of the data. Also, essential information regarding the normality of distribution was provided by the descriptive statistics.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR OBTAINED SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

		Pre- test	Post- test
N	Valid	15	15
	Missing	0	0
Mean		11.73	52.40
Std. Error of Mean		1.33	2.03
Median		11.00	56.00
Mode		15	59
Std. Deviation		5.17	7.88
Variance		26.78	62.11
Skewness		.13	-1.12
Std. Error of Skewness		.58	.58
Kurtosis		-.85	.43
Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.12	1.12
Range		17	26
Minimum		4	34
Maximum		21	60

According to Table 1, the *skewness* values are .13 and -1.12 for pre-test and post-test in the experimental group respectively and the *standard error of skewness* is .58, the two times value of *standard error of skewness* is 1.16 and this value is more than the *skweness* values of pre-test and post-test ;as a result, it may be inferred that normal distribution exists.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR OBTAINED SCORES OF THE CONTROL GROUP

		Pre-test	Post-test
N	Valid	15	15
	Missing	0	0
Mean		10.67	50.67
Std. Error of Mean		1.44	2.49
Median		11.00	54.00
Mode		4a	59
SD		5.58	9.67
Variance		31.23	93.66
Skewness		.57	-1.04
Std. Error of Skewness		.58	.58
Kurtosis		.13	-.30
Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.12	1.12
Range		20	28
Minimum		3	32
Maximum		23	60

As reported by Table 2, the *skewness* values are .57 and -1.04 for pre-test and post-test in the control group respectively and the *standard error of skewness* is .58, the two times value of *standard error of skewness* is 1.16 and this value is more than the *skweness* values of the pre-test and post-test; consequently, the data are distributed normally.

TABLE 3:
RESULTS OF NORMALITY OF TEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

		Pre-test	Post-test
N		15	15
Normal Parameters	Mean	11.73	52.40
	Std. Deviation	5.17	7.88
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.13	.27
	Positive	.09	.16
	Negative	-.13	-.27
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.52	1.06
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.94	.20> p. 0.05

Table 3 shows the results of normality of test; i.e., one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnove (K-S) test, of the experimental group. As shown in these figures, the plots are placed on the hypothetical lines or near to them; consequently, the normal distribution exists. According to the last row, the Asymp. *Sig. (2-tailed)* of both the pre-test and post-test which are .94 and .20 respectively are more than the p. value 0.05; hence, a normal distribution exists and parametric statistics can be used in further calculation.

TABLE 4:
RESULT OF NORMALITY OF TEST OF THE CONTROL GROUP

		pre-test	post-test
N		15	15
Normal Parametersa	Mean	10.67	50.67
	Std. Deviation	5.58	9.67
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.08	.22
	Positive	.08	.16
	Negative	-.08	-.22
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.33	.85
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		1.00	.45

Table 4 indicates the results of *K-S* test of the control group. As it is shown in the last row, the Asymp. *Sig. (2-tailed)* of both pre-test and post-test which are 1.00 and .45 respectively are more than the p. value 0.05; therefore, data are distributed normally and parametric statistics can be used.

In order to determine whether the treatment given to the experimental group had caused any statistically significant change in this group and to determine if the performance of the participants of the experimental group was significantly different from that of the control group, an independent *t*-test was run between the scores of the post-test of both groups.

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POST-TESTS IN BOTH GROUPS

	group	N	M	SD	SEM
achievement	Experimental group	15	52.40	7.88	2.03
	Control group	15	50.67	9.67	2.49

According to Table 5, *mean* and standard deviation of two groups are (M= 52.40, SD=7.88) for the experimental group, and (M= 50.67, SD= 9.67) for the control group respectively. As the results show, the *mean* score of the experimental group is higher than that of the control group; as a result, the experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test. However, to show whether the difference is significant or not a further statistical analysis was needed; therefore, the independent samples *t*-test was conducted.

According to results of the *Levene's* test for equality of variances in the top row of Table 6, the *sig.* value is .49 and greater than .05; as a result, the variability in the two conditions of the study is not significantly different. As displayed in the Table 4.8., the *sig. (2-tailed)* value is .59 and greater than the α value; hence, there was no statistically significant difference between two groups regarding their achievements. So the null hypothesis stating that there is no statistically significant difference between the achievements of learners learning conditional sentences using collaborative discovery learning in the MOODLE environment and in the non-MOODLE environment is maintained.

TABLE 6:
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF THE POST-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)	MD	SED	Lower	Upper
achievement	Equal variances assumed	.47	.49	.53	28	.59	1.73	3.22	-4.86	8.33
	Equal variances not assumed			.53	26.89	.59	1.73	3.22	-4.88	8.34

B. Results Related to the Second Question

Based on the content analysis of the interviews' transcriptions, the findings of the interviews suggested the highly positive attitudes of the participants of the experimental group towards virtual learning; furthermore, interviews data indicated that they adopted positive attitudes towards MOODLE platform. The results of the interviews are summarized with respect to the following questions in the interview protocol:

1. Interview Question One: What is your opinion about virtual learning?

The findings related to this question indicated that the participants really benefited from this kind of learning. They agreed that virtual learning offered them not only many new opportunities which were very different from those of conventional learning, but also helped them to improve their learning. For instance, participant C said that "virtual learning has made the learning process so easy. My language institute is far from my home, I should spend a lot money, time, and energy for commuting; however, I did not have such problems under virtual learning". Interviewee E stated that "regarding the characteristics of virtual learning, I assert that I could access my class from my home just by logging into the MOODLE platform, so it was very convenient that we were not required to leave the house".

2. Interview Question Two: What is your opinion about MOODLE VLE?

All interviewees had positive attitudes towards MOODLE platform. They claimed that different activities and capabilities of MOODLE platform encouraged them to learn better. However, two interviewees said at first they did not have much confidence to work with MOODLE comfortably, but they have certainly gained confidence over few sessions. Regarding question two, interviewee G mentioned that "when I got familiar with the MOODLE environment and all its diverse tools, it would seem that I was motivated to practice and learn more". Interviewee M strongly claimed that "I was not good at working with computer and the Internet. I could not believe that I learnt everything about Moodle just in one hour and I used the MOODLE environment without installing any additional programs".".

3. Interview Question Three: Are you aware of any advantages and disadvantages that might be afforded by training via VLEs like MOODLE?

Majority of the interviewees stated that controlling the pace of learning, employing diverse digital applications, engaging all learners including shy ones in learning, and performing communicative activities out of class time were considered some significant advantages of MOODLE. On the other hand, all participants believed that the most

significant disadvantage would be the bad effect of low internet connectivity on the operation of Adobe Connect live class. Meanwhile, three interviewees complained about unexpected problems in their modems and microphones which hindered their full accessibility to MOODLE modules during a few sessions. The following excerpts taken from the participants' answers indicate the aforementioned results. Participant A said "I found it effective to work in this environment. After the class, recordings were ready over there to be downloaded. If I had any problems, I could use them as if I had taken part in the class again". Interviewee K said that "considering forum, wiki, and assignment, we were comfortable to spend as much as time that we needed to practice conditionals in sentences or revise the opinions of our friends".

4. Interview Question Four: What is your opinion about those activities of MOODLE platform which were used in the course including chat, forum, wiki, assignments, and Adobe Connect live class?

The result of interviews data regarding this question indicated that that the participants expressed positive perceptions towards the activities which were offered via MOODLE platform. Most of them mentioned that they were impressed by some important features of the activities including peer correction, immediate feedback, and diversity of activities. These views are represented in the following interview excerpts. For instance, interviewee I claimed that "personally speaking, when I used wiki and forum, I greatly enjoyed the atmosphere of cooperation among my friends and I. You know, we could interact with each other thorough many new communication technologies". Interviewee J mentioned that "I got much benefit from immediate feedback in the assignment activities and peer correction in the forum and wiki activities. Immediate feedback served me to practice conditional sentences more effectively. On the other hand, peer edition increased my accuracy and attention".

5. Interview Question Five: In your opinion, which type of MOODLE activities that were used in the course are you the most/least interested in? Why?

The interviews findings showed that among the most favored activities, Adobe Connect live class stood first. Moreover, forum, wiki, and assignment activities stood second, third, and fourth after Adobe Connect live class respectively. Finally, all of the participants have used the chat room of Adobe Connect live class; in contrast, just two interviewees took advantage of chatting via chat module besides chat room of Adobe Connect live class. Because of this, chatting through chat module was considered as the least favored activity. There are some interview excerpts that illustrate these results. Participant D claimed that "I consider the Adobe Connect live class as the best activity in the MOODLE environment. During the class, I was forced to speak, listen, type, and read for participating in the activities. I was completely engaged". Interviewee K argued that "Mostly, I was interested in forum and wiki activities for having the chance to express my ideas and to receive the other students' feedbacks".

6. Interview Question Six: Would you recommend your Language Institute offers its learners an opportunity to use virtual learning and MOODLE VLE? How important do you feel this is?

The collected data revealed that all participants strongly believed in numerous advantages of virtual learning MOODLE platform in improving the learning. All the participants acknowledged that if our educational system did not keep up with these new technologies, it would fall behind. Meanwhile, four participants also added that the low quality of the Internet services limited and constricted MOODLE operations; hence, being equipped with suitable internet tools is an important prerequisite for proper and optimum implementation of MOODLE platform in the educational system. These views are indicated in the following interview excerpts. Participant E strongly stated that "I enjoyed my course and it gave me the great satisfaction to know about such learnings and environments". Interviewee L stated that "I'm sure that virtual learning through MOODLE environment helps language students to learn better; therefore, I tried to persuade my language institute to employ it".

V. Conclusion

According to the achieved results of the study, it was found that there is no statistically significant difference between the achievements of learners learning conditional sentences using collaborative discovery learning in the MOODLE environment and in the non-MOODLE environment. Nonetheless, participants of the experimental group performed better as compared to participants of the control group in learning conditional sentences. Furthermore, participants of the experimental group showed positive attitudes towards MOODLE platform and virtual learning. Finally, for probing the impact of collaborative discovery learning in the MOODLE environment and non-MOODLE environment on the achievement of conditional sentences, it should not be forgotten that:

1. We are living in the age of computer and web based technologies. Today the application of these technologies is rapidly changing the world; meanwhile, language education is no an exception.

2. As compared with the non-MOODLE environment, MOODLE environment provides learners with some unique opportunities for a better learning including managing the time and speed of learning, accomplishing distance learning, motivating learners, and enriching learning process.

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Monireh Eskandari, has an M.A. in English teaching and now is teaching at English institutes. Her fields of interest are applied linguistics, computer assisted language learning, and English translation.

Hassan Soleimani is an assistant professor at the University of Payame Noor, Tehran, Iran, where he teaches computer-assisted language learning and EFL curriculum development for Ph.D. candidates, and research methods and language teaching methodology to graduate and undergraduate students. He has written some books, including An Introduction to Non-parametric Statistics for Applied Linguistics Research (2009), and articles in national and international journals. He also serves as the editorial board member of some journals. His areas of interest include research methodology and statistics, curriculum design, and SLA issues.

A Comparative Study of Interpretation Strategies Applied by Tabriz Professional Simultaneous Interpreters in Dealing with Culture-bound Terms

Farshad Hosienpour Asghar Khani
Department of Translation Studies, East Azarbaijan Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Yaser Hadidi
Department of Translation Studies, East Azarbaijan Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Abstract—The present study sought to investigate the most prevailing simultaneous interpretation strategies applied to culture-bound items by a number of professional simultaneous interpreters in Tabriz, Iran. To achieve this aim, 50 English and 50 Farsi culture-bound terms and expressions were selected and put in sentences and short paragraphs as the corpus of the study. These sentences were interpreted by seven professional and experienced interpreters of Tabriz. Kalina's and Pedersen's models were applied for eliciting interpretation strategies within Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) as the framework of the study to compare the strategies applied by interpreters. The results were then put into numerical mode in order to explore the most dominant interpretation strategies as well as the least frequent ones. The main aim of the present study was to explore the best and most common strategies applied by professional interpreters while dealing with culture-bound items. The results indicated that the most dominant strategies applied in interpretation of culture-bound items were Total Equivalence and Specification, while the least used strategies were Rephrasing and Substitution. It was witnessed that the interpreters have got a high tendency towards providing the target audience with extra information of the foreign culture in order to transfer the exact nature of the culture-bound items into target language.

Index Terms—interpreting strategies, simultaneous interpreting, cultural-specific terms, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

Interpreting is a special type of communicative interaction which takes place when members of different language communities engage in cross-language/culture communication. The role of an interpreter becomes more crucial because as a good interpretation can be useful, a bad or a wrong one can be misleading and to some extent dangerous. Thus, interpretation from one language to another cannot be done adequately without knowledge of the two cultures.

Kondo (1990) claims that the interpreter cannot and should not be expected to close such a gap arising from cultural differences of the parties and that he could be regarded as "overstepping himself as an interpreter" if he attempted to do so, which might even cause him to get into trouble depending on the situation (P. 60-64).

This study aims at identifying the strategies used by professional simultaneous interpreters in Tabriz when providing on-the-spot equivalents for culture-bound terms from English to Persian and vice versa.

For this purpose, the researcher selected 50 Farsi and 50 English terms and expressions and asked seven interpreters to interpret them in a defined time. Then each interpretation task was taped and transcribed. Finally, the interpretations were compared in terms of the applied strategies while dealing with culture-bound items.

II. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

The present study is a mixed research (the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research) with descriptive and comparative nature which attempts to investigate the interpretation strategies applied to Culture-bound Terms by Tabriz professional interpreters. It mainly follows a descriptive method.

In order to accomplish this objective a comparative study was conducted to explore the most and least frequent strategies applied in interpreting Culture-bound Terms to see whether there is any difference between them. In addition, the researcher used Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) as the framework of his study, since in this framework the attention is on the completed translations as elements in a large system where the systematic constraints dictate how speeches are interpreted.

III. CORPUS AND SAMPLES/ POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The chosen corpus of the study includes 50 English and 50 Farsi culture-bound terms. All the interpreters were academically educated, and taught different translation courses in universities at the time of conducting this study. Unanimously, all the interpreters were experienced in conference interpretation and simultaneous tasks.

The researcher selected 50 Farsi and 50 English terms and expressions and asked seven interpreters to interpret them in a defined time. Then each interpretation task was taped and transcribed. Finally, the interpretations were compared in terms of the applied strategies while dealing with culture-bound items.

Instruments

The research instruments for this study included a mixture of quantitative and qualitative data analysis. There were also interviews with seven Tabriz Professional Simultaneous Interpreters. This was all based on interpretation theories.

IV. Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

To achieve the purpose of this study the researcher followed a step-by-step procedure as follows:

First, Longman dictionary and the Moein Encyclopedia were partially studied in order to identify Culture-bound terms. Based on the framework of the study 100 terms (50 English terms and 50 Farsi terms) were selected from these dictionaries and then put in two forms namely, short paragraphs and individual sentences.

Then, a questionnaire was designed and spread to be filled out by seven professional interpreters from Tabriz in order to classify them and find out some of the factors that might be influential on their interpreting ability. This questionnaire contained various questions about the sex, age and the level of the education of the respondents.

In the third step, the sentences were interpreted by the interpreters simultaneously. Then all the speeches were recorded and transcripted in a notebook by the researcher. Afterwards, the corresponding equivalents of the original culture-bound terms were extracted and scrutinized.

Forth, culture-bound terms and their corresponding equivalents from different interpretations were compared and contrasted to elicit the strategies applied for their interpretation according to the model proposed by Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007).

Fifth, a table of specifications was provided for the Corpus that depicted the culture-bound terms and the strategy types used by the interpreters.

Finally, the overall frequencies of strategies were elicited to determine the most and least frequently used strategies by the interpreters.

V. Discussion

This study used Kalina's (1998) and Pedersen's (2007) classification as the framework to analyze the interpretation strategies applied in rendering culture-bound items.

Cultural Item		
Strategies	**Mistakes**	**Omissions**
• Total equivalence: (equivalent translation or phonological reproduction) • Partial equivalence • Rephrasing (use of pronouns etc.) • Specification / expansion • Generalization	• Substitution • Incorrect phonological reproduction	

As mentioned in previous parts the researcher limited the study into culture-bound items. Some scholars have classified CSIs into a number of specified categories. In order to make the analysis more systematic, the study's interview questioner relies on Peter Newmark's categorization (1988) which groups cultural words into five categories:

1. Ecology (flora, fauna, winds, etc.)
2. Material culture (artifacts, food, clothes, houses and towns, transport)
3. Social culture (work and leisure)
4. Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, ideas (political, social, legal, religious or artistic)
5. Gestures and habits (p. 94-103).

Total Equivalence

The respondents provided an equivalent translation for the items, i.e. the cultural items were fully translated or transferred to the TT by conveying the complete original meanings. This tactic was applied by the interpreters in two main ways: first, through transcoding (Kalina, 1998, p. 118), i.e. by repeating full proper names correctly via using a standard translation or "official equivalent" of the items, which Pedersen (2007) describes as follows:

For there to be an Official Equivalent, some sort of official decision by people in authority over an extra- linguistic Culture-bound reference is needed […] (p. 4).

Secondly, by opting for a phonological reproduction (retention) of the items (when understandable by a Persian audience). According to Pedersen (2007), retention is the most ST-oriented strategy, as it allows an element in the SL to "enter" the TL.

The majority of the selected items have been interpreted by this strategy.

The examples from this category are as follows:

Ex.1: *Squeamish person* in English means:

Easily shocked or upset, or easily made to feel sick by seeing unpleasant things.

The same concept of this idiom may be expressed by different words in another language and these two concepts may be equivalent culturally, though not lexically.

For this word the interpreters have picked up the equivalents:

"آدم زود رنج"، "نازک نارنجی"، "آدم وسواس"، "زود چندشم میشه".

It is inferred that according to Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007), most of the interpreters have preferred to choose a total equivalence strategy for an existing idiom, because all them correctly used an official equivalent of the items.

Ex.2: *Drizzle* in English means:

Weather that is a combination of light and mist.

For this word the interpreters have picked up the equivalents:

"باران ملایم"، "بارش پراکنده"، "نم نم".

This word inter-bounds with ecology. According to Newmark (1988), Ecology items are referred to cultural words. It seems that according to Kalina and Pedersen most of the interpreters have preferred to choose a total equivalence to an exciting item.

Ex.3: *Korsi* in Persian means:

چهار پایه ای پهن ، کوتاه و چهارگوش که در زمستان در زیر آن منقل می گذارند و بر رویش لحاف اندازند و در زیر آن خود را گرم کنند.

("Korsi" is a stool under which a lighted brazier is placed over which a big quilt is spread. People put their lower part of their bodies under the quilt to be heated.)

Analysis show that Korsi has not been rendered. Maybe it is because of the existing cultural gap between Persian and English. For this word some interpreters have picked up the equivalents, "Korsi". Transference of the above word isn't informative enough in the TL. Therefore, they don't communicate with the TL audience. This word is inter-bound with Iranian material culture. Again, it seems that according to Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007) the interpreters have preferred to choose a total equivalence strategy to an exciting item.

Ex.4:

The problem, however, remains with the religious concepts which are not common between Islam and Christianity.

The word *"trinity"* is inter-bound with Christian religion. According to Longman dictionary (2006) , Trinity is one of the main doctrines of Christians, and, the union of father, son and Holy Spirit in one God.

According to Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007), in Persian the interpreters has picked up the equivalent, *تثلیث*, and therefore they preferred to choose Total equivalence strategy, because this equivalence conveying the complete original meaning.

Partial Equivalence

The respondents omitted one or more redundant elements without changing the meaning layers of the items (e.g. the shortened version of years). Some examples from this category are as follow.

Ex.5:

The Persian speakers say:

هر چی خاک اون مرحومه بقای عمر شما باشد.

In a Muslim society like Iran which is based on strong belief in life after. Therefore, Iranians do pray for the person died and ask God to forgive his/her sins, and wish happier life for her/his family. According to Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007), the interpreter has picked up the equivalent, *"You live longer",* and therefore they preferred to choose partial strategy, because they omitted one redundant element without changing the meaning contents of the cultural items; and of course this equivalent is informative enough in the TC.

Ex.6:

The word (علیه السلام) ائمه in Persian means:

A Muslim religious leader

When the Shia refer to Imam, they normally add "peace be upon him" ("'alayhis salām") after that. But the interpreters just used Imam as an equivalent for ائمه (علیه السلام). So according to Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007), they omitted one or more redundant elements and therefore they preferred to choose partial strategy.

Rephrasing

The participants obtained an equivalent translation by using pronouns and other semantic elements, or by changing the order of the elements in the TT (e.g. saying "him" instead of full name). No sample of this strategy could be found in this corpus.

Specification

The participants added some extra information that was not included in the original ST, further specifying the cultural items. This strategy is defined by Kalina (1998) as "Expansion" (p. 119). Some examples from this category are as follows;

Ex.7:

Korsi in Persian means:

چهار پایه ای پهن ، کوتاه و چهارگوش که در زمستان در زیر آن منقل می گذارند و بر رویش لحاف اندازند و در زیر آن خود را گرم کنند.

("Korsi" is a stool under which a lighted brazier is placed over which a big quilt is spread. People put their lower part of their bodies under the quilt to be heated.)

This word is inter-bound with Iranian material culture. For this word some interpreters have picked up the equivalents, *"Traditional oven named Korsii"*, *"A kind of coal stove heater named Korsi"*. Therefore, they added some extra information that is not present in SL, and made the culture-bound term more specific than SL. Using both transference and paraphrase provides the target readers with enough information and therefore interpreters will communicate appropriately with the target receiver.

It seems that according to Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007) the interpreters have preferred to choose a Specification strategy to an exciting item.

Ex.8:

The idiom: آب پشت مسافر می ریختند.

In Persian means:

آبی که پس از رفتن عزیزی به مسافرت پشت سر آن بر زمین می ریزند.

This is an inter-bound with Iranian culture and there is no equivalence in English and the interpreters used "they convoyed the passengers by splashing water when they left house." This job is not natural in the TC, therefore adding paraphrase to the transference will help the Target audience to have a coherent interpretation. So, according to Kalina and Pedersen, the interpreter has used Specification strategy.

Ex.9:

The word من تبریز which refers to the weighing scale in Tabriz, and is equal to 3 kg.

There is no equivalent for this scale in English, so most of the responding interpreters added some extra information that is not present in SL, and made the culture bound-term more specific than SL. They also used, *"Tabriz unit of weight, Man as weighing scale in Tabriz, Tabriz unit of weight"* as the equivalents for this culturally bound item. So, according to Kalina and Pedersens statements, the interpreters have used Specification strategy.

Generalization

This strategy means "replacing a cultural item referring to something specific by something more general". In other words, the respondents substituted a cultural item with a more general one.

Ex.10:

Problems with the religious concepts which are not common between Islam and Christianity are challenging for the interpreters to render into Persian and vice versa.

The word *"God as the Father"* is a title is given to God in modern monotheist religions, such as Christianity, Judaism and Bahai, in part he is viewed as having an active interest in human affairs, in the way that a father would take an interest in his children who are dependent on him.

In Persian some interpreters used خالق هستی , خداوند, as the equivalent for "God the Father".

So, according to Kalina's and Pedersen's statements, the interpreters have applied Generalization Strategy. Because they produced an equivalence in target language that is less specific than the SL item.

Ex.11:

Ham in English means:

The upper part of a pig's leg, or the meat from this that has been preserved with salt or smoke.

In Persian the interpreters used همبرگر ، فیله ، ژامبون as an equivalent for trinity. As it's obvious, the word substituted a cultural item with a more general one because the pig's meat in Islam is Haram (religiously forbidden), so the interpreters applied Kalina's (1998) and Pedersen's (2007) Generalization strategy.

Substitution

The interpreter removed the cultural item and substituted it with an incorrect one due to an error in comprehension or translation, thereby changing the connotative meanings conveyed by the ST.

In other words, this strategy involves removing the SL cultural item and replacing it with something else, either a different cultural item or some sort of paraphrase, which does not necessarily involve a cultural item. This is illustrated in these examples;

Ex.12:

The word *Bat Mitzvah* is an inter-bound term with the Jewish religious. Bat Mitzvah in Longman dictionary means: "a religious ceremony held when a Jewish girl reaches the age of 13 and is considered an adult in her religious."

In Persian some interpreters used خفاش میتزوا as equivalent for bat Mitzvah.

It seems that these interpreters substituted the word with an incorrect equivalent due to an error in understanding the meaning of this word. Therefore the SL cultural item is removed and replaced by a different one.

So, according to Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007), these interpreters have used a substitution strategy.

Ex. 13:

Redemption in English means:

The state of being freed from the power of evil, believed by Christian to be made possible by Jesus Christ.

This word is related to Christianity. Our analysis showed that an interpreter picked up تلاش as an equivalent for this word. So, it seems that this interpreter substituted the cultural item with an incorrect one which doesn't convey the

religious sense of the SL. Therefore, according to Kalina's and Pedersen's statements, the interpreter has used substitution strategy.

Incorrect Phonological Reproduction

Incorrect pronunciation of a name (where a completely different name was invented), thereby causing the loss of the relevant information and the transfer of different information to that originally provided.

No sample of this strategy could be found in this corpus.

Omissions

As Kalina (1998) points out, omissions can be either strategic or non-strategic. The former are a way for the interpreter to "filter" and carry out a selection of the essential elements of the SL, especially if some of them are redundant. The latter involves the loss of information. Since no strategic omission was identified in the TL representing the subject of this study, only non-strategic omissions have been examined (p. 120).

Ex.14:

The word *Advent* in Longman dictionary means: "the period of four weeks before Christian religion."

In Persian some interpreters haven't rendered this word. This might be because of the interpreter's lack of information about the source culture. So, according to Kalina (1998) and Pedersen (2007) the interpreter has used Omission strategy.

It seems that an interpreter may choose omission responsibly, after rejecting all strategies to save him/her the trouble of looking up something she/he does not know.

Discuusion

Extracting CSIs and their pertinent translation strategies by each interpreter, the number of the strategies used in translations are calculated and represented in the following table:

TABLE 4.1:
FREQUENCY OF INTERPRETATION STRATEGIES APPLIED BY INTERPRETERS

Strategy	Frequency of Strategies Used by Interpreter1	Frequency of Strategies Used by Interpreter 2	Frequency of Strategies Used by Interpreter 3	Frequency of Strategies Used by Interpreter4	Frequency of Strategies Used by Interpreter 5	Frequency of Strategies Used by Interpreter 6	Frequency of Strategies Used by Interpreter 7
Total Equivalence	42	48	44	51	44	41	42
Partial Equivalence	2	2	1	1	2	2	1
Rephrasing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Specification	34	14	29	30	27	14	38
Generalization	13	20	17	13	20	10	11
Substitution	7	7	5	5	5	4	2
Incorrect Phonological Reproduction	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Omissions	2	9	4	0	2	29	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Below is dedicated to the analysis of the total strategies which are adopted by simultaneous interpreters by putting the numerical data in separate table and displaying them in a graph for more clear understanding.

TABLE 4.2:
PERCENTAGE OF INTERPRETATION STRATEGIES APPLIED BY INTERPRETERS

Strategy	Percentage of Strategies Used by Interpreter1	Percentage of Strategies Used by Interpreter 2	Percentage of Strategies Used by Interpreter 3	Percentage of Strategies Used by Interpreter4	Percentage of Strategies Used by Interpreter 5	Percentage of Strategies Used by Interpreter 6	Percentage of Strategies Used by Interpreter 7
Total Equivalence	42 %	48 %	44 %	51 %	44 %	41 %	42 %
Partial Equivalence	2 %	2 %	1 %	1 %	2 %	2 %	1 %
Rephrasing	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %
Specification	34 %	14 %	29 %	30 %	27 %	14 %	38 %
Generalization	13 %	20 %	17 %	13 %	20 %	10 %	11 %
Substitution	7 %	7 %	5 %	5 %	5 %	4 %	2 %
Incorrect Phonological Reproduction	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %
Omissions	2 %	9 %	4 %	0 %	2 %	29 %	6 %
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Among the strategies applied by simultaneous interpreters, the strategy of total equivalence has 312 frequency (44%), the strategy of Partial equivalence has 11 frequency (2%), the strategy of Rephrasing has 0 frequency (0%), the strategy of Generalization has 104 frequency (15%), the strategy of Substitution has 35 frequency (5%), the strategy of Incorrect phonological reproduction has 0 frequency (0%) and the strategy of omissions has 52 frequency (7%).

Among the whole strategies, the two strategies used in the rendering of culture-bound terms namely, total equivalence (312) and Specification (186) have the most frequencies.

Total equivalence and specification are two main strategies that were used in dealing with culture bound items; the main reason might be that the interpreters want to be closer to the culture of target audiences.

To arrive at a conclusion about the strategies applied by interpreters in dealing with a culture-bound item, a close study was done. Almost 50 English culture-bound terms and 50 Persian culture-bound terms were selected, scrutinized and compared carefully.

According to the tables presented in this part, the results mentioned in the below table were logical and expected. Rendering Culture-specific terms is so important, because rendering metalinguistic concepts of these terms can convey the role and customs to the audience's culture.

Therefore, the interpreters should bear in their mind that the concepts and meanings must be comprehensible for the target culture and audience.

TABLE 4.5:
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OVERALL TENDENCIES OF INTERPRETATION STRATEGIES APPLIED BY INTERPRETERS

Strategy	Frequency Of Strategies Used By Interpreters	Percentage of Strategies Used by Interpreters
Total Equivalence	312	44 %
Partial Equivalence	11	2 %
Rephrasing	0	0 %
Specification	186	27 %
Generalization	104	15 %
Substitution	35	5 %
Incorrect Phonological Reproduction	0	0 %
Omissions	52	7 %
Total	700	100 %

Analyzing the above table, it should be noticed that strategies "total equivalence" and "specification" are among the most frequently used ones in the simultaneous interpretation of cultural bound items.

The strategies, "Rephrasing", "Substitution" are used less than the other ones.

In other words, the above table proves that among all the usages of strategies proposed by Kalina and Pedersen, the interpreters in most cases used Total Equivalence and Specification strategies. These strategies were applied mostly in the cases in which the interpreters had considered the TL more than SL.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study was an attempt to compare the frequency of the strategies applied to culture-bound terms by professional interpreters in Tabriz.

Content analysis of the study showed that the dominant strategies were total equivalence with 312 frequencies, Specification with 186 frequencies and Generalization with 104 frequencies.

Among the least frequent strategies were the Rephrasing with 0 frequency and Incorrect phonological reproduction with 0 frequency. The obtained results also answered the research questions. Most of the interpreters provided the target audience with extra information of the foreign culture, in other words they promote the foreign culture.

Most of the interpreters provided the target audience with extra information about the foreign culture and they promoted the foreign culture. The findings of this study approved that most of the interpreters have tendency towards TL and they mainly used the strategy that benefits most target audiences.

We figure out from the findings of the content analysis that there aren't too significant differences in the interpreters' strategies, because among the strategies, the total equivalence and specification were applied by most of the interpreters. So, it indicates that the interpreters attempt to transfer into the TL the complete original information and allow the elements in the SL enter the TL.

The lower frequency of rephrasing, incorrect phonological and higher percentage of total equivalence and specification indicate that the interpreters tried to find the exact equivalence and otherwise to add more information about those terms. And for religious, most of the interpreters preferred the religious notions to be replaced by Islamic ones or to be generalized. Using both transference and paraphrase provides the target audience with enough information in limited time and the problem with comprehension of culture-bound items will be solved. Therefore they will communicate appropriately with the target audiences.

In conclusion, by comparing and analyzing of strategies which applied by Tabriz Professional Simultaneous Interpreters in Dealing with Culture-bound Terms, the researcher found that the eligible interpretation is depends on interpreter's understandings of the cultural elements exist in the source language and the norms active either in source language or target language.

The findings of this study can help translation and interpretation students to recognize culture-bound terms and their importance in the texts and speeches.

This research also presents Kalina's (1998) and Pedersen's (2007) model for interpretation strategies as an appropriate model in investigating the impact of sociocultural constraints on interpretation.

Regarding the delimitations, this research would be conducted more effectively, reach more accurate results, and obtain applicable recommendations were it not restricted to the feedback of listeners only.

In other words, a more comprehensive approach to the research would include insights and reflections of what the interpreters tend to do when rendering idioms and culturally bound terms and expressions, as well as how they decide to choose one strategy over another.

It would also enhance the methodology if the research tested different interpretations of specific numbers of idioms and culture-bound expressions using different interpretation strategies to see which strategy is more effective and more acceptable.

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Farshad Hosienpour Asghar Khani was born in Urmia, Iran, on July 10, 1990. He is an M.A. candidate of Translation Studies at Science and Research University of Tabriz, Iran. He lives in Urmia and received his B.A. in the field from Payamnoor University of Urmia, Iran in 2013. He has been teaching for over 4 years such various courses of EFL at some English institutes. His main areas of interest include simultaneous interpretation, audiovisual translation and cross-cultural translation.

Yaser Hadidi was born in Khoy, Iran on September 11, 1980. He holds a PhD in English Teaching from the University of Tehran. His main areas of interest include Discourse Analysis in its different manifestations, especially Linguistic Stylistics of Prose Fiction, of the English novel text in particular, using Michael Halliday's Systemic Functional framework.

August Wilson's Otherness in *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*

Hongmei Zhang

College English Department, Foreign Languages College, Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot, China

Abstract—**August Wilson's twentieth century cycle including "*Joe Turner's Come and Gone*" concentrates for the most part on the lives and experiences of his black characters; but because their lives are inseparable from those of white Americans, Wilson's work also consistently examines whiteness through a black perspective. This paper studies his work's deep involvement with his Racial Other.**

Index Terms—**August Wilson, otherness, whiteness**

I. AUGUST WILSON'S POSITION IN AMERICAN THEATER

August Wilson was a major American dramatist of the twentieth century. This paper studies his work's deep involvement with his Racial Other. Nathan Huggins claims this co-dependency between white and black Americans as, "black and white Americans have been so long and so intimately a part of another's experience that, will it or not, they cannot be understood independently. Each has needed the other to help define himself" (Huggins, 1971, p. 11). So in this study, I examine how a black writer might understand and portray whiteness.

August Wilson comes from a racially-mixed family background. While he is half-white, his self-identification as "black" enables us to discuss white Americans as his Racial Other. Wilson's next instance of self-definition is more problematic; he denies the influence of any Anglo-American or European writer on his work by decidedly situating himself in African-American literary traditions. Wilson's personal experiences as a black American have also impacted his artistic outlook on life. In "Breaking Barriers," Yvonne Shafer mentions some of these encounters with the white world: "As a child Wilson suffered the effects of racism in America: when his family tried to move into a mostly white neighborhood, bricks were thrown through the windows and when he went to a largely white high school, white students left ugly, racist notes on his desk" (Shafer, 1995, p. 268). because of these and other similar enraging incidents, Wilson began identifying himself as a "race man".

The first significant August Wilson play, *Ma Rainer's Black Bottom* (1984) manifests the playwright's racial vision with more or less one-dimensional characters. Wilson's most fascinating authorial decision, however, was to broaden the scope of his white portraiture with numerous offstage white characters whose overall significance is underlined through storytelling—the narratives blacks on stage share with each other. August Wilson starts to employ offstage characters to mirror the outside white world bearing down on the blacks early before *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*. It seems that Wilson intentionally restricts whiteness in order to focus on the black characters. While this strategy implies that, despite of their absence, whites still command the lives of blacks (Yvonne Shafer. 1994. p.281). Wilson interprets to Kim Powers this strategy in an interview thus:

The off-stage white characters in all of the plays should ideally make you feel this presence of white American in the play and how it affects the lives of black Americans. I think it was after *Joe Turner*, I decided, hey, I don't need white characters on stage. Once I put black Americans on stage in their cultural milieu of the particular decade, I had white America. I don't need to have any white characters because I have a representation, because the characters are continuously struggling. They're struggling for dignity; they are struggling to feed their families; they are struggling to live a clean, hard and useful life. There are all these things that are forcing their way in on them. So I don't need the white characters, and that's why they are all off-stage characters. (Power, 1984, p. 52)

August Wilson's whiteness in his plays should set to rest the postcolonial scholar Gaystri Spivak's apprehensions about the silence of the subaltern, as Wilson exemplifies the intellectual speaking out the subordinate point of view. Wilson's political commitment to his racial community demonstrates itself particularly in the historical task he has dedicated himself to: the twentieth-century cycle of plays he intends to write which explores the African-American experience in that century. In the following parts, I will undertake a thematic analysis of August Wilson's racial vision in *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*.

II. OTHERNESS IN *JOE TURNER'S COME AND GONE*

A. Whiteness Means Economic Power and Economic Exploitation

From *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*, we can easily see that in Wilson's drama world economic property of whites determine their economic exploitation of blacks. With economic power in hand, whites can destroy other people's lives for their welfare.

Joe Turner's Come and Gone (1986) presents the lives of African-Americans in a Pittsburgh boarding house in the early 20th century. The black owners of the establishment, its residents, and the travelers frequenting it while on their personal quests, frame the dramatic interest in Joe Turner. Among these displaced black characters dwells one white man, Rutherford Selig. He is a peddler, who provides raw materials to Seth, the owner of the boarding house, and sells finish products to blacks in the town. Though the business transactions between Selig and black people seem to be legitimate, the relationship between them implies the one between the capital and the labor. The main difference between the whites and the blacks lies in that the former possess property while the latter can only toil for the white.

However, we can tell Selig from other whites. He is different from other characters in Wilson's plays. He is always popular in the black boarding house. Bertha will greet Selig with warm words every time: "Sit on down there, Selig. Get you a cup of coffee and a biscuit" (7), and "You know you welcome anytime, Selig" (11). It feels like Selig is a popular and inseparable part of the black community. While there is a fact or background which should not be forgot: Rutherford Selig is one of the "People Finders", who are involved in slave-trade business or in pursuing and capturing escaping slaves. Selig keeps tracks of all his customers so as to find them one day for other whites. Selig comes from a family that has been hostile to Africans and later African-Americans. Though he seemingly turns a blind eye to this fact, his legal business has a history behind dating back to slavery. Selig's forefathers targeted blacks for their material gains. In this regard, Selig's business comes down in one line with his ancestors.

Nonetheless, August Wilson himself contends that Selig is more or less positive portrait of whiteness in Kim Powers's interview:

I like Selig. I like the idea that he's a People Finder. I think one point I like, given his history which was the history of basically whites with blacks—his grandfather used to hunt down runaway slaves—in that Selig voices this without apology, as a fact of life. This is the way things were, and he very ironically then tells Loomis, "You're in good hands, mister. Me and my daddy caught a lot of runaway slaves." I like Selig; I like his honesty; I like his straightforwardness. I like the fact that he presents himself without apology. He's also welcome into the house. "Sit down, Selig, have a biscuit. Where you going? Oh, here, I've got some cabbage and tomatoes," etc. So there's no animosity; there's no nothing coming from the black characters toward him or the fact that his grandfather used to catch runaway slaves. There's none of that. Everyone can accept people on their own term; he is a very nice man. (Powers.1984.p.55)

As the absent off-stage white characters, Selig's father and grandfather help us get some clues of the capital-labor relationship between whites and blacks. Other off-stage white characters also play inseparable roles in reflecting whiteness in *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*. Take Jeremy for example. As a white man, he lives in the black boarding house. He shouts out his indignation when he witnesses the blackmail by the off-stage white guy in his workplace. The white blackmailer threatens that the black workers will lose their jobs if they refuse to give him fifty cents a week for no reason. Jeremy dare not to comply and stands up at the risk of losing his job. Jeremy's confront reveals that black Americans are vulnerable in this business society.

Storytelling is central to Wilson's work, as it is to African-American literature in general. Black oral narratives, traceable to Africa and later to slave communities in America, function as "communal strategies—community creating and community enhancing": they instill social values and a unique world view (Stepto 125). Most of the narratives about whiteness in Wilson's dramatic world enforce a dualistic perspective by dissociating the white from the black and underlines the negative impact of the white men in the black world.

Joe Turner is the off-stage eponymous white character who haunts the whole play, thus exemplifying once more the significance of such characters in Wilson's work. The title of the play comes form a blues song about the historical Joe Turner, who kidnapped black men to work on his plantation as slaves for seven years. Turner was said to have a close relation with the Governor of Tennessee. He could possess and exploit blacks to work for him without worrying about being punished. Herald Loomis unluckily falls into his prey list. A deacon, he has been separated from his wife and his family as well as his sense of self because of these lost years he has spent in bondage. When he arrives at Seth's boarding house with his daughter, he is, on the surface, searching for his long-lost wife; yet the ultimate object of his quest in his identity. Actually Turner stands for racism and repression. He is not just a man, but a force, looming over Loomis's past, present and his future. Loomis carries Turner with him all the way in his life journey, which extends the destructive influence of whites among blacks. Trudier Harris comments further on the role of Turner thus:

Turner looms over Loomis's past, his present, and his future. As an archetypal symbol of racism and repression, he is not simply a man, but a force. He resents the evil that takes away all the potential identified with black men, whether that evil historically took the form of slavery, sharecropping, or convict labor as a result of being jailed without any semblance of due process. He represents the collective failure of American democracy for all black people, the dismissal of the race from the American dream. It is not necessary for Turner to appear as a character in the play for the destructive history of his collective representation to be felt. As long as Herald Loomis lives, so will Joe Turner. (1994. p. 56)

The destructive history in this play is the haunting history white America has imprinted on black Americans.

Whiteness, as I will discuss in the following parts, has many evil attributes in Wilson's drama, but its predominant quality for the playwright is that of economic power derived from proprietorship and its aftereffect, economic exploitation. Whites take it for granted that blacks are free and cheap labor even after the Abolition. Even now African Americans still have a long way to go, to fight for their economic independence and equality.

B.   Whiteness Is Social Privilege

Social privilege of whiteness is Wilson's dramatic universe extends far beyond the reach of property and capital. The white Americans in Wilson's plays also enjoy social privilege, which derives purely from their skin color. American society, while it welcomes whites with open arms, offering them a fair chance at the American dream, denies African-American opportunities simply because of their race. August Wilson has consistently criticized this social inequality, which he claims has its roots in Christianity.

In *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*, Wilson reminds his audience once again how all the privileges in American society have gone to the white men. Seth, the owner of the boarding-house, warns the others of the fate of the newly-freed blacks who "drop everything and head North looking for freedom": "They don't know the white fellows looking too. White fellows coming from all over the world. White fellow come over and in six months got more than what I got" (6). The American dream is thus not earned on merit, but on race. People's skills and hard work have little to do with the benefits they reap; their social success in America is purely determined by the color of their skin.

Joe Turner carries on some of the other Wilson themes from earlier plays. Like *Ma Rainey*, it upholds the view that Christianity is the white man's religion. Its protagonist Herald Loomis, who has served as a deacon before he was captured by the infamous Joe Turner, now ironically compares Jesus Christ with an overseer.Having experienced slavery firsthand, Loomis understands how Christianity has served and furthered the interests of his oppressors, as critic Kim Pereira observes. Having experienced slavery firsthand, Loomis understands how Christianity has served and furthered the interests of his oppressors, as Pereira observes:

…in Loomis's mind, it is the church, not he, that has sinned. Christianity is at the root of many of his problems and the problems of his people. White Christian men sold black Africans into slavery and the white God, Jesus Christ, in whose name and under whose protective banner plantation owners exploited their cotton-picking slaves, blessed his white disciples for their efforts. (1995. p. 78)

Worshipping the image of your oppressor puts you in a double-bind. Consequently, Herald Loomis, after he is reunited with his wife Martha, has to achieve self-sufficiency, and has to learn not to seek help from symbols of whiteness. Therefore, Loomis "*slashes himself across the chest*" and bleeds (for) himself rather than empower "the white man's God" for having suffered, bled, and died for the sake of humanity (93). If Loomis can become his own God, he will have no further use for Christianity. *Joe Turner's Come and Gone* can thus be interpreted as espousing the same self-sufficiency to its black audiences by showing them how to end the social privilege of whiteness approved by the church. Sandra Shannon, too, argues that the Shiny Man whom Bynum is searching for in the play "is the African alternative to what August Wilson calls 'the white man's God'"(*Dramatic Vision* 137). To abolish the white man's privileged status in society, black Americans need to replace one of the main symbols of his power with their own God.

As seen in this play, black Americans perceive whiteness to be stickily associated with social privilege even in the absence of economic power. According to Wilson, American society is so structured that citizens with fair skins have superb advantages over those with darker skins who are harshly marginalized, exploited, and abused by the system. Race, because it is often a distinct indicator, has for a long time been used to privilege one group over another. From the beginning, Anglo-Americans have implanted this order by manipulating the teachings of Christianity to suit their own interests. For this reason, Wilson favors substituting an African God for the "white man's God"—a crucial off-stage character who, nevertheless, looms over Loomis's past and present. However, as we will see in the next part, the privilege of whiteness stretches to more than just religious or social authority, and merely replacing the white image of Christ with an African God will not once and for all eradicate the white's heightened status in America.

C.   Whiteness Stands for Law

In his depiction of whiteness, August Wilson often underlines the legal power Euro-Americans exercise over black Americans. The white sheriffs, police officers, and judges persecute and prosecute the African-American characters mostly wrongfully. The clash between these authority figures and the numerous black characters who have been victimized by the legal system points to how law has a white and ugly face in the black imagination. In *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*, Wilson emphasizes the fine but essential distinction between law and justice, between legality and legitimacy. What is considered lawful by the power structure is indeed unjust and erodes the black characters' faith in the system.

A temporary resident at Seth's boarding house, Jeremy in Joe Turner's Come and Gone is one of these men who run into trouble with the law for no good reason. Jeremy has been arrested by "Mr. Piney's boys" (off-stage characters) and fined two dollars for hanging around in the streets. The strict Seth decides that Jeremy must have deserved the punishment whereas his wife Bertha accepts Jeremy's explanation and comments, "You know the police do that. Figure there's too many people out on the street they take some of them off" (13). What Bertha does no state, though, is that the only people the police remove from the streets in Wilson's world are black men. These arrests reveal how Euro-Americans grip the power they have access to through the laws they have implemented in their own favor. In an interview with Bill Moyers, August Wilson remarked that "the most valuable blacks were the ones in prison." The warrior spirit they possess has landed them in jail because "Refusing to lie down and die, these men of destiny fought for what was denied them" (Pereira.1995.p.33).

Wilson's black men interpret their position as one of entrapment. They are held in invisible chains, and all of their

actions are subject to investigation by law enforcement. Any excuse can be and is used to keep them under scrutiny. The police officers with any suspicion about a black man would rather arrest him than allow for the possibility, no matter how remote, that he might commit a wrongful deed in the future. Therefore, the golden principle of the American legal system, that one is presumed innocent until proven guilty, clearly does not apply to black citizens. African-Americans are instead presumed guilty by the system until they can prove their innocence. The distrust, if not the open hostility, of the officers of the law against African-American men is met with an equal distrust of the black men for the system. The oppressive white power alienates its black citizens further by tightening its control over them by more unjust means. The plight of black Americans thus includes unlawful victimization as well as a constant panic over the probable threat of law enforcers.

August Wilson's perspective on the American legal system is fiercely negative. *Joe Turner's Come and Gone* is peopled with many off-stage agents of law: judges, sheriffs, and police officers, all of them white and male, none of them portrayed in a favorable light. They are representatives of a corrupt system which exploits and undermines the weak. In order to drive this point home, Wilson follows a distinctive pattern: August Wilson upholds his black characters' interpretation of events, almost the only version of "truth" the audience receives in this play. Therefore, although one might reasonably assume that the law would apply equally to both blacks and whites, that never appears to be the case in Wilson's plays. The playwright insists many times in his work that African-Americans cannot receive justice unless they can pay the right price. Law is thus revealed to be another instrument of establishment to protect the interests of the white race and to overbear its racial Other. In August Wilson's imaginative world, law is white, but it is very much stained.

III. CONCLUSION

August Wilson's twentieth century cycle including "*Joe Turner's Come and Gone*" concentrates for the most part on the lives and experiences of his black characters; but because their lives are inseparable from those of white Americans, Wilson's work also consistently examines whiteness through a black perspective. They appear everywhere and enjoy pervasive control. They are almost always evil and male. Moreover, the white characters in his earlier plays *Joe Turner* set in the 1910s, for example, do not differ significantly from those in the later plays for instance, *Two Trains Running* set in the late 1960s. In other words, the playwright sustains a homogeneous position on whiteness; he emphasizes in his plays the economic, social and judicial dominance of whites in America. Most importantly, whiteness for Wilson equals economic power and economic exploitation.

Although the basis of Wilson's white portraiture is historically accurate (After all, whites did and still do have economic power in American society; they have exploited blacks for centuries; they do have social privilege and dominate the government as well as the judicial system), it is curious why he refuses to admit any positive traits in white Americans. The closest Wilson gets to inventing a not-stereotypical white character is Selig who, nevertheless, has his own direct connections to slavery and thus inhabits a contradictory social identity in the black community of *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*.

Such labeling of whiteness positions the black against the white and hypothesizes that the (black) Self is what the (white) Other is not. One is the victim; the other the aggressor. One is vulnerable; the other is in charge. One is good; the other is evil. One racial group is thus defined and understood through its radical difference from another racial group. Of course, these stereotypes inevitably raise questions about their reliability.Despite evidence to the contrary, Wilson assured Dinah Livingston (1987. p. 31) during an interview that "I don't write from a wellspring of bitterness. I write from a very positive viewpoint of black life and black experience". African-American critics, too, maintain similar interpretations of Wilson's work. For instance, Sandra Shannon (1996. p. 6-7) declares that Wilson does not "focus upon blaming white America for the conditions under which blacks live but instead…the underlying emotional scars blacks bear". Likewise, Regina Taylor (1996. p. 23) argues that Wilson doesn't blame on American racism and claim that African Americans are victim, he just tells the facts. It is plain, nevertheless, where Wilson's indictments fall.

The misconception in white literary circles that August Wilson is a non-threatening black artist for white theater-goers is not only naïve but also perilous since it reveals a certain, maybe even deliberate, misreading. Compared to black playwright of the 1960s who produced "bitter, vituperative dramas" and "literally drove the white audiences out of the theatre" (Shafer, "New Appraoch"17-18), Wilson, who claims to have come out of this tradition "chooses a toned-down version of their more sensational attempts at didacticism" (Shannon, *Dramatic Vision* 6).

Although Wilson might not be as overt in his criticism of white society as Amiri Baraka is, criticism is still an essential ingredient of Wilson art. When read carefully and closely, Wilson's plays undeniably reveal a negative approach to white America. It is peculiar how white audiences can find Wilson's art safe when they are being constantly vilified by the characters on stage.

August Wilson's safety net could easily come from this dramatic device: when confronted, he or his black characters might defend themselves by claiming, "I wasn't talking to you" even when they were. Of course, this strategy serves equally well the needs of Wilson's white audience, some of whom might prefer to ignore the unpleasant remarks about themselves. Unlike other black playwrights who still haven't "made it," August Wilson's success on Broadway and in dramatic circles may be due in part to this non-confrontational writing style. Another component of white audiences' blissful reading of Wilson may be the humor Wilson so amply employs in his plays. The humor, which may not come

across as strongly on the page as it does on stage, also helps explain why audiences may be willing to ignore the bitterness hiding behind the mask of comedy Wilson's black characters adopt in order to better deal with their difficult lives.

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Hongmei Zhang (1975-), female, MA of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, Inner Mongolia University, 2008. She is currently a lecturer and she has been teaching College English since. She is interested in Literature, especially in American modern theater and she ever did research on this field in the United States through the years of 2007 and 2008. She has published a number of articles on literature and philosophy.

A Generic Assessment of Persian Translations of English Fairy Tales and Fairy Tales Written in Persian: From a Cultural Perspective

Reza Biria

Department of English, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Marzieh Asefi Najaf Abadi

Department of English, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—**It is a commonly held belief that fairy tales as a major literary genre play a pivotal role in children's literature. Accordingly, the present study sought to investigate how the generic skeleton of fairy tales influences the quality of their translations into Persian for the children between 6 and 12 years old. To achieve this purpose, from among the English fairy tales translated into Persian, 15 works were selected based on a purposive sampling method. The contrastive analysis of the targeted texts written in both English and Persian revealed insightful facts about the interconnection between translators' consideration of SL text generic sensitivities and the quality of translation. The findings revealed that there were no significant differences between English fairy tales and their corresponding Persian translations, in general. However, the results reflected particular cultural variations existing between SL and TL texts- that is, English fairy tales and fairy tales written in Persian. Notably, the results of the study may have important implications for both translation students and translation trainers.**

Index Terms—**children's literature, fairy tales, generic assessment, cultural variations, genre, contrastive analysis**

I. INTRODUCTION

During the second half of the 18th century, the first serious attempts to discuss and analyze children's literature gained a considerable momentum. Most studies in children's literature have mostly been focused on religious doctrines addressing a sense of morality and the happy sides of life in the minds of children Bingham, 1988). However, in the 20th century, there has been an increasing interest in the field of children's literature whose objectives were greatly influenced by the sociocultural changes brought about by the industrial societies. These objectives addressed children from birth to adolescence, covering a wide variety of themes related to children of those ages through different rhetorical channels such as prose, poetry, fiction and nonfiction (Brown & Tomlinson, 1993). Overall, it is agreed today that children's literature is a significant important area of inquiry both in itself and for the rewarding revelations it brings into the wonderful world of literature.

In recent years, children's literature has attracted tremendous attention and become a popular subject in Iran. Not surprisingly, the rapid pace of development in children's literature has posed a number of interesting challenges to the field of translation in general and translators in particular over the past 30 years .Exemplifying this would be the inevitable limitation to the young reader's knowledge and information concerning the realities of the world – a developmental issue that is of great interest to the translators of children's texts. Clearly, young readers are not cognitively well-developed and cannot cope with the full scope of other cultures, languages and geographies that are otherwise taken for granted by adult readers as a whole (Lathey, 2006).

It is interesting to note that the emergence of the modern children's literature during the 1930s, when several pioneer writers and poets ardently created valuable stories and poems for children had its own repercussions throughout the world so much so the books related to children began to be translated and published in different parts of the world. Judging from the volume of publications such as folktales and fairy tales in Iran, it can be stated that books targeting children are not only highly appreciated in the original context from which they have been recorded but they have also been received by the enthusiastic children in local contexts. Consequently, Ghaeni (2006) rightly asserts that the children's literature in Iran enjoys a very ancient history dating back to more than 3000 years ago, when the first Persian families narrated rich oral literature including lullabies, folktales, and rhythmic fables to children generation after generation. Besides oral narratives, children also enjoyed written stories dating back to the Sassanid's period. This claim was solidly substantiated when a Pahlavi manuscript called *"Asurik Tree"* (the story of palm date and the goat) was found about 2000 years ago.

Recent developments in the field of children's literature also led to an increased interest in a new field of study in translation. Not much has been written about the translation of children's literature in Persian, in general or in the

translation of a literary genre such as fairy tales, in particular. Several studies have documented that Interest in children's literature appeared from a demand to read books from other parts of the globe. Indubitably, literature in translation can enhance a child's world by providing glimpses into the lives and actions of young people in other corners of the world and fostering an understanding of cultural diversity. Hence, translated books serve as windows, allowing young readers to gain insights into other cultures which can be similar or very different from their own; they invite them to what is bizarre and unfamiliar in other cultures. Consequently, it has often been stated that the transfer of literature from one language into another or from one culture into another expands the child's cognitive abilities because they familiarize him/her to various images of childhood in different parts of the world (Lathey, 2006). It is also argued that children's literature tends to be universal because of the educative and acculturating role it has in many societies and since children both biologically and cognitively share much in common. Therefore, children's literature offers a rich source of understanding cultural disparity separating nations from one another. Similarly, Medalled (2003) points out that translation is a type of cross-cultural interaction and that the way we write for children determines to a great extent the way we translate for them. He believes that translation is not merely the literal rendition of linguistic units from one language into another; rather it is a cross- cultural recreation. Therefore, adopting some degree of cultural protectionism, when translating for children, becomes paramount especially if the source and target cultures enjoy very little cultural overlap. Such situations necessitate translators' intervention and their ideological manipulation of culture specific items in a given text. Having said all this, appropriate content encourages the desired values and attitudes in children of particular cultures. Through fairy tales, children can listen to the stories they read and can explore their surrounding world. They can also reach a better understanding about the world in which they live and their relationships to it.

Nevertheless, it seems that the concept of genre always evokes an extremely complicated maze of definitions, approaches and assumptions which are, in many cases, mutually inclusive. Accordingly, it seems that fairy tales are one of the major genres in literature and have their roots in the oral tradition. Fairy tales with very similar plots, characters and motifs are found across many different cultures. These works tend to take on the color of their location, through the choice of motifs, the style in which they are told, and the choice of persona acting and behaving in the local culture. In the same vein, Hurtodo (2001) thinks about genre as a fundamental criterion in translation studies since it provides a useful source by which various modalities and translation types may be identified and used for training novice translators. Overall, it can be claimed that translation as a communicative event is closely related to genre and a translator as a member of a discourse community should be familiar with particular genres in order to accomplish the communicative purpose intended by the author.

It is worthwhile to remark that fairy tales as a literary genre have been attracting a lot of interest and play a pivotal role in modern literature. Apparently, fairy tales have a considerable influence on children's lives what is certain, fairy tales as a literary genre provides children with a suitable ground by which they can progress. This view is supported by Hyland (2003) who states that genre refers to abstract and socially recognized ways of applying language for particular purposes. He holds the belief that it is a way of getting something done to achieve certain purposes through the ap[plication of language in particular contexts. Similarly, it is pointed out that every genre has a specific schemata consisting of a number of goal oriented stages distinguishing it from other existing genres.

A great deal of previous researches into children's literature has focused on fairy tales. It is important to highlight that fairy tales, also known as wonder tales or magic tales, contain elements of magic or enchantment in characters, plots or settings. As a fictional story, a fairy tale may feature folkloric characters (e.g., fairies, goblins, elves, trolls, witches, giants and talking animals) and enchantments, often involving an unexpected sequence of events. They utilize magic objects like talking mirrors or far-fetched events like glass palaces, enchanted forests, thumb-sized dwarfs, fire breathing dragons, etc. to create suspense and hold the interest of the readers.

The Danish writer Hans Christian Andersen maintains that every individual's life can be regarded as a fairy tale designed by the power of God. Each person's life is, in fact, a story and each fairy tale is the reflection of that story. Notably, different studies indicate that fairy tales are stories growing out of the lives and imaginations of the people who live in particular settings. It seems that fairy tales have always been children's favorite type of traditional literature and are enjoyed by children of all ages. Nonetheless, universality has been one of the most interesting and important characteristics of these tales. Surprisingly, the fairy tales of all cultures, regardless of geography or other surface cultural differences, are most interestingly similar. In other words, they may vary in content based on the intended audiences, but schematically they have the same structural skeletons.

Naturally, culture is an essential component of the translation process and the more translators are aware of it, the better they will be. While a variety of definitions have been suggested for the term culture, this paper will use the definition suggested by Encyclopedia Britannica. Encyclopedia Britannica 2002 defines culture as the integrated patterns of human knowledge, belief and behavior Therefore, it involves factors such as language, ideas, beliefs, customs, taboos, codes, institutions, tools, techniques, and works of art, rituals, ceremonies and other related components. Translation and culture are deeply interconnected. Nida (1964) asserts that both linguistic and cultural differences between the target and source languages are equally important since the variations between cultures may pose more challenges for the translator than those caused by the differences in language structure. In this perspectivization, cultural, implications are just as crucial for the translators as lexical aspects. As a consequence,

translation becomes a transcultural activity, bridging the gap between two or more cultures. Clearly, the reproduction of thoughts in one language by one social group into appropriate expressions of another social group invariably activates a process of cultural reformulation, de-coding, and/or re-coding.

The findings of this investigation complement those of earlier studies focusing on the translation of fairy tales. As reported by Brown and Tomlinson (1999), fairy tales portray the lives and imaginative worlds of the people or folk. So far, however, no theories have adequately explained the fact that fairy tales enjoy a surprising degree of universality even though they are often rooted in different cultures.Khwira (2010) has demonstrated that works of literature which enter the system of Arab children's literature should be subjected to ideological and cultural constraints governing it simply because Arab children's literature is strongly oriented towards locally defined didactics and educational norms which explain why modifications in terms of omissions and additions dominate the works of translation.

Kronborg (2009) conducted another study and investigated that fairy tales have various things such as escape, consolation and fantasy to offer to the readers of all ages. In other words, fairy tales are potentially able to teach something to both adults and children. The reason is that fairy tales are replete with a rich resource of emotional import introducing their audiences to situations, feelings and actions caused by these feelings.

In addition, the results obtained by Hanoi in (2009) suggest that translating fairy tales for children reflects the art of using language. It can be inferred from the study that translators should take the psychological and linguistic capacity of children into account. Furthermore, they must pay attention to the choice of words, the use of familiar terms and slangs and the choice of translation methods. Only when they understand the nature of the readers can they enter the world of children.

The most interesting results concerning the issue have been offered by Franková and Havířová (2005). Their results revealed that elements in fairy tales reflect the intentions common to folktales. Their function is to enrich the plot, make it unpredictable and by providing exaggerated examples show virtues and vices of our own world. The ultimate objective is to reaffirm the faith of the readers that despite its dark side, the world we live in is good and worth fighting for. In 2009, Haghshenas and Khadish conducted a study which was somehow similar to the present study. With the aim of identifying the structural elements and narrative patterns of Persian tales, one hundred tales were analyzed according to Propp's morphological model. The findings revealed that the functions and allomotifs in Persian tales are influenced by social and religious factors that may be considered as peculiarities of these tales. The allomotifs also differed in relation to the protagonist's gender.

Metcalf (2003) also conducted a research and argued that translation will always be subject to political, moral, social, economic, cultural, religious, ideological, psychological and other pressures that have to be acknowledged. Because of children's literature perceived mission to educate, the young students felt inclined to slip into the role of educator as translator, which seems to be a role not unfamiliar to many translators, editors and publishers of children's literature.

Zhao and Jiang (2013) have demonstrated that an effective translation should be successful in restoring the essence of Chinese children's literature. The difference of understanding a text between translator, target reader and source reader lies in the context dominating their cognitive environment. As such, the change of times, cultural differences and knowledge structures would greatly reduce the efficacy of culture in redefining the intended content.

Yunesi Rostami and Zirak (2013) first reviewed the morphological analysis of fairy tales conducted by Prop and the Majid Tales, and then, the structures and functions specific to Moradi Kermani's tales were determined. The cause and effect elements in such are dominant in Majid Tales. Therefore, it is through the confrontation of Majid actions and other characters that a reader comes to understand the meaning enacted by a particular movement in a tale. From structural point of view, despite the variable elements existing in such tales, there is a fixed element in all of them, that is, a problem posed, and a need is expressed. Then, the hero or other characters through their actions or functions provide a solution or fulfill a need. All in all, a closer look at these tales shows that the initial problems are materialistic needs but the final ones are satisfying needs, solving problems or punishment etc.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Genre in fairy tales plays a pivotal role in children's literature. Evidently, culture has s considerable influence on fairy tales. What is certain, culture provides children with a suitable ground by which they can progress. This study aims to investigate the significance of genre on the quality of translation and the role of culture in English and Persian fairy tales for the children between *6* and *12* years old. This research is one of the few studies to assess the generic foundation of English fairy tales translated into Persian and those originally created in Persian language from a cultural perspective.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study was motivated by the following questions:
a) What is the role of genre on the quality of translation of fairy tales?
b) To what extent cultural variations in English and Persian fairy tales impact the quality of their translations in the target language?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Materials

From among the English fairy tales translated into Persian, fifteen books were chosen based on a purposive sampling method. Another fifteen fairy tales originally written in Persian for the Persian children aged between 6 and 12 were also selected so that the targeted corpora contained 30 books. In this research, materials were chosen based upon different criteria. First, only the texts concerning children's literature were chosen. Second, the selected texts all contained the key features characterizing fairy tales. In the process of selecting a text unit the main concern was to choose a unit which is clearly representative of the fairy tale genre.

B. Procedures

Prop's (1928) morphology of the folk tale and his categorization as well as Newmark's (1988) taxonomy of culture words served as the point of reference. A generic framework consisting of four moves was used as the required analytical model for specifying variations in the generic patterns between Persian translations of English fairy tales and those originally written in Persian. The specified tokens belonging to the moves were: *Absentation, interdiction, violation, lack, difficult task, provision of a magical agent, punishment, solution, transfiguration,* and *wedding.*

Then, cultural similarities and differences between the targeted fairy tales were compared and contrasted. Initially, cultural items in English and Persian fairy tales plus their rendition into Persian were collected. Newmark's (1988) classification of culture words into different categories; namely, the categories of (a) ecology (flora, fauna, local winds, mountains, plains, ice, etc.), (b) material culture (food, clothes, houses, towns, transport and communication), (c) social culture (work and leisure), and (d) organization, customs, and ideas (political and administrative, artistic, and social activities) were used for   collecting the required data.

In famous fairy tales, the complication move is materialized by one of the characters who either lacks or desires **to** have something. These instances may be divided according to the forms representing the realization of lacks. Consequently, it is possible to register lacks by such patterns as *lack of a bride* when the hero starts looking for a bride. Exemplifying this will be the story of *Snow White and the Seven Dwarves.*
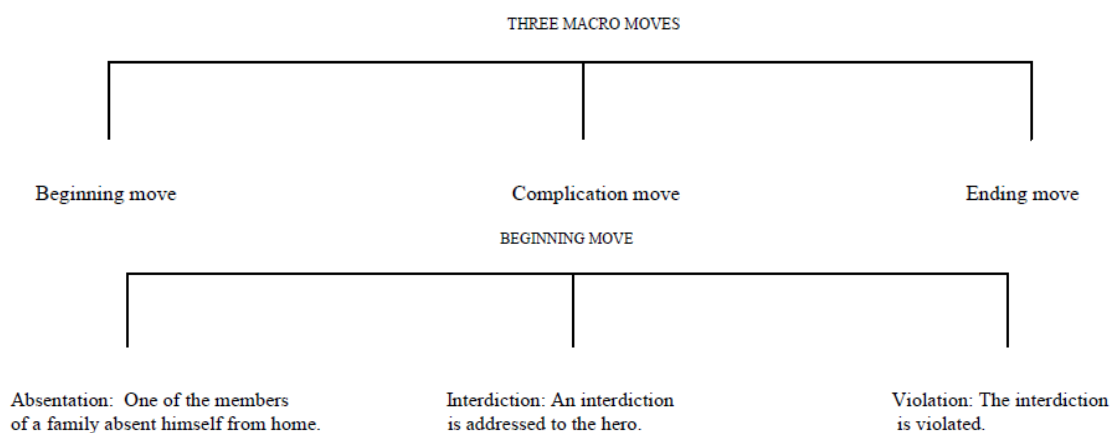
Another case of complication is represented by the use of another important move; namely, a *difficult task is proposed to the hero.* This is one of favorite elements in fairy tales in which certain insurmountable tasks such as riddle guessing, walking on needles, etc. are assigned for the hero to tackle. Another key move depicts the *hero's acquisition and use of a magical agent* in fairy tales. As an illustration, certain things can serve as magical agents: Animals like a horse, an eagle, etc.) or objects possessing a magical property such as cudgels, swords, and balls.
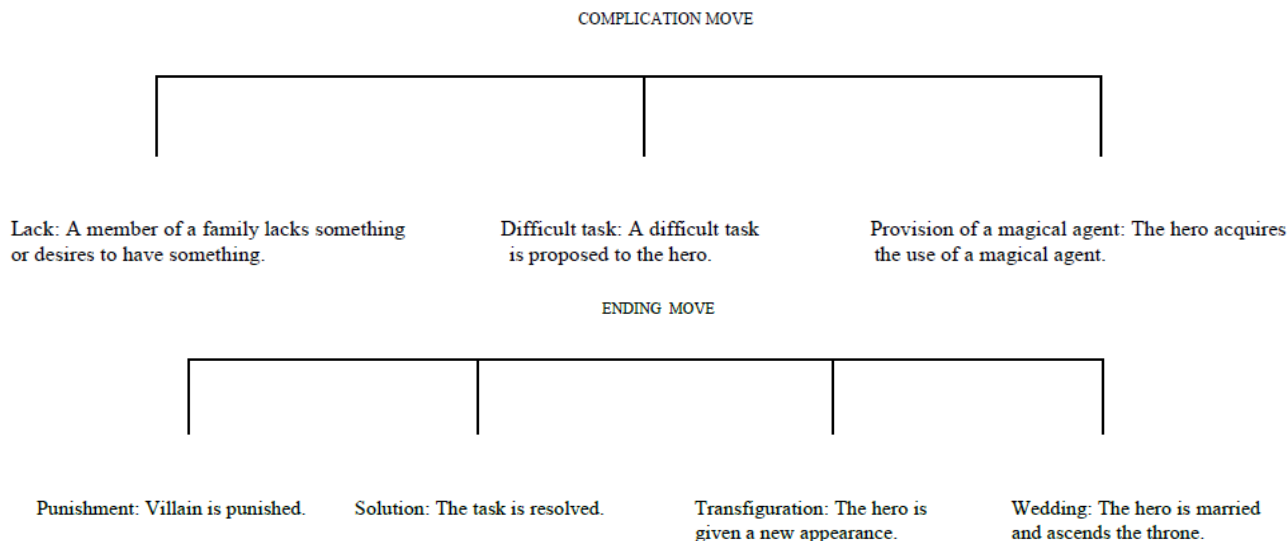
C. Data Analysis

The data of the study, that is, the specified moves and their related tokens were analyzed utilizing frequency analysis and their corresponding percentage values.

V. RESULTS

The generic moves were purposively selected from 31 functions elucidated by Prop (1928). Accordingly, the following moves were specified:

THREE MACRO MOVES

Beginning move   Complication move   Ending move

BEGINNING MOVE

Absentation: One of the members   Interdiction: An interdiction   Violation: The interdiction
of a family absent himself from home.   is addressed to the hero.   is violated.

COMPLICATION MOVE

Lack: A member of a family lacks something or desires to have something.

Difficult task: A difficult task is proposed to the hero.

Provision of a magical agent: The hero acquires the use of a magical agent.

ENDING MOVE

Punishment: Villain is punished.

Solution: The task is resolved.

Transfiguration: The hero is given a new appearance.

Wedding: The hero is married and ascends the throne.

Prop's approach was chosen to obtain further in-depth information on the generic structure of fairy tales. Table 1 presents the frequency and percentage values of move patterns obtained from the analysis of moves in Persian translated works of English fairy tales:

TABLE 1.
MOVES IN PERSIAN TRANSLATIONS OF ENGLISH FAIRY TALES

Type of Moves	Move 1	Move 2	Move 3
Frequency	32	42	40
Percentage	2.13%	2/8%	2.6%

From the data in Table 1, it can be seen that move two is frequently used to attract children's attention. It is indicated that that there was a significant similarity among all moves comprising fairy tales. Interestingly, the most striking result to emerge from the data is that of move 1 since both English fairy tales translated into Persian and fairy tales originally written in Persian expose the main theme of the story through this move. Alternatively, Table 2 demonstrates the moves in fairy tales written in Persian:

TABLE 2.
MOVES IN FAIRY TALES ORIGINALLY WRITTEN IN PERSIAN

Type of Moves	Move 1	Move 2	Move 3
Frequency	39	51	33
Percentage	2.13%	3/4%	2.2%

Table 2 provides the breakdown of the moves in fairy tales originally written in Persian according to the prop's model. What is interesting in this data is that like English fairy tales translated into Persian, those originally written in Persian also made the highest use of move #2. A remarkable similarity was found among different moves in used Persian fairy tales with those used in English fairy tales. The single most surprising observation to emerge from the data was that move #1 was more frequent than move #3. Taken together, these results suggest that there exists a high rate of association among the targeted moves in English and Persian fairy tales.

The results obtained from the preliminary analysis of the moves in English and Persian fairy tales are shown in Figure 1. As can be seen in Figure 1, the second move was used more frequently than the other two moves:
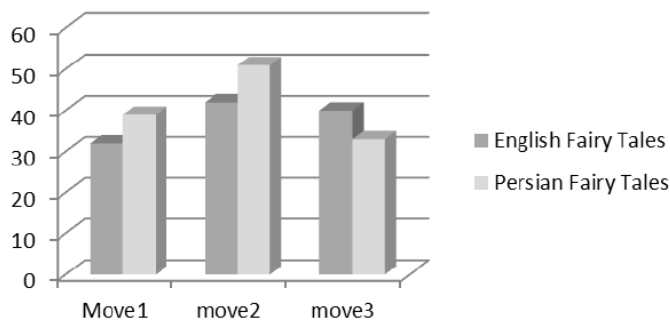
Figure1. Contrasting Generic Assessment of Fairy Tales

Apparently, Table 3 presents some of the main cultural differences existing between the two languages under investigation. As Table 3 shows, there are significant differences between the two groups of fairy tales:

TABLE 3.
CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN FAIRY TALES

Universal Cultural	English Fairy Tales	Persian Fairy Tales
Differences	White Rabbit Blond Hair Blue eyes	Black Raven Black Hair Brown eyes

The breakdown of cultural similarities in the selected fairy tales are presented in Table 4. Data from this table shows that some elements in fairy tales are universal:

TABLE 4.
CULTURE IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN FAIRY TALES

Universal Cultural	English Fairy Tales	Persian Fairy Tales
Similarities	Wolf Red Apple Marriage	Wolf Red Apple Marriage

VI.   DISCUSSION

The present study set out to determine the role of genre on the quality of fairy tales translations. Analyzing the data gathered from the specified moves and their related components based on frequency analysis of target moves and their corresponding percentage values provided the researchers with two insightful results. Firstly, the role of genre in specifying the quality of translation of fairy tales was determined. The findings portrayed in Tables 1 and 2 revealed that like English fairy tales translated into Persian, those originally written in Persian made the highest use of move# 2 (i.e. complication move).

Evidently, the findings of this investigation support those of earlier studies. Brown and Tomlinson (1999) strongly believe that fairy tales across cultures reflect a surprising degree of universality. The conclusion is also supported by writers like Matsumota (2008) who acknowledge that expression of emotions across cultures follows a cyclic pattern and schematically moves through certain stages that seem to be universal across different races and cultures. By contrast, like the present study, there are also many studies which focus on the impact of culture on the way emotions are expressed. It is now evident that there are distinct differences between collectivistic and individualistic cultures. Whereas Europeans and North Americans have their own view of self-conceptions and identities in that they regard themselves as autonomous and self-contained individuals, non-westerners like Japanese and Persians view the self as a part of a larger harmonious society where group goals and the consideration of others are important.

Markus and Kitayama (1991), highlighting the distinction between ego-focused and other-focused societies, maintain that the cultures in which such orientations toward the self are practiced are totally different in the way their members express their emotions. As an illustration, the members of an American community are more likely to possess emotions endowed with unique natural tendencies such as pride, contempt, anger, etc. whereas those in a non-western social groups my experience other-focused emotions like loyalty, cooperation , indebtedness and so on (Triandis ,1995).

Not surprisingly, the results of the current study are consistent with those of several writers. For instance, the findings presented by Haghshenas and Khadish (2009) were similar to those in the present research. These authors aimed to identify the structural elements and narrative patterns of Persian tales. For this purpose, they used one hundred fairy tales and analyzed them based on Prop's morphological model. It was found out that the functions and allomotifs in Persian tales are generally influenced by social and religious factors.

The second question in this study was designed to identify whether cultural variations in English and Persian fairy tales impact the quality of their translations in target language. Consequently, the cultural similarities and differences of the selected fairy tales were contrasted. By comparing the data presented in Tables 3 and 4, it can be stated that it is extremely important for the translator to be aware of the differences existing between the source culture and the target culture. Henceforth, one of the translator's tasks is to minimize these dissimilarities and to reconcile the existing differences between the original sender and the ultimate receiver. Khwira (2010) research was somehow similar to the present study. She investigated that any literature entering the system of Arab children's literature should consider the ideological and cultural constraints governing it. This requires of translators to use strategies such as modification, omission, and addition.

The present research also revealed that Children's literature in Iran reflects the Iranian and Islamic cultural and ideological values that are different from those of the foreign cultures. It belongs to both the literary and the social systems as it serves as a tool for both pleasure and education. The idiosyncratic features of emotion in the Persian context make translators to reconcile what is different and bizarre with what is familiar. Therefore, the way we write for Iranian children determines, to a great extent, the way we translate for them.

The results are seemingly significant in at least two major respects. Firstly, further work is required to investigate other moves in fairy tales. Secondly, other studies with a particular focus on culture should be conducted. The findings of this study can be beneficial to the specialists in the field including literary critics and translators by shedding light on the intricacies of children's literature and the way it is rendered from one language into another.

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper has given an account of and the reasons for the pivotal role of genre in children's literature such as fairy tales. In this investigation, the aim was to determine whether translators' awareness of the moves underlying fairy tales can help them improve the quality of their works and how culture as a determinant parameter can influence the whole process of translation. The general findings from this study reveal that moves in English and Persian fairy tales are to some extent cyclic. In other words, the expression of basic emotions in all languages due to biological considerations is universal in general. The current findings add substantially to our understanding of cultural influences on the expression of emotions. As such translating fairy tales presupposes translator's attention concerning the social context in which the events of a given story unfold.

Evidently, the staged goal oriented nature of the genre may invariably involve specific cultural detours which are deeply rooted in the complicated maze of sociocultural factors shaping and governing the lives of the people. Although fairy tales contain similar plots, characters and motifs, they may characteristically be modified across different cultures. The results of this study show that there are some moves in translated English fairy tales which fit the collectivistic traditions of the Persian community which are inconsistent with ego-focused norms of life practiced in western societies. Overall, the generic contrastive assessment of the moves involved in English and Persian fairy tales substantiated the notion of universality dominated by certain inevitable cultural variations. In fact, it was found out that Children's fairy tales in Iran reflect the Iranian and Islamic cultural /ideological values that are different from those of the foreign cultures. Finally, the findings of this study offer a number of important implications for translation trainers and translation students whose interest is directed towards translating children's stories in general and fairy tails in particular.

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Reza Biria, born in Isfahan, Iran, obtained his Ph.D. in teaching English as a Foreign Language from the University of Isfahan in 2001. He is an applied linguist working as an assistant professor at Khorasgan Azad University, Isfahan, Iran. Dr. Biria has published papers in national and international journals. His research interests include teaching English as a second and foreign language and ESP as well as translation.

Marzieh Asefi Najaf Abadi, born in Isfahan, Iran, received her B.A in English Language Translation at University of Payam e Noor, Shahrekord, Iran in 2012. She has got her MA in English Language Translation from Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan, Isfahan, Iran. Her main research interests focus on writing and reading strategies in Translation.

Supplementary Practices and Decreasing Translation Problems in Translating Political English News Texts into Persian

Forogh Karimipur Davaninezhad
English Department, Shahreza Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shahreza, Iran

Abstract—**The present study investigated the effect of using supplementary practices on decreasing translation problems in translating political English news texts into Persian. To this end, first, two volunteer groups of B.A. senior students of Translation Studies were selected, an Oxford Quick Placement Test was administered and those who obtained the required score in both groups were chosen as the sample. Then, a pre-test consisting of political English news sentences was held. Next, both groups were taught a book on news texts, however; the experimental group received supplementary practices. After that, a post-test was given to both groups. It was a parallel version of the pre-test with the same level of difficulty. Finally, chi-square was conducted and the results were compared. The results showed that both groups decreased translation problems, but the group who received treatment decreased translation problems to a higher extent. Therefore, it could be concluded that supplementary practices had significant effect on decreasing translation problems in translating political English news texts into Persian.**

Index Terms—**political news text, translation problem, supplementary practices**

I. INTRODUCTION

Both written and spoken languages play important role in every day communication. People meet their needs from providing food to getting information or news through using language. People usually communicate in their own languages; however, they have to communicate in other languages. All people are not able to speak widely used languages. Therefore, they face language barrier which in turn blocks the communication process.

Where language barriers prevent understanding of texts or where direct communication with those who can provide relevant sources of information is not possible, some form of translation takes place (Chilton, 2004). Translation is not only involving linguistic transfer, but also the transfer of social and cultural elements. Both social and cultural elements are relevant to processes of translations that occur in the production of international news (Palumbo, 2009). Translation is a hidden factor in the success of international news as a marketable commodity. Wherever international news is produced, translation must logically be part of the process for it to cross linguistic and cultural boundaries (Chilton, 2004). News is traded between a wide range of media outlets. Within the worldwide gathering and dissemination process of news, translation is common practice (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010).

At the dissemination end of the 'wholesale' media process, where reports are transferred between different news organizations, translation may be undertaken either at the output or reception stages. Many news agencies produce output material both in the national language of the country to which the agency belongs, and in an international language, most commonly English (Chilton, 2004).

Where readers buy a newspaper because of its political 'colour', the average consumer of news does not consciously consider whether, in a move aimed at influencing public opinion, the original content or particular representation of events in an international political news report may have been altered through translation (Schuffner, 2004).

Once produced, translations as texts lead a life of their own, and are the basis on which people acquire information (Schuffner, 2004). Therefore, what is translated is what is reported and once in the hands of politicians and other readers has the potential to be regarded as the 'truth', when it may be a mediated version thereof (Chilton, 2004).

General principles governing processes of translation that take place in the production of international news have until the first decade of the new millennium received only scant attention from the discipline of Translation Studies (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010). Despite its crucial role in news making however, translation in the news has thus far occupied a very small area of research into translation (Darwish, 2006). Considering the mentioned fact, translation of (political) news is apt to carry a number of translation problems.

A. Statement of the Problem

There are some translation difficulties in the production and subsequent reception of international news (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010). The role of translation as part of the news gathering process is arguably open to scrutiny (Parenti, 1993). The elements related to translation of international political news aren't specifically taught to translators, this multiplies translation problems in such texts (Chilton, 2004).

As instructor of translation courses, the researcher of the current study also observed that B.A. students of Translation Studies experience more difficulty in translating political and news texts comparing to translating other types of texts. Lower scores obtained by the students in the courses '*translating political text*' and   '*translating news/journalistic texts*' to some extent confirm the mentioned fact. It was observed that the same students obtain higher scores in other translation courses.

B. Research Question

Considering the above mentioned problem, the following research question was posed:

To what extent do supplementary practices decrease translation problems in translating political English news texts into Persian?

To answer the research question, the researcher worked on translation problems which have been observed frequently in teaching the translation of both political and news texts.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Political Discourse, News, and Translation

Politics is the most general and universal aspect and sphere of human activity and in its reflection in language it often appears in powerful emotive terms (Newmark, 1991). Since Politics is changing in its nature, new words and expressions can be added to political discourse in order to match political events and changes (Newmark, 1991).

On the one hand, politics is viewed as a struggle for power, between those who seek to assert and maintain their power and those who seek to resist it. On the other hand, politics is viewed as cooperation, as the practices and institutions that a society has for resolving clashes of interest over money, influence, liberty, and the like (Chilton, 2004). In any case, whether struggle or cooperation, politics cannot be conducted without language (Chilton & Schäffner, 1997). In relation to politics, it can be said that the specific political situations and processes (discursive practices, such as parliamentary debates, political press briefings) determine discourse organization and textual structure of a variety of discourse types (or genres) in which political discourse as a complex form of human activity is realized (Chilton & Schäffner, 1997).

For disseminating politics, news texts play a significant role. Political texts are normally placed on the first pages of newspapers (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010). The composition of a news item which reports a politically significant international event will often be based upon a number of spoken and written sources in another language (Chilton, 2004). It is where translation leads the life of its own.

Although translation is not overtly recognized as one of the functions of news agencies, processes of translating are so deeply embedded in the daily routine of international journalists (Chilton, 2004).

Translation can be a form of political action to overcome asymmetrical cultural exchanges (Venuti, 1995). Translation is defined as a form of regulated transformation, as a socio-political practice (Venuti, 1995). Translation, although often invisible in the field of politics, is actually an integral part of political activity. Which texts get translated, from and into which languages is itself already a political decision (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010). Translation also plays a very important political role in international policy making and diplomacy (for example, the signing of bilateral and multilateral contracts, delivering speeches during state visits) and in national policy-making (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010). Politicians usually do not go back to the original text. Once produced, translations as texts are the basis on which people acquire information (Schaffner, 2004).

B. Translation Problem

 A translation problem is any difficulty in the source language text which forces translator to stop translating. It can be posed by grammar, words, style, and or sounds (Ghazala, 1995).

The chief difficulties in translating are lexical, not grammatical, i.e. words, collocations and fixed phrases or idioms (Newmark, 1988). Some difficulties are caused because you don't understand words. If you can't understand a word, it may be because all possible meanings are not known to you (Newmark, 1988).

Translation problems can be pragmatic, cultural, linguistic, and text-specific as well (Al-Nakhalah, 2006). Pragmatic translation problems arise from the particular transfer situation with its specific contrast of source language versus target language recipients, source language medium. Cultural translation problems result from differences in the culture specific habits, expectations, norms, and conventions verbal and other behaviors. Linguistic translation problems are structural differences between two languages in texts sentence, structure and supra-segmental features .Text-specific translation problems are any problems not classified as the previous ones (Al-Nakhalah, 2006) .

C. Translation Problems in Translating from English to Persian

A number of translation problems including those within the scope of the study are presented in the following part.

• Incorrect Translation of Article 'A': Using 'یک' instead of 'ی'.

• Incorrect Translation of Passive Voice: Translating Source Text (ST) passive sentence as passive in Target Text (TT).

• Using Incorrect Equivalence

• Incorrect Addition**:** Using more than one word in the TT for translating a ST word (Tajvidi, 2000).

The above mentioned problems are further explained through examples below:

ST: The belief and widely applied propaganda technique of fascism that holds only *a* united *totalitarian state* headed by a *supreme* leader (dictator) can master the *threat posed* by the conspiratorial tactics of communism (Tajvidi, 2000, p.5).

Incorrect Translation:

اعتقاد و شیوه تبلیغاتی وسیعا در فاشیسم به کار گرفته شده، مبنی بر اینست که فقط **یک دولت یکپارچه**
totalitarian state a only that is based on applied fascism in widely propaganda technique and belief
به رهبری **یک** پیشوای **عظیم الشان** (دیکتاتور) می تواند بر **تهدیدات و خطرات ایجاد شده** به وسیله
by posed dangers and threats on can (dictator) supreme leader a headed by
ترفندهای توطئه گرانه کمونیسم غلبه کند.
master communism conspiratorial tactics

In the above translation, the article 'a' has been translated incorrectly. For the words 'totalitarian, state, and supreme' incorrect equivalents have been used. For the word 'threat' more than one equivalent has been used. The verb 'posed' has been translated in passive voice.

Correct Translation:

اعتقاد و شیوه تبلیغاتی که وسیعا در فاشیسم به کار گرفته می شود مبنی بر اینست که فقط حکومتی خودکامه
totalitarian state only that is based on is applied fascism in widely that propaganda technique and belief
به رهبری پیشوایی مستبد (دیکتاتور) می تواند بر خطراتی غلبه کند که ترفندهای توطئه گرانه کمونیسم ایجاد می کند.
pose communism conspiratorial tactics that master threats on can (dictator) supreme leader headed by

• Generalizing the First Meaning of Word in Translation: Using the meaning rendered as the first entrance of dictionary in all texts (Tajvidi, 2000).

ST: *Top* politicians attended the summit (Tajvidi, 2000, p. 27).

Incorrect Translation : سیاستمداران **بالا** در جلسه بودند
attended summit in top politicians
Correct Translation: سیاستمداران ارشد در جلسه بودند
attended summit in top politicians

• Using Phrasal Verb instead of Simple or Complex Verb in Translation (Tajvidi, 2000).

• Using Two or More Verbs at the End of a Complex Sentence in Translation: To solve this problem, complex sentence should be divided into two or more sentences in translation and each verb should be placed at the end of a new sentence (Tajvidi, 2000).

• Incorrect Translation of the Combination of Nationality, Post and Name: In Persian the order is different from English. Therefore, to solve this problem, first name, then post and finally nationality (or characteristics) should be mentioned in Persian (Tajvidi, 2000).

The above mentioned problems are further explained through examples below:

ST: The term 'peaceful cohabitation' *was* originally *used* by *Bolshevic revolutionary leader, Leon Trotsky* to cover relations between Soviet and non- Soviet world and *continued* in Soviet practice until December 1927 when the term coexistence which has a somewhat more passive sense, officially *replaced* it (Tajvidi, 2000, p.19).

Incorrect Translation:

اصطلاح "همسکنایی مسالمت آمیز" را اولین بار رهبر **انقلابی بلشویک، لئون تروتسکی** برای اشاره به روابط
relations cover for Leon Trotsky Bolshevic revolutionary leader originally "peaceful cohabitation" term
شوروی و دیگر کشورهای جهان **مورد استفاده قرار داد** و این شیوه تا دسامبر 1927 زمانی که اصطلاح "همزیستی
cohabitation" term when 1927 December until practice this and used world non-Soviet and Soviet
مسالمت آمیز" که مفهومی انفعالی تر **دارد، رسما جایگزین آن شد، ادامه یافت.**
continued replaced it officially has more passive sense that "peaceful

In the above translation, the combination 'Bolshevic revolutionary leader, Leon Trotsky' has been translated incorrectly. A Phrasal verb has been used to translate 'was used'. More than one verb is at the end of sentence.

Correct Translation:

لئون تروتسکی، رهبر انقلاب بلشویکی، اولین بار از اصطلاح "همسکنایی مسالمت آمیز" برای اشاره به روابط
relations cover for "peaceful cohabitation" term from originally Bolshevic revolution leader Leon Trotsky
شوروی و دیگر کشورهای جهان، استفاده کرد. این شیوه تا دسامبر 1927 ادامه یافت. یعنی زمانی که اصطلاح
term when meaning continued 1927 December until practice this used world non-Soviet and Soviet
انفعالی تر "همزیستی مسالمت آمیز" رسما جایگزین آن شد.
replaced it officially "peaceful cohabitation" more passive

• Incorrect Translation of Dash**:** Novice translators copy and paste all punctuation marks in translating from one language into another. To solve this problem suitable word or phrase considering the semantic context of the sentence should be added to create rational relationship (Tajvidi, 1995).

ST: The treaty was signed by the three of five then known nuclear powers— the United Kingdom, the United States, and the USSR (Tajvidi, 2000, p. 164).

Incorrect Translation:

سه تا از پنج قدرت هسته ایی آن زمان—انگلیس،ایالات متحده و اتحاد جماهیر شوروی سوسیالیستی، معاهده را امضا کردند.
signed treaty USSR and United States United Kingdom — then nuclear power five of three

Correct Translation:

سه تا از پنج قدرت هسته ایی آن زمان **یعنی** انگلیس، ایالات متحده و اتحاد جماهیر شوروی سوسیالیستی،
USSR and United States United Kingdom meaning then nuclear power five of three

معاهده را امضا کردند.
signed treaty

- Incorrect Translation of Hyphen: Novice translators copy and paste all punctuation marks in translating from one language into another. To solve this problem, the translator can add one or some words or translate the combination without adding by deleting hyphen (Tajvidi, 1995).

ST: U.S- Mexico agreement (Tajvidi, 1995, p.85).

Incorrect Translation: توافق ایالات متحده- مکزیک
Mexico - U.S. agreement

Correct Translation: توافق ایالات متحده و مکزیک
Mexico and U.S. agreement

ST: Air-to-air missile (Tajvidi, 1995, p.85).

Incorrect Translation: موشک هوا- به- هوا
Air - to - air missile

Correct Translation: موشک هوا به هوا
air to air missile

- Incorrect Translation of Preposition 'against'

'Against' is usually translated to 'برعلیه' while using "بر" along with "علیه" is not necessary (Tajvidi, 2000).

ST: He incited the people to rebel against the government (Vaez Dalili, 2012, p. 70).

Incorrect Translation: او مردم را به شورش **برعلیه** دولت ترغیب کرد
incited government against rebel to people he

Correct Translation: او مردم را به شورش علیه دولت ترغیب کرد
incited government against rebel to people he

- Incorrect Translation of Acronym: Translators usually copy the acronyms from the ST to TT while different acronyms should be translated differently (Lotfipur saaedi, 1993).

ST: UN/NATO/PLO (Lotfipur saaedi, 1993, p. 101).

Incorrect Translation: UN/NATO/PLO

Correct Translation: ساف/ ناتو/سازمان ملل متحد
UN NATO PLO

UN (United Nations) should be translated completely in Target Language (TL), since there is no acceptable acronym for it in TL. NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) can somehow be transcribed acceptably in TL. Translated acronym of PLO (Palestinian Liberation Organization) exists in TL.

سازمان آزادیبخش فلسطین (ساف)
(PLO) Palestinian Liberation Organization

- Incorrect Translation of the Verb 'Come': Verb 'come' is usually translated into its common meaning _move toward the place to which somebody is referring, which is not correct all the time (Tajvidi, 1995).

ST: The vote came just an hour later (Vaez Dalili, 2012, p. 74).

Incorrect Translation: رای یک ساعت بعد **آمد**.
came later hour an vote

Correct Translation: رای ساعتی بعد صادر شد.
came later an hour vote

- Incorrect Translation of the Combination of Noun and Passive Participle Mood: To solve this problem, addition occurs which is acceptable in this case (Tajvidi, 1995).

ST: London-based newspaper (Tajvidi, 1995, p. 168).

Incorrect Translation: روزنامه **براساس** لندن
London based on newspaper

Correct Translation: روزنامه ای که مقر آن در لندن است.
is London in that base that newspaper

III. METHODOLOGY

A. The Participants of the Study

Participants of the present study were two groups of B.A senior students of Translation Studies. Group A (experimental group) and group B (control group) were respectively the students of Payme-Noor University (PNU), Shahreza Branch and Islamic Azad University (IAU), Shahreza Branch. Each group consisted of 20 students both males and females.

B. Materials of the Study

Two books were used as the material in the present study. The first book was: Vaez Dalili, M. (2012). News and views. A course in reading British and American news. Tehran: Rahnama Press.

It was used as a teaching material for both groups and the source of sentences to be translated both in the pre-test and in the post-test. The mentioned book included 30 units, each unit consisted of reading, new words along with examples, vocabulary, listening and watching exercises, definition of some political organizations and points on the translation of news media. The book included indices of news paper terms and new words, as well.

The second book was: Karimipur Davaninezhad, F. (2012). Translating texts in politics. Isfahan: Alavi Publications.

Supplementary practices were taken from this book. The book included some points on translation (section one), 12 units and 2 reviews (section two), English to Persian glossary, list of political acronyms, appendix I (guide to translation), appendix II (answer to exercises), and Index. Each unit consisted of a text (taken from Tehran Times newspaper), new words, exercises on new words and translation exercises on major political terms from English to Persian and vice versa. Appendix I (guide to translation) included common translation problems along with examples and solutions. Appendix I was used in evaluating the translation of the pre-test and post-test sentences.

C. Instruments of the Study

The main instruments used in the present study were the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT), a pre-test and a post-test.

The OQPT, VHS version one, consisted of 60 questions. It was used to determine participants' language proficiency within 30 minutes. All of the questions were multiple choices on grammar and vocabulary. The pre-test consisted of 12 political English news sentences to be translated into Persian in 30 minutes. Sentences were selected from the readings and new words examples of units 11 to 20 of the book 'news and views'. Each sentence contained only one troublesome case of translation. The researcher taught both groups units 11 to 20 of the book '*News and Views*' in the same way previous term (See appendix A).The post- test consisted of 12 Political English news sentences to be translated into Persian in 30 minutes, with the same level of difficulty. Sentences were selected from the readings and new words examples of units 21 to 30 of the book '*News and Views'*. Each sentence contained only one troublesome case of translation (See appendix B).

D. Procedure of Data Collection and Analysis

The following steps were taken in doing the research:

Step 1: The researcher selected two volunteer groups of B.A senior students of Translation Studies from PNU (group A) and IAU (group B). Each group consisted of 20 students.

Step 2: The researcher administered the OQPT in 30 minutes to homogenize the participants in terms of general English proficiency. They considered the score 45 or higher out of 60 as the criterion for selecting the sample. All Participants in both groups obtained the required score.

Step 3: The researcher introduced the book '*News and Views*' as teaching material to the sample.

Step 4: The researcher selected the sentences for the pre-test and the post-test from readings and new word examples of the book '*News and Views'*. Pre-test sentences were taken from units 11 to 20 and post-test sentences from units 21 to 30. The researcher translated the selected sentences and listed the suggested translation for each sentence based on guidelines in the book '*Translating Texts in Politics'*.

Step 5: The researcher held the pre-test (12 political English news sentences to be translated into Persian) for both groups at the beginning of the term, allocated 30 minutes to it, and registered the frequency of incorrect translations for each case.

Step 6: The researcher, who taught units 11-20 to both groups previous term, taught both groups reading and new words examples of units 21 to 30 of the book '*News and Views'*, corrected both groups' translation problems during the class time and taught them how to solve such problems. She continued teaching for 10 sessions, once a week and 1 hour and half each session. At the same time, she provided only group A (experimental) with a volume of the book '*Translating Texts in Politics'* as supplementary practices. She selected some sentences containing troublesome cases of translation similar to those of the pre-test each session, asked group A to translate them at home and check the accuracy of their translations with the answers in Appendix II of the book '*Translating Texts in Politics'* for 10 sessions.

The following example was taken from the book 'Translating Texts in Politics':

ST: The terrorists ***targeted*** military bases.

Incorrect Translation: تروریست ها مقرهای نظامی را **مورد هدف/ هجوم قرار دادند**
                                              targeted   military bases terrorists

In the above translation, the verb 'targeted' has been translated as a phrasal verb. It should be translated as a complex verb.

Correct Translation: تروریست ها مقرهای نظامی را هدف گرفتند
                                      targeted   military bases terrorists (Unit one, p.18).

Appendix C includes examples of words or expressions which may result in different translation problems.

Step 7: After 10 sessions, the researcher gave the post-test (12 political English news sentences to be translated into Persian), allocated 30 minutes to it and again registered the frequency of incorrect translations for each case.

Step 8: The researcher conducted Chi-square using software EPI$_6$ and compared the obtained results. Chi-square was performed four times during the study using software EPI$_6$. In the first time, it was performed for the total number of correct and incorrect translations of experimental and control group on the pre-test to check whether there is a significant difference between the performance of groups on the pre-test. In the second time, it was performed for the total number of correct and incorrect translations of experimental and control group on the post-test to see whether there is a significant difference between the performance of groups on the post test. In the third time, it was performed for the total number of correct and incorrect translations of experimental group on the pre-test and the post-test to make sure whether there is a significant difference between the performance of experimental group on the pre-test and the post-test. In the fourth time, it was performed for the total number of correct and incorrect translations of control group on the pre-test and the post-test to see whether there is a significant difference between the performance of control group on the pre-test and the post-test.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The analysis of the data provided the following results that help with providing an answer to the research question.

A. Translation Problems on the Pre-test

The obtained frequency of translation problems for both experimental and control group on the pre-test is illustrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY OF TRANSLATION PROBLEMS FOR GROUP A AND B ON THE PRE-TEST

No	Translation Problems	Frequency of Registered Case for Group A (Experimental Group)	Frequency of Registered Case for Group B (Control Group)
1	Generalizing the first meaning of the word in translation	13	15
2	Incorrect translation of acronym	14	14
3	Incorrect translation of article 'a'	5	6
4	Incorrect translation of dash	13	13
5	Incorrect translation of hyphen	6	6
6	Incorrect translation of passive voice	12	13
7	Incorrect translation of preposition 'agains	10	11
8	Incorrect translation of the combination of nationality, post, and name	15	17
9	Incorrect translation of the combination of noun and passive participle mood	17	17
10	Incorrect translation of the verb 'come'	14	15
11	Using phrasal verb instead of simple or complex verb in translation	10	10
12	Using two or more verbs at the end of a complex sentence in translation	13	14
Total	Number of Translation Problems	142	151

As indicated in Table 1, the frequency of '*incorrect translation of the combination of noun and passive participle mood*' for both groups was the same (17) and the highest frequency. The frequency of '*incorrect translation of the combination of nationality, post, and name*' for group B was also the highest frequency (17). '*Incorrect translation of hyphen*' had the same frequency (6) for both groups. Total number of translation problems indicates that groups did not have a significant difference in terms of translation problems on the pre-test.

To make sure that groups' performance did not differ significantly on the per-test, a chi-square was performed for the total number of correct and incorrect translations of experimental group (A) and control group (B) on the pre-test. The results are shown in Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 2.
TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT AND INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS FOR BOTH GROUPS ON THE PRE-TEST

Group	Incorrect Translation	Correct Translation	Total Number of Translations
A	142	98	240
B	151	89	240

Group (A) and (B), as shown in Table 2, had 142 and 151 incorrect translations respectively out of 240 translations on the pre-test.

TABLE 3.
CHI-SQURES OBTAINED FROM TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT AND
INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS FOR BOTH GROUPS ON THE PRE-TEST

df	X^2	Sig.
1	0.71	0.4

p<0.05

As Table 3 indicates, when P-value is <0.05 and (X^2 = 0.71 with df=1 and p= 0.4), there is no significant difference between the performance of groups on the pre-test.

B. Translation Problems on the Post-test

The obtained frequency of translation problems for both experimental and control group on the post-test is illustrated in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCY OF TRANSLATION PROBLEMS FOR GROUP A AND B ON THE POST-TEST

No	Translation Problems	Frequency of Registered Case for Group A (Experimental Group)	Frequency of Registered Case for Group B (Control Group)
1	Generalizing the first meaning of the word in translation	6	11
2	Incorrect translation of acronym	7	10
3	Incorrect translation of article 'a'	1	4
4	Incorrect translation of dash	5	11
5	Incorrect translation of hyphen	2	3
6	Incorrect translation of passive voice	5	11
7	Incorrect translation of preposition 'agains	4	8
8	Incorrect translation of the combination of nationality, post, and name	8	14
9	Incorrect translation of the combination of noun and passive participle mood	10	15
10	Incorrect translation of the verb 'come'	7	13
11	Using phrasal verb instead of simple or complex verb in translation	4	7
12	Using two or more verbs at the end of a complex sentence in translation	7	12
	Total Number of Translation Problems	66	119

As Table 4 illustrates, the frequencies of '*incorrect translation of the combination of noun and passive participle mood*' (15 for group B and 10 for group A) and '*incorrect translation of the combination of nationality, post, and name*' (14 for group B and 8 for group A) were again the highest frequencies on the post-test. Total number of translation problems indicates that groups performed differently in terms of translation problems on the post-test.

To check whether the mentioned difference is significant or not, a chi-square was run for the total number of correct and incorrect translations of experimental group (A) and control group (B) on the post-test. The results are shown in tables 5 and 6.

TABLE 5.
TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT AND INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS FOR BOTH GROUPS ON THE POST-TEST

Group	Incorrect Translation	Correct Translation	Total Number of Translations
A	66	174	240
B	119	121	240

Group (A) and (B), as indicated in Table 5, had 66 and 119 incorrect translations respectively out of 240 translations on the post-test.

TABLE 6.
CHI-SQURES OBTAINED FROM TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT AND
INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS FOR BOTH GROUPS ON THE PRE-TEST

df	X^2	Sig.
1	24.71	<0.001

p<0.05

According to Table 6, when P-value is <0.05 and (X^2 = 24.71 with df=1 and p <0.001), there is a significant difference between the performance of groups on the post-test. Further, a chi-square was conducted for the total number of correct and incorrect translations of experimental group (A) on the pre-test and the post-test to make sure whether there is a significant difference between the performance of experimental group (A) on the pre-test and the post-test. The results are shown in tables 7 and 8.

TABLE 7.
TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT AND INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS FOR GROUP A ON THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

Group	Incorrect Translation	Correct Translation	Total Number of Translations
A	142	98	240
B	66	174	240

As illustrated in Table 7, group (A) had 142 and 66 incorrect translations respectively on the pre-test and the post-test.

TABLE 8.
CHI-SQURES OBTAINED FROM TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT AND
INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS FOR GROUP A ON THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

df	X^2	Sig.
1	49.0	<0.001

p<0.05

As indicated in Table 8, when P-value is <0.05 and (X^2 = 49.0 with df=1 and p <0.001), there is a significant difference between the performance of group (A) on the pre-test and the post-test.

Moreover, a chi-square was performed for the total number of correct and incorrect translations of control group on the pre-test and the post-test to make sure whether there is a significant difference between the performance of control group (B) on the pre-test and the post-test. The results are shown in tables 9 and 10.

TABLE 9.
TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT AND INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS FOR GROUP B ON THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

Group	Incorrect Translation	Correct Translation	Total Number of Translations
A	151	89	240
B	119	121	240

Table 9 shows that group (B) had 151 and 119 incorrect translations respectively on the pre-test and the post-test.

TABLE 10.
CHI-SQURES OBTAINED FROM TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECT AND
INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS FOR GROUP B ON THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

df	X^2	Sig.
1	8.97	0.003

p<0.05

Table 10 indicates that when P-value is <0.05 and (X^2 = 8.67 with df=1 and p= 0.003), there is a significant difference between the performance of group (B) on the pre-test and the post-test.

C. The Performance of Groups both on the Pre-test and the Post-test

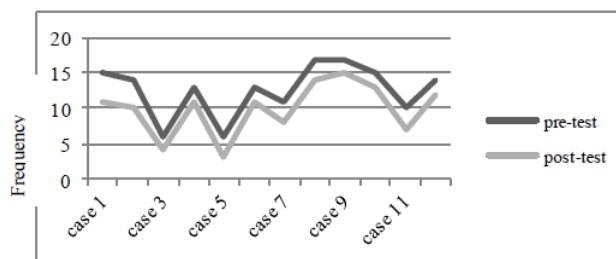"Fig.1" displays the performance of control group on both the pre-test and the post-test.

Figure 1. Comparison of the frequency of translation problems between the pre-test and post-test for the control group

"Fig. 2" shows the performance of experimental group on both the pre-test and the post-test.
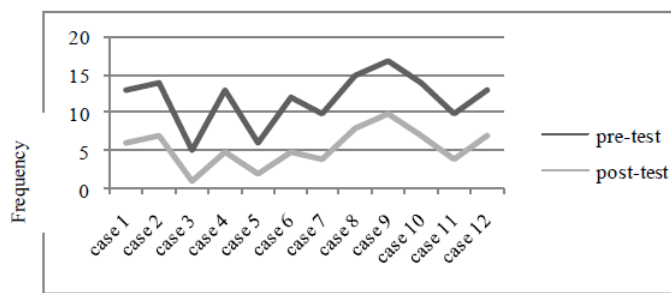

Figure 2.   Comparison of the frequency of translation problems between the pre-test and the post-test for experimental group

As "Fig.1 and 2" show, both groups decreased translation problems on the post-test comparing to the pre-test. But group (A) who received treatment decreased translation problems to a greater extent. What mentioned here is in accordance with the results of chi-squares obtained from Tables 8 and 10.

V. CONCLUSION

News is a part of people's life in the present century. Translation provides people of different languages with the same news all around the world. Acceptable translation of news especially political news plays an important role in evoking suitable reaction, issuing decent statements, keeping peace or waging war. It is the translator who decodes the message in the ST and encodes it in the TT in any type of translation and renders either an acceptable or unacceptable translation. A number of previous studies (Schäffner & Bassnett, 2010; Parenti, 1993; Chilton, 2004) mentioned that translator faces difficulty in translating political news. Therefore, trying the ways which may decrease translation problems made by translator and develop translator ability in translating political news is important.

In the same line, the present study investigated the effect of using supplementary practices on decreasing translation problems in translating political English news texts into Persian. To this end, first, two volunteer groups of B.A. senior students of Translation Studies were selected from PNU and IAU, the OQPT was administered and those who obtained the required score in both groups were chosen as the sample (20 students in each group). Then, the researcher held a pre-test consisting of 12 political English news sentences. Next, the researcher taught both groups the book '*News and Views*', and provided only students of PNU with supplementary practices on political news texts taken from the book '*Translating Texts in Politics*'. After that, the researcher held the post-test which was similar to the pre-test and enjoyed the same level of difficulty. Finally, the researcher conducted chi-square and analyzed the results.

Discussing the obtained results demonstrated that: (1) There was no significant difference between the performance of group (A) and (B) on the pre-test (p= 0.4 when P-value is <0.05), (2) There was a significant difference between the performance of group (A) and (B) on the post test (p <0.001 when P-value is <0.05), (3)There was a significant difference between the performance of group (A) on the pre-test and the post-test (p <0.001 when P-value is <0.05), and (4) There was a significant difference between the performance of group (B) on the pre-test and the post-test (p= 0.003 when P-value is <0.05). The results of chi-square showed a significant difference for the performance of both group (A) and (B) on the post-test comparing to the pre-test, however; group (A) performance enjoyed a higher level of significance (0.001) comparing to the performance of group (B) (0.003) when P-value is <0.05. This fact proved that group (A) had significantly fewer translation problems on the post-test comparing to the pre-test than that of group (B). Thus, it could be concluded that using supplementary practices had significant effect on decreasing translation problems in translating political English news texts into Persian.

APPENDIX A. (PRE-TEST)

Translate the following sentences into Persian.
1. The Senate should reconcile the measures with the proposed bill.
2. The U.N. is sponsoring negotiations between the two countries.
3. The two sides signed a peace accord after the war.
4. The worst activities of Saddam Hossien's regime─ torture and unfair trials are alive today.
5. The Israeli-Palestinian conflict is adding to instability in the region.
6. T he public was outraged by the recent government scandal.
7. He incited the people to rebel against the government.
8. Russian foreign Minister Sergei Lavrov discussed arms issues.
9. Iraq-stationed troops were Sweden peacekeepers.
10. The vote came just hours after Dana Perino renewed bush's vow.
11. The troops invaded the enemy military bases.
12. The senate rejected the Republican amendment that calls for United States troops to pull out of Iraq.

APPENDIX B. (POST-TEST)

Translate the following sentences into Persian.
1. The country is now enjoying stability and prosperity.
2. EU members should solve the issue among themselves.
3. Unfortunately they were unable to find a suitable person for the post.
4. There was a guard of honor for the president to inspect─ one hundred troops.
5. Poland-Russia summit ended in stalemate.
6. The commander in chief was given 36 hours to withdraw his troops from combat zone.
7. The new president made remarks against his predecessor.
8. British Home Secretary Charles Clark admitted losing track of foreign prisoners
9. Kashmir-organized militia group were responsible of criminal activities.
10. The politicians did not like the plan at first, but the parliament came to persuade them.

11. All sides of the conflict welcomed the renewal of negotiations.
12. The government needs to take swift action which deals with the situation before crisis develops.

APPENDIX C. EXAMPLES FROM THE BOOK 'TRANSLATING TXTS IN POLITICS'

Translation Problems	Words or Expressions which May Cause Mentioned Translation Problems	Unit and Page Number
Generalizing the first meaning of the word in translation	Whenever they fail to respond to public opinion in various spheres, they make such threats and *moves*", he added.	Unit1,p.13
Incorrect translation of acronym	It has been 32 years that *U.S.* officials are uttering such threats.	Unit1,p.13
Incorrect translation of article 'a'	*A* coalition is *a* pact among individuals which lets them unite their forces in joint action.	Unit1, p.19
Incorrect translation of dash	Israeli soldiers opened fire on Palestinian demonstrators in parts of Lebanon_ *the West bank, and Golan Heights.*	Unit2, p.26
Incorrect translation of hyphen	A separate trial began for doctors accused of alleged *anti-state* plots.	Unit4, p.34
Incorrect translation of passive voice	The government *was accused* of incompetence.	Unit1, p.18
Incorrect translation of preposition 'agains	They are not formally *against* any major power.	Unit1, p.19
Incorrect translation of the combination of noun and passive participle mood	The opposition leaders must end *protest-linked* show trials.	Unit4, p.34
Incorrect translation of the verb 'come'	The criminal court trial *comes* just four days before Bahrain's Al khalifa rulers seek to open talks with opposition groups.	Unit4, p.34
Using phrasal verb instead of simple or complex verb in translation	The terrorist *targeted* military bases.	Unit1, p.18
Using two or more verbs at the end of a complex sentence in translation	The chairman *asked* the committee if they *wished* to *recess*.	Unit1, p.18

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Forogh Karimipur Davaninezhad received her M.A. in Translation Studies from Islamic Azad University, Shahreza, Iran. She is an adjunct lecturer at Islamic Azad University and Payam-e-Noor University. Her research interest includes areas of translation problems, the relationship of translation and linguistics, morphology, political and tourism translations.

An Analysis of Discourses in CLT from Sociocultural Theory Perspective

Xiaomei Yang

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, China

Abstract—**Theoretically, CLT (communicative language teaching) aims to develop language learners' communicative competence with "whole-task practice, motivation improving, natural learning and learning supporting". But the real application of CLT still has weaknesses. This paper makes a study of classroom discourse from sociocultural theory perspective, and focus on teachers' talk, which is an important way in mediating learners' cognitive process. Discourse of reading and language structure teaching are discussed, and teachers' evaluation remarks are also included. The study points out that in CLT, more attention should be paid to the cognitive aspect of the leaning process rather than simple forms of class activities and interactions.**

Index Terms—**CLT, sociocultural theory, discourse, mediation, classroom**

I. INTRODUCTION

Communicative language teaching (CLT) emerged in 1970 with the theoretical basis that language is used to communicated with each other. The characteristics of CLT are that all activities of language study are interactive in nature with meaning conveyed from one party to another. CLT approach emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of language teaching. In China, CLT has been popular since 1990's for it has many merits compared with the traditional grammar-translation method. But in recent years, several studies (Zhang, 2006; Hu, 2010) were made pointing out the weaknesses of CLT in Chinese teaching context. Inspired by those studies and based on the author's class observation, this paper also makes a study on the effectiveness of CLT from sociocultural perspective.

Sociocultural theory, which originated from Russian linguist Vygotsky, or alternatively known as "cultural-historical theory" (Wertsch, 1985), emphasizes the importance of social-cultural factors in second language(SL) leaning. Sociocultural theory focuses on the cognitive process of language learning, with symbolic mediation playing an important role.

Sociocultural research is not a unified field, but those within it treat communication, thinking and learning as relate processes which are shaped by culture. The nature of human activity is that knowledge is shared and people jointly construct understanding of shared experiences.

A sociocultural perspective emphasizes the possibility that educational success and failure may be explained by the quality of educational dialogue (discourse is another term used by many linguists), which is not simply decided by the capability of individual students or the skill of their teachers. Sociocultural approach to SL learning and development is a particularly robust theory, as it focuses on the relation between an individual's development and the contexts of development, of which the individual student has been a part (Pacheco & Gutierrez, 2009). In recent years, several researches have been made to investigate language learning in sociocultural theory. For example, a researcher from New Zealand reviewed the meditational role of teachers' language in sociocultural theory and cited an excerpt between a teacher and several students to illustrate how scaffolding, teacher student interaction, and student-student interaction operates as assisted performance in language learning (Sun & Liu, 2009). Dawes. L. published a book titled "Creating a Speaking and Listening Classroom", in which he studied how teachers use language as a media to provide students with strategies and resources in order to help them learn in a more efficient way. In China, there are less researches focusing on English-teaching classroom discourse. Sun and Liu (2009) used a case study to illustrate how instructional language functions as a meditation, which was a typical study with qualitative and quantitative data supporting the findings. This paper, based on the theory and findings of overseas and domestic research, tries to investigate classroom discourse in CLT from the sociocultural perspective.

II. THE DEFECTS OF CLT IN CLASSROOM TEACHING

Since CLT emphasizes the interaction between teachers and students, there are more group work, pair work and questions and answers and evaluations. From appearance, the mode of class switches from "teacher-centered" to "student-centered" for there are more opportunities for students to talk compared with the traditional teaching methods, such as grammar translation approach. But we cannot ignore the fact that in China, English is learned as a foreign language rather than a second language, which means students have very little chance to get access to real English-speaking environment except involving in activities in class.

Hymes's "communicative competence" is a central idea in CLT, which stands in sharp contrast at the time with Noam Chomsky's influential use of the term "linguistic competence". Hymes was highly critical of a theory that explicitly set out to ignore the impact of social context on how language is used (Hymes, 1974). Communicative language teaching theory caters to the training of this competence in that it regards "interaction" as the main form of classroom teaching. CLT regards language neither as knowledge nor contents of classroom teaching, but as a means to send and receiveinformation. CLT advocates "task-based" teaching method in which daily and idiomatic language can be used to solve practical problems. As a result, CLT has been very popular in English classroom in our country.

What is neglected is that the appropriateness of language use relies on cross-cultural insights which need to be handled delicately even by native speakers. It cannot be taught within several hundreds of teaching hours in a classroom. (Bao, 2004).

The study of psychological linguists showed that in daily life people tend to acquire chunks of language that can be memorized by language speakers. The chunks can be used directly in verbal communication without being constructed at the moment, which greatly facilitated the communication process. Most expressions used in daily conversation stand in the speaker's memory. According to this theory, since the design of activities in CLT aims to practice the structure and vocabulary in daily use, the strategies to conduct a conversation in a new context are not effectively involved. Once there emerges new elements in a situation, the learner will feel vulnerable to handle the tasks and conduct "appropriate" conversations.

What is more important is that in CLT, learners can only get access to the "concrete" culture or culture in a narrow sense, such as using polite terms, or specific expression related to the context or task. Culture in a broad sense, as well as insights of cross-cultural differences, which seem to have nothing to do with classroom activities, are often not included in the teaching process. In this sense, Gui shichun criticized CLT is too superficial in language and culture learning.

III. CLT DISCOURSES FROM SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY PERSPECTIVE

A sociocultural approach assumes that individual development disposition must be understood in cultural and historical contexts, which are always embedded in social-political relations and struggles. A sociocultural perspective emphasizes that participation in cultural practices with others has consequences for individuals' learning and development. In other words, how students participate and engage in meaning-making activities depends largely on how teacher socially and culturally organize those activities. Discourse patterns reflects the overwhelming character of classroom talk wherein a teacher initiate (I) a question, and a student or students respond (R), and the teacher evaluates (E) the response with an utterance such as "good!" (Mehan, 1979). The following discussion is about discourses in CLT from sociocultural perspective.

A. Discourses Used in Reading Comprehension

Classroom examples best illustrate the how learners get the meaning of words, how talk, social interaction, roles, and the use of cultural tools affect the kind of knowledge that is acquired. Here is an example from Pacheco and Gurierrez.

Excerpt 1 (T= teacher, S= student)

(1) T: Stop right there. So she found them in a trunk in the attic. Okay, that's two words that we need to discuss right there. Trunk and attic. Now, trunk. A trunk is part of a car. But is a car in the attic?

(2) T: Now what do you think trunk is? [pause] Now, remember, what did she find? They found—she found bracelets and earrings in the trunk? What could it be?

(3) S1: Uhmm…

(4) S2: Oooh![waving his right hand]

(5) T: What would you put bracelets and earrings in?

(6) S4: a box.

(7) S2: In a box?

(8) T: In a box! A trunk is like a –

(9) Ss: Box.

(10) T: A BIG box. Sometimes they're like this big [leans over to show width of a big box] and you open'em up like this [motion the opening of treasure chest lid]. It's like a treasure chest.

(11) T: There's a—oh! How many of your parents have like a big suitcase? That's like a big box? And something you open it up and it looks like a treasure chest or like—a trunk. A trunk is a what? A big box where you put things. Do any of your families have a trunk? Any big trunks?

(12) T: Yeah. And they're pretty heavy to carry.

(13) Ss: Yeah.

(14) S3: Yep.

(Pacheco and Gurierrez, 2009)

In this excerpt, the meaning of "trunk" was discussed between the teacher and the students rather than being given by the teacher. This is supposed to be a merit in CLT for in the older Grammar-translation teaching approach, the meaning of a word would be explained by the teaching without any students' participation. The charm of CLT lays in the

interaction between the teacher and the student with the student involved in more classroom activities. But when we look closely, we can nevertheless found that the form of teacher-student talk was not like that in authentic conversation. In all the 14 turns of the above conversation, the teacher took 8 of them, which reflects an uneven distribution of turn-taking of the two parties. Because the teacher has more "power" in classroom, she or he can take advantage of the power and be more dominant. In authentic conversation, turns usually are more equally shared by the two parties involved.

Despite the unequally distributed turns, it is very clear that the teacher spoke much more than the students in contents. The teacher did most of the talking, using a variety of words and expressions, while the students' responses were only very short and very simple ones, such as "Yeah" or one word just to indicate they were listening. Seedhouse (1999) also pointed out that learners always took the language form as a means to complete a task, most expressions they used in classroom were easy, simple sentences, which had little positive effect on language learning.

The discussion above is only about the structure of the conversation in classroom. Here is what is deeper in the whole-group reading discussion: the teacher and the classroom discourse ostensible oriented towards vocabulary rather than sense making, that is, the opportunity for reading as interpretation of the world gave way to vocabulary building and the understanding of text meaning. The whole discussion was formed on an I-R-E discourse pattern, via which the discussion was oriented to next-step learning strategy. The teacher was strategic about building on her students' expanding lexicons, drawing on the text as a resource for obtaining the correct answers to her questions.

From a sociocultural perspective, the teacher did employ a variety of tools (i.e. talk, cultural knowledge, gestures, comparisons, and text) to help building the learners' lexicon, for the meaning of key words were central to the understanding of the material they were reading. Nevertheless, the whole activity was oriented to vocabulary building, even though a great effort was made to discuss those key words. It is obvious that the focus of the classroom activities was neither based on learners' meaning making of the story, nor was initiated by it. It was the teacher who brought up the topic "what is a trunk?", even the word "trunk" was not a problem in understanding the meaning of the whole material.

CLT claims that the teacher is not the only one who controls the class, with all participants having a say in classroom activities. The teacher no longer has a superior position, whose main task is to facilitate the conduction of various interactions in classroom (Hu, 2010). Still we can see that this goal is difficult to realize in real classroom teaching, since the teaching has the priority to decide which to talk about according to his/her perception of what is a problem in the sense-making process.

From the above discussion we can see that in teaching of reading, although the organization of class takes the form of "communicative" and the teacher really did a very good job in initiating questions to help the learners to build their vocabulary, the students are not likely to be encouraged to draw on language and literacy they develop through their participation across cultural communicates to develop the meaning making and critical thinking we value as what the learners should be taught.

B. Discourse Used in Teaching Language Forms

Forms of language, which are narrowly represented by grammar, is a very important part in beginners' learning of a language. In recent years, grammar-translation teaching method has been criticized and abandoned for being teacher-centered and its mechanical drills. In CLT, the teaching of language forms is supposed to be conducted in interactions between teachers and students with students highly involved in well-designed activities.

The following example is from a seven-grade English class in a county in Shandong province. The whole class was videotaped by the author. The teacher is evaluated as an excellent teacher with good teaching skills, who claimed the method she used is "communicative teaching method" when she taught the grammar to express "time", such as "it's ~ o'clock". Here are the script of classroom activities and interactions between the teacher and the students.

Excerpt 2 (T=teacher, S=student)
T: You usually get up—
S1: I usually get up at five [pause] o'clock.
T: At five—
Ss: O'clock
T: At five o'clock. We learned it yesterday, "Five" should be followed by –
Ss: O'clock
T: What time do you usually get dressed?
S2: I usually get dressed at five ten.
T: This is one way to say 5:10, and what is the other way?
S3: Ten past five.

With single student answering the question or the students answering the question together, the class did seem very "active" and "communicative". But when we look at the conversation closely, there might reveal a different picture. Bakhtin (1986) held the view that teachers promote learners language learning by using mediational language as linguistic interaction, in which learners learn through incorporating the language of others or responding to others reactions. According to sociocultural theory, what the teacher say in a class, such as the way that the teacher composes a

question or the way they make an evaluation, is of vital importance to the construction of the student's knowledge. The discourse in classroom mediates the acquisition of sentence structure.

From the script, we can see that the teacher paid much attention to the form of "it's ~ o'clock", with special emphasis on "o'clock" following the number. The teacher designed two initiative-response rounds to rehearse the word "o'clock", with very obvious purpose orienting to the form of this expression. As a result, the students, who were in the seventh grade without much experience in an authentic communication context, would cognitively be busy distinguishing the correctness or incorrectness of the form rather than take it as a means to express their own idea or give information. What's more, the student's answer was not based on their own experience, although they did get up at a certain time every morning. The teacher left very little chance for the student to use this expression to describe their real life, and forms of grammar takes the priority. This kind of teaching is likely to make the student regard language as something printed on the textbook, just like mathematics and chemistry.

The emphasis on language forms can also be seen from the last question. Instead of giving an evaluation to S2, the teacher continued to ask another question "what is the other way (to say 5:10)?", although S2 answered the question correctly.

Of course language forms like plurality need to be practiced in the teaching process. But such a rigid form does undermine students' potential to use it as "real language". They were too worried about if they were saying the correct form rather than expressing the appropriate meaning. And in this case, we need to point out that "o'clock" is not an indispensable word in this situation: it is quite correct to say "I get up at five". Here we did not make a thorough investigation why the teacher emphasized the use of "o'clock", but whatever the teacher highlighted in his or her discourse will mediate the student's cognition in language learning.

So there are two aspects of this excerpt. One is the teacher's discourse is efficient in involving the students in class activities so they have the chance to practice a structure orally. On the other hand, the discourses between the teacher and students in the classroom do not have a positive effect on students' communicative competence. In the application of CLT, it is unlikely that all the predicted and assumed effects can be achieved.

C.   The Teacher's Evaluation

As is mentioned above, discourse patterns mostly take the form of "I-R-E". A comparative study (Hu and Guo, 2007) showed that Chinese teachers used less positive evaluations than that in foreign teachers' classroom. The use of particular evaluation in discourse reflects teachers' attitude, which in turn incurs a consequent attitude from the student. Chinese teachers give less positive evaluation or very general evaluation such as "good" or "ok", the reason of which can be traced to the culture of we Chinese people that being modest and respectful is supposed to be traits of good students. From the excerpt 2, we can see although the teacher initiate several questions and the students successfully answered these questions, she did not give any positive evaluation, instead, she expanded the previous question for more opportunities to rehearse the structure. In western culture, questions and any contribution to classroom activities are valued as active participation in classroom activities. Evaluations such as "This is a good question" and "excellent" are quite popular in American classrooms.

Sociocultural theory focuses on mediation in the process of language learning, and in China, the lack of English context out of school makes discourse in classroom especial important, for the student's motivation, affection, and cognitive process will be greatly influenced by the language used in the classroom. As young people, students are all very self-conscious, so the lack of positive evaluation will weaken their motivation and confidence in language learning.

Since CLT features more interactions between the teacher and the student, when students participate activities, they are also likely to be hurt emotionally. In the traditional "teacher-centered" classroom, students were given very little chance to speak, as a result, they felt "more secure" and less anxious. In CLT, the students need to use English frequently before their peers, so those students whose English are not very fluent will feel more anxious. The lack of immediate and specific evaluation makes the students less motivated, disappointed and more anxious.

In CLT, the teacher should be more positive towards students' performances. The frequent use of sincere and supporting evaluation will provide a more secure and encouraging environment for language learning, in which students will be appreciated by the teacher. Evaluation, as a kind of mediation, will not only develop the learner's language performance, but also increase their self-esteem.

IV.   THE DESIGN OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE FROM SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

From a sociocultural perspective, in second language and foreign language learning, social interaction is regarded as an integral process in language learning, and human cognition is formed through social activity. According to this view, learning an second or foreign language is understood as a semiotic process attributable to participation in social activities rather than internal mental processes solely by the individual (Block, 2003; Lantolf & Thorne 2006).

Language is a tool between teaching and learning and teacher's language mediating the construction of individual's knowledge (Mercer 2005). In English classes, teachers should be conscious of how language is processed cognitively. What kind of question can relate students' social experience (background knowledge, "schema" is another word used by many researchers) to new knowledge?

Since CLT is widely used in different levels of language teaching, some teachers interpret "communicative" as more classroom activities and "learner-centered" as providing more opportunities for the student to speak. They seldom take the cognitive factor in to consideration, and the discourses they use in class are far from learns' experience in society. The design of classroom discourse is a complex field to study, and from sociocultural theory we know teachers' question should facilitate students' cognitive development, using context cues or logical deduction to mediate students' ability to arrive at the correct mastery of knowledge. In some cases, for example, reading fluency can be undermined through skills-based practices (Pacheco & Gutierrez, 2009). A lot of work needs to be done in the design of classroom activity design and discourse design.

V. CONCLUSION

The above classroom examples illustrate the usefulness of the theoretical approach for reexamining how context—the organization of talk, classroom discourse, space, texts, ideas for example—affects the development of students' learning process. Teachers can employ effective discourse to liven up the classroom atmosphere and provide more opportunities for students to involve themselves in classroom activities, but still have limitation on meaning making, which we value across academic contexts, and the real communicative competence in authentic environment rather than fixed language form.

There are still a lot to be done in this field. Researches can be carried out in classrooms of different subjects, such as Chinese, mathematics to see if there are different discourse patterns because of the nature of learning subjects. A great amount of videoed data is needed to support the research in this field. In addition, whether students' age or gender influences the discourse pattern is still unknown.

Future research can also focus on how students learn online with the assistance of teachers in a virtual context rather than a face-to-face setting. From a sociocultural perspective, whether there is any implication of the relation between language and thought to learners' thinking ability development and to collaborative learning in foreign language teaching is of great research significance. The study of this field needs the contribution from pedagogical, psychological, linguistic and other related fields. Anyhow, the range of questions to be explored is immense, and both teachers and researchers should take them into account.

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Xiaomei Yang was born in Linyi, China in 1975. She receives her master degree in linguistics and applied linguistics from Qufu Normal University, China in 2000. She is currently associate professor in school of foreign languages Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao. Her research interests include critical discourse analysis and second language acquisition.

Trace of Literary Movements in Hemingway's Early Works

Shahla Sorkhabi Darzikola

Department of English, Payame Noor University, Iran

Abstract—**Nature would be the criterion of Ernest Hemingway's life and work. The way that he weaves the themes of his early works together creates a portrait of Americans before, during and after the war with which people seemed to identify. Hemingway in his primary works portrayed the lives of two types of people. One type consisted of men and women depressed by World War I. The other types were men of simple personality and simple emotions, such as bullfighters and prizefighters. Hemingway wrote of their brave and usually futile battles against environments. The present study aimed to identify the trace of Realism and Modernism has been drawn between Hemingway's early works with studying of *In Our Time, Three Story and Ten poem* and *The Sun Also Rises.***

Index Terms—**Ernest Hemingway, realism, modernism, *In Our Time, Three Stories and Ten Poem, The Sun Also Rises***

I. INTRODUCTION

Ernest Hemingway's literary heritages "As Patrick Hemingway, Ernest Hemingway's son, observed: Ernest Hemingway was inspired by Literature as well as personal experience" (Hemingway Ernest, 2014). Ernest at his family's lakeside cottage in Horton Bay, in Charlevoix County, Michigan, he fished, hiked, swam, hunted, read, grew vegetables, daydreamed, and made friends with the Ojibway Indians. He experienced a rural leisure more typical of the nineteenth century than of the twentieth.

Over the years, as more families built summer homes, as logging decimated the forests, and as the Indian population was increasingly impoverished and marginalized, Horton Bay found it more difficult to maintain its distance from the racism and commercialism that white middle-class Oak Park practiced even as it decried it. But Hemingway never forgot those Edenic summers and, in a passage cut from *Death in the Afternoon*, he mourns the loss:. It was a country of forests, lakes and streams and small farms with hills and pastures, always with a background of woods. There was no place in upper Michigan where you could look across open land and not see the forest and you were never far away from running water. People destroyed the jungles and water of the beautiful rivers became less" (Mandel Miriam, 2004).

It can be mentioned that nature would be the criterion of Hemingway's life and work, and though he often found himself living in main cities like Chicago, Toronto and Paris early in his job, once he became successful he took somewhat isolated places to live similar to Key West, San Francisco de Paula, Cuba, Idaho and Ketchum. All were convenient locales for fishing and hunting.

Afterward the First World War, some of American people and writers were left disenchanted and the group of writers and thinkers chose to live abroad. This time, America desired a kind of literature that would clarify the war events and its effects on their society. American authors apply to what is at present recognized as Modernism. "Realism and Modernism portrayed American society after World War I and tried to find the solutions brought upon by the suffering formed by the war (Elliott Emory, 1988)".

The realistic effort of the late 19th century saw writers exactly shows life and its difficulties. "Realists made an effort to give a complete image of modern life by giving the perfect portrait. They did not effort to give one view of life but instead made an effort to demonstration the different classes, behaviors, and stratification of life in America. Realists shaped this portrait of America by uniting a wide variety of details derived from observation and certification to approach the norm of experience (Elliott Emory, 1988)". Accompanied by the method, realists matched the "objective or absolute existence in America to that of the universal truths, or observed facts of life (Bradley Sculley, 1967)".

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

About Ernest Hemingway's life and writing style has been written many essay and books. Some of them are:

American Literary Realism, Critical Theory, and Intellectual Prestige, 1880-1995 was written by Phillip Barrish, 2001. It contains five chapters with the subjects of history, criticism and theory of American fiction in 19th and 20th century. Besides it explains intellectual life of 19th and 20th century in the United States.

The other interesting work is related to the paper topic is *American Modernism (1910-1945), American literature in its historical, cultural and social contexts* by Roger Lathbury, 2006. "It includes the five volumes of Backgrounds to

American Literature explore 500 years of American literature by looking at the times during which the literature developed" (Lathbury Roger, 2006).

The next important literary source is the book by Borges Leila, *British Literature & American Literature, published in Centro Universitario Da Cidade, 2007*. In her book the author discussed the following issues: "Analyzing Fiction, Literary terms and the meaning of literature by language or place of origin, or by prevailing cultural standards of merit" (Borges Leila, 2007).

III. Research Methodology

The researcher studied literary sources that related to this paper topic as Modernism, Realism and Hemingway's writing style. Next; the researcher read biographical work on Ernest Hemingway life to get a clear picture of his background, his development as author and his response to the area that he lived in. The researcher, after that, did an exhaustive reading of Hemingway major works.

IV. Results and Discussion

As before mentioned subsequently World War I, American people was alienated. The war reduced the individual identity and the society all together. "The human personality was dwarfed as much by the dehumanizing magnitude of modern events as by natural laws that controlled man to their own destiny. Authors after World War I created a new literature of enduring merit that shattered conventional taboos in their expression of physical and psychological actuality (Spiller Robert, 1966)". It can be mentioned it became the start of Modernism.

Similar to realists, modernists concentrated upon heroes' feelings and applied symbolism to portrait their creative writing. Modernist authors were astonished at the critical power of war on the common people. Hemingway directed the modernistic renaissance by using realistic and naturalistic methods.

It was nearly at that time that the period Lost Generation came into practice. It referred to a shared group of artists and writers who established in Europe in the wake of the First World War. Memberships of the Lost Generation lived in Europe in the 1920s and early 1930s, and they had a deep impact on the society and the arts. This group is referred to as lost not because it has discolored from memory, but because the persons in the Lost Generation often expressed a sense of emotional misperception, feeling lost in their society.

Ernest Hemingway was the Lost Generation's frontrunner in the version of the naturalistic method in the novel. This group included the modernist movement in art and writing, along with the Surrealist movement

Hemingway was one of American writers who wrote about war in in his several unforgettable fictions. "Scholars, including Sean Hemingway, the author's grandson and editor of the recent anthology, Hemingway on War, continue to use documents and photographs in the Hemingway Collection to educate others about Hemingway and his writings on war. The topic of war has also been central to Hemingway forums and conferences organized by the Kennedy Library, including a recent session entitled Writers on War. And at the Hemingway centennial, held at the library in 1999, many speakers referenced Hemingway's experience in war and his observations on its aftermath as an abiding element of his literary legacy (Putnam Thomas, 2006)".

Hemingway's hurtful along the Piave River in Italy and his following recovery at a hospital in Milan stimulated his *A Farewell to Arms* and the short story of *Soldier's Home* (1925). The latter was presented as a first collection in *In Our Time*. The chief character of this story is Harold Krebs, who is anguished from his involvements in the war. He comes to the comprehension that he does not have its place in his childhood home any longer. Harold's mother attempts to get her son out of his post-war disturbance by finding a job and a girlfriend. The short story was inscribed years later, suggestions visions into his return and his sympathetic of the problems of the returned war veteran.

Krebs got disordered and isolated as he tried hard to find a habitation in his family and town. "Life was no longer simple for Krebs, things that had been simple prior to his leaving had suddenly become complicated, and he did not want them themselves really. They were too complicated in reference to his women issues (Meyer Michael, 2003)".

Krebs regretful condition directed some readers to frame their reactions depended upon his life and the problems he currently suffers. "Krebs paints a picture for us that show how difficult it is to fit back into society after being away fighting a war. Normal feelings that a boy of his age would have seemed to have disappeared or been stripped from him because of his experiences at war and in the military. He talks about seeing girls, but not wanting to make effort or even introduce himself. In fact an overwhelming number of responses were concerned with Krebs' ability not to talk to women. To sum up, the fiction is inscribed by a person that was scarred when he was younger in virtually the same manner as the lead character Krebs. The involvements in the fiction do suggestion a hint into the writer's personal life, and problems.

It can be noted one of the major developments in modernist literature is Hemingway's *In Our Time* writing style that is simple, declarative sentences with slight or no portrayal of feeling .The subjects that Hemingway emphasized as a final point took the essence of the Great War. In the fiction, he inscribes about masculinity because of battling and sport, people relationships, bonding between members of the same sex, love, growth and adaptation, maturity, and responsibility.

Big Two-Hearted River is Hemingway's other collection that is one of the best pictures of his declarative sentences technique of inscription. The collection shows Hemingway's emotional experiences and Hemingway introduces Nick Adams that is closely based on him. Nick grows up in the Chicago region, holidays in Michigan and shares with his father a love for fishing and hunting, contributes in the First World War, where he is strictly injured, and finally comes to be an author. Nick Adams acquires knowledge about birth and death in Indian camp. He *In The Battler* is on the road for the first time and earns many data from an old fighter and his friend.

Hemingway in his primary works portrayed the lives of two types of people. One type consisted of people depressed by the First World War I, of faith in the moral principles in which they had believed, and who lived with cynical disrespect for anything but their own emotional needs. The other types were men of simple personality and simple emotions, such as bullfighters and prizefighters. Hemingway wrote of their brave and usually futile battles against environments. As telling the truth is author's duty. He explained this subject in his *A Moveable Feast:* "I would stand and look out over the roofs of Paris and think, Do not worry. You have always written before and you will write now. All you have to do is write one true sentence. Write the truest sentence that you know. So finally I would write one true sentence, and then go on from there. It was easy then because there was always one true sentence that I knew or had seen or had heard someone say (Hemingway Ernest, 1964)".

Hemingway's individual inquests for reality were straight connected. About it Earl Rovit point out: "More often than not, Hemingway's fictions seem rooted in his journeys into himself much more clearly and obsessively than is usually the case with major fiction writers.... His writing was his way of approaching his identity–of discovering himself in the projected metaphors of his experience. He believed that if he could see himself clear and whole, his vision might be useful to others who also lived in this world (Ibid)".

In *A Moveable Feast,* one of Hemingway's features that was his self-discipline was shown as he Stated "If I started to write elaborately, or like someone introducing or presenting something, I found that I could cut that scrollwork or ornament out and throw it away and start with the first true simple declarative sentence I had written.... I decided that I would write one story about each thing that I knew about. I was trying to do this all the time I was writing, and it was good and severe discipline" (Bloom Harold, 2002) and in *Death in the Afternoon* he pointed out "…in writing for a newspaper you told what happened and with one trick and another, you communicated the emotion to any account of something that has happened on that day, he admitted that the hardest part of fiction writing, the real thing, was contriving the sequence of motion and fact which made the emotion and which would be valid in a year or ten years or, with luck and if you stated it purely enough, always (Bloom Harold, 2002)".

We can see that love of outdoor adventure would be reflected later in several of Hemingway's works, mainly those highlighting protagonist Nick Adams.

Hemingway's *Three Stories and Ten Poems*, assisted to establish Hemingway as one of the leading talents of the Modernist movement.The first story of *Three Stories and Ten Poems* is *Up in Michigan*. The story shows the beginnings of Hemingway's own typical prose style. The fiction is fixed in Hortons Bay, Michigan, near to place that Hemingway spent his adolescent summers.

As a theme in this short story Hemingway expresses his fiction without verbose fillers and his writing method lets the reader to recreate the background of the fiction that recalls his Iceberg Principle.

Hemingway's *The Sun also Rises* (1926), is another story that can be discussed as a modernist novel, and as Jeffrey Meyers inscribes that the novel is "recognized as Hemingway's greatest work" (Meyers Jeffrey, 1985).

Hemingway's *The Sun Also Rises* describes the source of a separation from society that had been enforced upon by the conditions of the time. If we consider this situation, it depicts a young boy separated from society as a result of his participation in WWI, the loss of confidence and hope, and collapse of previous values that takes place. His earlier writing can occasionally be labeled as covering characteristic impacts of Naturalism. This can be mirrored in his presentation of the severe relationships between destiny and environment. Hemingway in his profession, again took the estrangement from society way. "This time, in the soul of realist Henry James, he segregate himself from American society to better critic it. By his story The Rolling Hills of Africa, Hemingway matches American beliefs to that of another. Sometimes Hemingway …began to seem like a little more than a modern realist (Spiller Robert, 1966)."

As a main theme of novel *The Sun Also Rises* can be referred to the Lost Generation's aimlessness and male insecurity, so the motif is the failure of communication, and incorrect friendships. Hemingway's combination of the two epigraphs produces an indecisive tone. On the one hand, there is hopefulness, because there will be a new generation after the purposeless generation that inhabits *The Sun Also Rises*. On the other hand, there is unpleasant irony, since each generation is lost, in the sense that every generation will finally die.

Aldridge inscribes that "*The Sun Also Rises* has kept its appeal because the novel is about being young. The characters live in the most beautiful city in the world, spend their days traveling, fishing, drinking, making love, and generally reveling in their youth. He believes the expatriate writers of the 1920s appeal for this reason, but that Hemingway was the most successful in capturing the time and the place in *The Sun Also Rises* (Martin Linda Wagner, 1998)."

Bloom states "…that some of the characters have not stood the test of time, writing that modern readers are uncomfortable with the anti-Semitic treatment of Cohn's character and the Romanticization of a bullfighter. Moreover, Brett and Mike belong uniquely to the Jazz Age and do not translate to the modern era. Bloom believes the novel is in

the canon of American literature for its formal qualities: its prose and style (Bloom Harold, 2007)."Nagel inscribes that *"The Sun Also Rises* was a dramatic literary event and its effects have not diminished over the years (Donaldson Scott, 1996)."

it can be said ,one of the best and most important of Hemingway's works was his first novel and it came to be seen as an iconic modernist novel, even though Reynolds highlights that "Hemingway was not philosophically a modernist (Martin Linda Wagner, 1998)". In the book, "his characters epitomized the post-war expatriate generation for future generations (Mellow James, 1992)".

V. Conclusion

The present study aimed to identify the trace of Realism and Modernism has been drawn between Hemingway's early works with studying of *In Our Time, Three Story and Ten poem* and *The Sun Also Rises.*

Hemingway became the most well-known American realist and modernist author in the world in the first half of the 20th century.

In studying Hemingway's fiction we come to the conclusion that he uses his personal experiences and we may see in this flash how his early novels were written, how he shared his own secret with his novels.

To show the Synthesis of Realism and Modernism in Hemingway's Early Works it can be said *Three Stories and Ten Poems* assisted to establish Hemingway as one of the leading talents of the Modernist movement.

Another collection of Hemingway's short stories is *In Our Time* that introduces readers to Hemingway's distinctive method. The collection shows Hemingway's emotional experiences and Hemingway introduces Nick Adams that is closely based on him. *In Our Time* used declarative sentences with little or no description of emotion which became so common for his unique style of writing. *The Sun Also Rises* is about the Lost Generation and male insecurity, so the motif is the failure of communication, extreme drinking and false friendships.

Hemingway's economical writing style frequently seems simple, but his method is calculated and used to multifarious effect. In his writing Hemingway provided isolated descriptions of action, using simple nouns and verbs to capture scenes in particular that allowed him avoid describing his characters' emotions and thoughts openly.

As it has been proved in this paper, Hemingway is also considered a master of dialogue. The conversations between his characters reveal not only communication but also its limits In addition; Hemingway is truly alive in his words because his words are accurately his. His style is exceptionally his. This is what makes him a writer in the truest sense.

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Shahla Sorkhabi Darzikola is PHD in English Literature, graduated from National Academy of Science, Armenia. Now, she works in department of English, Payame Noor University and Islamic Azad University, Firouzkooh, Iran.

The Effect of Dynamic Assessment on Elementary EFL Learners' Overall Language Attainment

Farhad Azarian
Department of English Language Teaching and Literature, Ahar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahar, Iran

Nava Nourdad
University of Tabriz, Tabriz, Iran

Naser Nouri
Department of English Language Teaching and Literature, Ahar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahar, Iran

Abstract—Dynamic assessment has opened new horizons for teaching and assessment of language learning. The present study was undertaken to explore the impact of dynamic assessment on improving overall language attainment of elementary Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) students. To make sure about the homogeneity of the participants in both groups the standard Placement Test of Top Notch was administered on 74 male students and 40 students were selected for this research. They were randomly placed in two control and experimental groups each group including 20 participants. Then, the participants in the control group were taught Top NOTCH-FUNDAMENTALS A in the normal class procedure until the post test. But, participants of the experimental group were taught through dynamic assessment technique. After the treatment, to see whether participants' overall language attainment has been improved through dynamic assessment, a post-test was administered to the participants of both groups. The result of post-test showed that there was significant difference between two groups' overall language attainment, that is, group dynamic assessment outperformed control group. The findings can have pedagogical implications for language teachers, testers, teacher educators, and syllabus designers.

Index Terms—dynamic assessment, language attainment, ZPD, static assessment, EFL learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning is important in our everyday lives. We use language to communicate with other people, to assert our emotions, feelings, desires, etc. English is an international language that has a fundamental and undeniable role in our lives. So learning English seems to be vital.

Dynamic assessment (DA) has some general characteristics that may be influential on the improving overall language attainment of EFL learners. DA has a process-oriented nature in which instruction and assessment are integrated as a unified activity. Assessment and instruction are dialectally integrated into the same development oriented activity. In other words DA takes monistic view toward assessment and instruction.

DA is administrated based on the test-intervention-retest format which is closely related to the learner's modification. One significant characteristic of DA is that, unlike Non-Dynamic assessment (NDA), it measures a learner's response with an attempt to intervene in order to change, guide, or improve the learner's performance.

DA as a performance based test through providing the learners with appropriate mediation can decrease the learners' anxiety and create a positive attitude toward assessment and instruction. Also, DA through providing close relationship between teacher and learner makes learners more eager to learn new abilities.

Lantolf and Poehner (2004) believe that DA provides a complete picture of learners' abilities, and also by providing the learners with mediation or instructional intervention assists them to develop their L2 abilities.

Traditionally, assessors were taught to be neutral and provide the test takers with directions as the way the test "is." But, mediation has an important in DA and it can be said that mediation is the core of DA. When assessor conducts DA, he/she should not consider himself/herself as a neutral third party. Instead he/she should provide learners with mediation based on their zone of proximal development (ZPD), and find rotes to move the learners to the next level of development (Haywood & Lidz, 2007).

According to Vigotsky's sociocultural theory (SCT), the concept of ZPD takes the view that learners' abilities are not fixed and they are flexible. The counter distinction of ZPD is zone of actual development (ZAD). Learners' responsiveness to mediation suspends on their current level ability (ZAD).

Vigotsky (1978) believed that teachers at school just look at learners' individual problem solving, while progress in concept formation can be achieved through learners' cooperation with a more mature counterpart. He considered that

social interaction and mediation have an important role in the learners' internalization. The role of more mature counterpart is that to provide the learners with constructive mediation or scaffolding.

Vigotsky held the view that interpersonal interaction is one of the main factors in the learning abilities. When these abilities are internalized, they can be transformed to become the learners' inner cognitive processes. Thus, through cooperation and mutual interaction between the learners and their more mature partners, it is possible to be revealed certain emergent functions that have not yet been internalized.

It should be considered that, nowadays product oriented teaching and testing are being used more than process oriented teaching and testing, and what is important for language teachers around the world including Iranian teachers is the final scores of students. Sometimes it can be heard that teachers complain of their students' scores. They state that we don't understand why some students perform very well in the class cannot get high grades from the tests. Dynamic assessment which focuses on process rather product or outcome, can be reasonable solution for this problem.

Considering the above mentioned features of DA and comparing it with NDA it can be said that DA can be more impressive on improving elementary EFL learners' overall language attainment. DA assessment has generated an impressive body of research in the study of general intelligence and of basic learning abilities among individuals with special needs. The effect of DA on development of individual skills has also been investigated in a few studies. However, the effect of dynamic assessment on overall language attainment which is more practical for language teachers in communicative and task-based classes has not received the attention it really deserves. Therefore, this study for the first time intended to investigate the effect of DA on elementary EFL' overall language attainment.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Dynamic Assessment

Vygotsky's colleague Luria was the first person who coined the term DA. DA has been used for more than fifty years, and in fact it is not a new approach in teaching and testing. Although it has been used for more than half century, but it is still not widely applied around the countries of world including Iran. DA is an alternative to standardized tests, and it can be regarded as a complement to other types of testing, not a replacement for them. Feuerstein was the first person who did some studies on this topic. He used DA in order to estimate the learning potential of low level performing children. Psychologists have used it in order to assess cognitive development potential of learners (Anton, 2003).

DA aims to measure, intervene, modify behaviors and document the process of learning. In DA examiner and learner should have an active role. Also, in DA individuals' behaviors are viewed modifiable. Thus, DA is above all social, interactive, and qualitative (Haywood & Lidz, 2007).It should be taken into account that mediation has a crucial role on internalization and it is the process by which a person moves from object/other regulation (i.e. explicit or implicit mediation and scaffolding of parents, teacher, or peers) to self-regulation (i.e. having voluntarily control over L2 to regulate thought).

Traditionally assessment and instruction were viewed as separable activities. In other words traditional conceptualization of assessment was that assessment and instruction are different from each other and they cannot be integrated with each other and they have a dichotomous relationship (Haywood & Lidz, 2009). DA takes the view that assessment and instruction should not be separated from each other, and they should be fully integrated. In fact, DA challenges traditional view on teaching and testing and takes a monistic view toward them. It is worth to mention that intervention has an important role in the integration of teaching and testing. It should be embedded within the assessment procedure to reinterpret learners' abilities and move them to higher level of functioning (Lidz, 1991).

Poehner (2008, P.102) has defined DA as "an interaction between an examiner-as-intervener and a learner-as-active participant, which seeks to estimate the degree of modifiability of the learner and the means by which positive changes in cognitive functioning can be induced and maintained". Lidz and Gindis (2003, P. 100) point out that for Vygotsky, "abilities are not innate but are emergent and dynamic". What can be inferred from this is that abilities must not be regarded as stable and fixed traits that can be measured; rather, they should be considered as the results of learners' history of social interactions in the world.

B. Dynamic Assessment Procedure

DA procedure has a test-intervene-retest format. At first, learners should be given test in order to establish their independent performance (without interaction and mediation of examiner). Accordingly, examiner should provide the learners with intervention in order to produce changes. After these, they should be given retest in order to assess the degree and nature of their changes. According to Haywood and Lidz (2007), it is very important that the content used for pre-testing (and post-testing) be just beyond the individual's zone of actual development (ZAD) and, therefore, requires mediation or intervention. Intervention is the core of DA and it cannot be assumed without intervention, and it is not reasonable to provide intervention for contents that are either already mastered or so far from the learners' current knowledge that may discourage them. Through providing the learners with appropriate mediation and also interaction between the assessor and the learner it will be possible to create learners' zone of next (proximal) development (ZPD).

C. Theories behind Dynamic Assessment

Theoretical framework of DA rooted in the Vigotskys' writing on the ZPD. Mediation has a crucial role on the ZPD and Vygotskys' theory. Higher order thinking depends on individuals' interaction with other people and with physical and symbolic artifacts. It can be said that, in this way individuals' relationship to the world is mediated and it is not a directed process.

Vygotsky (1998, p.201) believed that independent problem solving is not sufficient in indicating mental functioning and it shows only part of individuals' mental ability, that is, their actual development level. He argued that assistance is a main factor in the understanding mental functioning. Indeed, through responsiveness to assistance it can be possible to provide the learners' future development. That is, what the learner can do already with assistance, they are able to do it later alone.

It should be taken in to account that, potential development is different from actual development. Actual development cannot predict potential development, and this means that potential development cannot be predicted without concrete mediation. Indeed, through providing the learners with mediation it can be possible to predict their potential development.

D. Previous Studies of DA

Although there is a lot of research on DA in general education and psychology, it can be said that this approach is relatively new in second/foreign language. Among the limited number of empirical studies is Hill and Sabet's research (2007) in which they run a dynamic assessment on Japanese students' speaking. This study based on the dynamic assessment procedure was done in three phases. First, students were asked to speak about one of their previous experiences, using past tense. In the second phase, the students were given a more difficult test task (paraphrasing a story, using the past tense). During this phase, they provided the students with mediation in the form of the explicit feedback. Finally in the third phase in order to check how much of the mediation is transferred from the second to the third phase, the students were asked to rephrase another story in the past. The scores were given according to what learners were able to do with the help they were provided with. Data analysis revealed a significant difference.

In another study, Ukrainetz et al. (2000) used DA for assessing the language ability of Native American children. They did this study through implementing a test-teach-retest protocol. Participants were taught the principle of categorization (i.e., grouping items). Through implementing DA procedure and providing the children with appropriate mediation their skills were markedly improved. The results further indicated that posttest scores differed between stronger and weaker learners.

In an informing study on DA, Ajideh, Farrokhi and Nourdad (2012)implemented dynamic assessment to find new and hidden aspects of reading ability for Iranian EFL learners of different proficiency levels. The findings showed differences in the extent of overestimation and underestimation of reading ability for high, mid, and low proficient readers. Differences were also found for the source and stage of development in these proficiency groups. The most important part of the data was related to the development and transcendence of the reading ability which was the main goal of DA. It was concluded that high proficient learners had the highest ability in taking advantage of interactions and applying them into new and similar tasks in independent performance and the transcendence ability decreased for the lower proficiency level readers.

Ajideh and Nourdad (2012) also investigated the effect of DA and NDA on reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners and also the immediate and delayed effect of it. The results of the study showed a significant difference between DA and NDA with a statistically significant increase in the reading comprehension scores of the group being assessed dynamically. The results of the study also revealed the existence of not only immediate but also delayed effect of DA on reading ability of the participants.

In another study Zoghi and Malmeer (2014) investigated the effects of DA on Iranian EFL learners' grammatical abilities with different age groups. The results revealed the learners in both age groups benefited the application of DA in their classes. It also revealed that learners belonging to different age groups were not influenced by DA to the same degree, and adults benefited more than teenagers when an interactionist DA was presented.

Previous studies, some of which were mentioned above with all the promoting results imply that more studies are needed in the field of language learning in order to better understand the effects of DA on language learning and provide more guidance to language teachers who wish to use DA in their language classrooms. They all considered the effect of DA on specific skills, while in language institutes language attainment includes integration of skills and subskills. The present study therefore aimed at filling some part of the gap in DA literature by investigating the effect of DA on elementary EFL's overall language attainment. No study has previously investigated the role of DA on elementary EFL's language attainment. Considering these points the following research question was raised.

RQ: Does implementing dynamic assessment improve overall language attainment of elementary EFL learners?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Altogether 40 Iranian students took part in this study. They were male students and were taking elementary courses. They were randomly assigned into two groups of experimental and control.

B. Instruments

Two types of instruments; a placement test and complete assessment package were utilized to gather the required data. As to the first instrument, to make sure about the homogeneity of the participants and equality of the language proficiency in both experimental and control groups the standard Placement Test of Top Notch (Joan Saslow & Allen Ascher, 2006) was administered on 74 male students in Avaye Danesh institute, and 40 students who got 0 to 10scores were selected for this research. The reason of selecting students with these scores is that based on the scoring rate of the designer of this test, students whose scores were between 0 to 10 would be placed in the elementary level. The placement test consisted of Listening, Reading, Speaking, and General Test. In other words, it was used in order to pick up elementary EFLs, and also to check the homogeneity of the participants. In addition, this test was used as a pretest for students' language attainment. As to the second instrument, the complete assessment package (standard achievement test of Top Notch-Fundamentals A) was used to score overall language attainment of EFL learners during the term.

C. Procedure

74 male learners of a language institute in Iran were given the placement test of TOP NOTCH series which were in fact the main course books of the institute. According to the guidelines of the test package and based on the placement test, forty male elementary students who got 0 to 10scores were picked up as elementary level learners and were randomly placed in two groups of experimental and control each group including 20 participants. The pre-test test was conducted in NDA way as Iranian student are familiar with. It is worth to mention that students' scores in the placement test were regarded as a pre-test for their language attainment. Through this test students' zone of actual development (ZAD) or their independent performance was identified. Based on the institute curriculum Top NOTCH-FUNDAMENTALS A including seven units was taught for elementary EFL learners. After the pretest, the participants in the control group were taught Top NOTCH-FUNDAMENTALS A in the normal communicative class procedure until the post test. But, in experimental group dynamic assessment procedures were applied for all the class tasks and activities. In an interventionist model one of the researchers as the teacher of the class mediated all of the class members together. Some of them had higher ZPDs than the others, therefor just a hint was sufficient for them to perform their tasks appropriately. But, some of them needed more mediation therefore the teacher provided them with more explicit mediations. Although it was difficult for the teacher to provide appropriate mediation for all of the class members together but he did his best and moved from implicit to explicit in his three hints for each problem. After 10 sessions treatment to see whether the DA procedure led into any development in the participant's language attainment, both groups were given the complete assessment package (standard test of Top Notch-Fundamentals A) to measure their during the term language attainment. Then the mean scores of control and dynamic assessment group were compared using an independent t-test to see whether implementing DA was effective on language attainment of Iranian elementary EFL learners or not.

IV. FINDINGS

Table 1 below shows the descriptive data for proficiency scores of the participants.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TOP NOTCH PROFICIENCY TEST

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Proficiency Test	**Experimental**	20	7.75	1.06	.239
	Control	20	7.72	1.25	.279

An independent-samples t-test was run to compare the scores of experimental and control groups' language proficiency in Top Notch proficiency test the result of which is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR TOP NOTCH PROFICIENCY TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Equal variances assumed Attainment	1.55	.22	.06	38	.94	.025
Equal variances not assumed			.06	37.1	.94	.025

According to table 2, there was no significant difference in proficiency scores for experimental (*M*=7.75, *SD*=1.06) and control group [*M*=7.72, *SD*=1.25; *t* (38) = .06, *p*=.94> .05], that is, both groups were homogeneous.

In order to compare the mean score of both groups' language attainment an independent-samples t-test was run for the post-test scores of the two groups. The results of the descriptive statistics are presented in Table 3.

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Attainment	**Experimental**	20	86.05	6.09	1.36
	Control	20	69.20	6.18	1.38

According to the mean scores, there was a difference between two groups' language attainment, and the mean score of the DA group was higher than the NDA group. An independent t-test was employed to check the significance of the difference, the result of which is shown in table 4.

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR POST-TEST REGARDING LEARNERS' LANGUAGE ATTAINMENT

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed Attainment	.045	.83	8.67	38	.00
Equal variances not assumed			8.67	37.9	.00

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the language attainment scores of both groups in post-test. There was a significant difference in scores for experimental group (M=86.05, SD=6.09) and control group [M=69.20, SD=6.18; t (38) = 8.67, p=.00 < .05], that is, the effect of dynamic assessment on learners' language attainment was significant. In other word, there was an increase in the scores of the learners in the experimental group in post-test. Therefore, it can be said that implementing dynamic assessment can improve overall language attainment of elementary EFL learners.

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study indicated that DA intervention is an effective means of improving elementary L2 learners' overall language attainment. Findings of this study are in line with the results of previous studies in the literature such as Zoghi and Malmeer (2014), Ajideh and Nourdad (2012), Ajideh, Nourdad and Farrokhi (2012), Hill and Sabet (2007), and Ukrainetz et al. (2000). It should be noted that the findings of this are in contrast with the study conducted by Frisby and Braden (1992). One possible reason for the obtained results could be the positive effect of providing learners with a great number of opportunities to interact with the instructor in different forms of mediation in the process of DA. During the term whenever the learners made a mistake, the researcher gave them implicit or explicit mediation, and prompted them in order to give them the opportunity to revise their performance in appropriate ways. Unlike to NDA which emphasizes the end product, DA has a process oriented nature. One of the important reasons why learners in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group could be the positive washback of DA. Learners in the group DA were very eager to participate in the classroom actively, and also weaker students expressed their ideas freely without any fear. Learners in the group DA were eager to attend in the class timely, and they also seemed to be more motivated than participants in the control group. These could be helpful in improving their overall language attainment.

VI. CONCLUSION

DA takes a monistic view toward assessment and instruction and it integrates them into a unified activity. Considering that DA can be as an impressive technique in the classroom, this study investigated the effect of DA on elementary EFL learners' overall language attainment. The results and findings of this study showed that there was a significant difference between two groups' score, that is, dynamic assessment group outperformed non-dynamic assessment group. Therefore, it can be concluded that dynamic assessment can improve elementary EFL learners' overall language attainment. The findings of this study can have several pedagogical implications for teaching and testing, curriculum developers and syllabus designers and foreign language learners.

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Farhad Azarian was born in the Southwest city of Ahar in Iran in1987. He received his B.A. degree in judicial law from Azarbaijan Shahid Madani University in Tabriz, in 2010. In 2015, he completed his MA in English Language Teaching in Islamic Azad University Ahar branch. His main areas of interest are alternative assessment.

Nava Nourdad is an assistant professor at University of Tabriz where she has been teaching undergraduate and graduate courses. Her research interests include language testing and assessment, syllabus design and course book evaluation, ESP, reading and writing.

Naser Nouri was born in the Northwest city of Ahar in Iran in 1980. He received his B.A. degree in English Translation from Kharazmi University in 2008. In 2011, he completed his MA in English Language Teaching in Azarbaijan Shahid Madani University in Tabriz. His main areas of interest are sociolinguistics (endangered languages), psycholinguistics, critical discourse analysis and multilingualism.

Morphological Decomposition in Second Language Word Processing

Guihua Cao

School of Foreign Languages, Hubei Engineering University, Xiaogan, Hubei Province, 432000, China

Abstract—**This paper made a masked priming experiment to examine the Chinese learners' online processing of English derivatives or derived words so as to find out the effect of morphological structures on second language (L2) word processing. 39 Chinese freshmen of non-English majors participated in the experiment. Results indicated that derivatives had significant priming effect on the identification of their stems and that this kind of priming effect was not affected by the brain's familiarity with it, which meant that like L1, L2 derivative processing was also affected by the morphological structures and that morphological decomposition did exist. This conclusion supports the view of Diependaele et al. that the characteristics of the target words determined their processing mechanism. In addition, the main factors that affect the complicated processing mechanism prove to be the features which are composed of the morphemes instead of the features of the whole words.**

Index Terms—**L2 processing, morphological decomposition, masked priming, derived words**

I. INTRODUCTION

"Decomposition" and "composition" is an essential characteristic of a language (Johnson 2004; Werning et al. 2012), which produces effect on various levels of a language, from the inner structures of vocabularies to the whole organization of texts. Due to this characteristic, languages are filled with regularities so that people can understand and use it, and at the sane time it turns out to be the important means for language creations and universally exists in human languages, but is revealed in different ways in different languages. For example, at the vocabulary level, the composition of derivatives or inflectional morphemes which are composed of free morphemes or bound morphemes are quite popular in English, but seldom used in Chinese. It has become the mutual focus of the second language acquisition and psychological linguistic academic field that whether the differences of word composition between different languages affect L2 vocabulary learning and whether there is "decomposition" and "composition" in the processing of L2 complicated words (Basnight-brown et al. 2007; Silva & Clahsen 2008; Zhang 2014.)

Most of the researchers discussed about this topic via online behavior experiments, of which masked priming was employed most frequently. Such experiment pattern revealed the following typical characteristics. The time for the presentation of the priming words was short (within 80ms), and there were a series of masked symbols (e.g.#) before the presentation, which ensured the fact that the participants processed the words unconsciously and avoided any impact of intentional processing strategies and effectively revealed the characteristics of automatic processing at the early stage of the priming words presentation. A great number of observations of L1 learners which employed this mode found out that affected by the inner structures of the words, there was morphological decomposition in the processing of complicated words and this decomposition occurred at the early stage of the word processing, proved to be an automatic processing mechanism for complex words and not affected by the factors such as word familiarity (Rastle & Davis 2008; McCormick et al. 2009).

Compared with L1, L2 processing proved to be more complicated. On the one hand, the two processing mechanisms might be different in nature. On the other hand, the differences between learners' L1 morphological structures and those of L2 might also produce effect on the processing. As for the processing of inflectional words, some researchers pointed out that L2 processing mainly depended on declarative memory and seldom used procedural memory. In other words, L2 processing was made via whole words and it was almost impossible for morphological decomposition to occur (Clahsen et al. 2010). This view was confirmed in some empirical researches (Silva & Clahsen 2008; Neubauer & Clahsen 2009; Clahsen & Neubauer 2010). Nevertheless, there were also some researchers which arrived at contrastive conclusions. For example, Basnight-Brown et al. (2007) observed Chinese EFL learners, Gor & Jackson (2013) observed the British learners of Russian and found morphological decomposition in both of them.

Up to now there have been few researches with regards to the processing of L2 derivatives and there are also differences between their conclusions. Silva & Clahsen (2008) found out that although there was no morphological decomposition in L2 learners' processing of inflectional words, there was morphological decomposition in their processing of derived words. In addition, there were no significant differences between Chinese EFL learners and German EFL learners and their performance in the processing of both inflectional words and derived ones proved to be the same. Diependaele et al (2011) also found morphological decomposition in the processing of derived words for the Spanish and Netherlands EFL learners and the significant level proved to be equal to L1 processing. Hence whether the target language was learners' L1 or L2 and what was learners' L1 did not affect their processing of derived words. What

did affect it should be mainly the characteristics of the target language itself, such as the morphological regularities and semantic transparency (Diependaele et al. 2011). Nevertheless, Neubauer & Clahsen (2009), Clahsen & Neubauer (2010) arrived at the opposite conclusions: there was no morphological decomposition in Polish learners' processing of German derived words and inflectional words, indicating that L2 learners seemed not to be able to make morphological analysis of the complicated words and that their processing had to be made merely via whole words (Clahsen et al. 2010).

Chinese researchers have also begun to conduct behavior experiments to explore the online processing of learners' L2 complicated words. Chen (2009) and Chen et al. (2007) employed word naming task to examine learners' online processing of complicated words and found different ways of processing for different categories of complicated words. In other words, derived words and compound words were processed via decomposition and inflectional words via whole words. Zhang's (2014) word-judgment task found that Chinese EFL learners processed the derived words via dual routes-decomposition processing and whole words and that the choice of these two ways was affected by the relative familiarity (whole word familiarity/stem familiarity). The above researches were conducive to the understanding of the learners' EFL online processing of derived words but failed to indicate the inner mechanism of the complicated words processing. Did the morphological decomposition in the processing of L2 complicated words occur automatically or intentionally? Would there be morphological decomposition in the processing of complicated words via whole words? Up to now there have been no answers to the two questions. Within China only Yue et al. (2012) used masked priming experiment to examine Chinese learners' EFL processing mechanism. Yue et al. simultaneously examined learners' processing of inflectional words and derived words and found no differences between the two, but both of them were affected by stem frequency. In another word, there occurred morphological decomposition in both inflectional words and derived words with high frequency stems and there was no morphological decomposition in inflectional words and derived words with low frequency stems.

The above mere one research was not sufficient to explain Chinese EFL learners' inner processing mechanism of English complicated words. In addition, in the aspect of research design, Yue et al. (2012) fixed the time interval (SOA) between the priming words and the target words as 49 millisecond (MS). There was no doubt that such short period of time could ensure the fact that the participants processed the priming words unintentionally. But there was also some other possibility that due to the effect of word frequency and also the fact that L2 was processed slower than L1 (Clahsen et al. 2010), learners failed to perceive the existence of the words with low frequency within a short period of time and did not trigger the decomposition processing mechanism. Therefore if SOA was appropriately increased and the participants were ensured not to perceive the appearance of the priming words, the characteristics of L2 learners' EFL processing would be examined in a more all-around way. Secondly, as for the familiarity, most of the previous researches employed the word frequency data from L1 corpus as reference index for familiarity, which seemed to be not fair for L2 learners, in particular those with low EFL proficiency (Zhang, 2014). Nevertheless, merely either whole word frequency or stem word frequency was taken into account instead of the effect of both. The previous researches had confirmed that compared with the whole word or stem familiarity, the effect of the comparative value for both of them (comparative familiarity) proved to be more effective (Marcolini et al. 2011). Of the researches within China, only Zhang's (2014) employed participants' evaluation to obtain the familiarity index for the experiment materials and simultaneously took the effect of whole word familiarity and stem familiarity into account. In view of that, this research intends to use Zhang's materials and the masked priming experiment with 80 millisecond SOA in order to examine the morphological decomposition in Chinese EFL learners' processing of derived words and further reveal the effect of morphological structures on L2 word processing. The research questions to be answered include the following two: (1) Is there morphological decomposition that automatically occur in the Chinese EFL learners' processing of derived words? (2) Is the decomposition affected by the comparative familiarity of the derived words and their stems if the answer to the first question is yes?

II. METHODS

A. Participants

The participants in this research came from the same learner group as Zhang's (2014) who were the non-English majors in their first year from a university in Wuhan, Hubei province, China (with 23 male students and 16 female ones). They had studied English for 7 or 8 years and were enrolled into the same class according to their English proficiency and there were no significant differences between the individuals (p>0.05). Their eyesight or CVA (corrected visual acuity) was normal and all of them participated in the experiment of their own accord.

B. Design

This research took simple words as the target ones and fixed three different priming conditions for each of the target word: derived priming (derived words with priming words as target words, e.g. *speaker-speak*), repeated priming (the priming words are the same as the target ones, e.g. *speak-speak*) and irrelevant priming (the priming words are not related to the target words in terms of both morphology and meaning, e.g. *tomorrow-speak*). The research would reveal revealed whether there was morphological decomposition in the processing of EFL derived words via comparison between the facilitation effect of derived priming conditions and that of the other two priming conditions on the target

words identification, and examined the reaction time (RT) and the accuracy rate (AR) of the target words as variables. The hypothesis for this research is that if the derived priming conditions produced significant effect on the target words and the effect was the same as that of the repeated priming, namely RT$_{\text{重复启动}}$=RT$_{\text{派生启动}}$<RT$_{\text{无关启动}}$, AR$_{\text{重复启动}}$=AR$_{\text{派生启动}}$>AR$_{\text{无关启动}}$, the derived words had the same priming effect as their stems, called full priming. Full priming indicated that in the processing of the derived words the psychological representations of their stems were activated and proved to be the more convincing evidence for the morphological decomposition. If the derived priming had some priming effect at certain degree but could not reach the level of the repeated priming, or RT$_{\text{重复启动}}$<RT$_{\text{派生启动}}$<RT$_{\text{无关启动}}$, AR$_{\text{重复启动}}$>AR$_{\text{派生启动}}$>AR$_{\text{无关启动}}$, it revealed that the appearance of the derived words did have some facilitating effect on the processing of their stems, called partial priming. The existence of the partial priming effect also indicated that there was morphological decomposition in the processing of the derived words. Nevertheless, it could not reach the level of the repeated priming since L2 learners were not familiar with the derived words and their automation proficiency was low, or RT$_{\text{重复启动}}$<RT$_{\text{派生启动}}$=RT$_{\text{无关启动}}$, AR$_{\text{重复启动}}$>AR$_{\text{派生启动}}$=AR$_{\text{无关启动}}$, indicating that there was no morphological decomposition in the processing of the derived words.

According to the comparative familiarity, this research re-divided the derived words into high ones (the whole words had low familiarity and the stems had low familiarity) and low ones (the whole words had high familiarity and the stems had high familiarity) and examined them respectively. Therefore this research used the design of 2 (familiarity: high and low) x3 (priming conditions: derived priming, repeated priming and irrelevant priming).

C.   Materials

This research also used the same experiment words as Zhang's (2014), of which the derived words were used as the priming words for the derived priming, the simple words correspondent to the derived words as the priming words for the irrelevant priming and the stems of the derived words as the target words. These derived words were made via the combination of the stems and the highly productive suffixes such as *–er*, *-ful* and *–able*, and the morphology and pronunciation of the stems did not change in the course of the derivation. In addition, as the participants in this research came from the same learner group as Zhang's (2014), Zhang's result for the familiarity evaluation could be used once again.

This research also controlled the semantic relation and the morphological similarity between the priming words and the target words, and semantic relation was obtained via the previous semantic relation evaluation before the experiment. The experts who participated in the evaluation were familiar with all the experiment words. The evaluation instrument was 5-level Likert scale (one point for no relation, two points for little relation, three points for some relation, four points for fairly strong relation and five points for strong relation). The evaluation result indicated that there was strong semantic relation between the derived priming words and the target words, but there was almost no relation between the irrelevant priming words and the target words (Mean$_{\text{派生启动}}$=4.22, Mean$_{\text{无关启动}}$=1.29, t (1, 39)=29.06, p=.00). The morphological similarity was obtained by means of the letter coincidence rate between calculating priming words and the target words. Result indicated that there was significant similarity between the derived priming words and the morphology of the target words and there was no significant similarity between the irrelevant priming words and the morphology of the target words (Mean$_{\text{派生启动}}$=0.65, Mean$_{\text{无关启动}}$=0.21, t (1, 39)=18.86, p=.00).

The researcher divided all the experiment items into three groups and each participant used merely one of the group in the experiment. Each target word appeared only once in each group and the numbers of appearance for the different priming types were the same in each group. At the same time 60 pairs of distracters for irrelevant priming were added in each group. Hence the proportion for the repeated priming items and the derived priming items was lower than 14% in each group, and greatly decreased the possibility that the participants formed the correspondent processing strategies. In addition, this experiment also consisted of 100 pairs of coined (invented) distracters (the priming words as the real words and the target words as the false or coined words) . These coined words were made by deleting a letter of the real words and were the same as the target words for the real items in terms of the length and the familiarity. The coined distracters were also divided into the derived priming, repeated priming and the irrelevant priming and the their composition proportion were the same as those of the real items. Accordingly each group consisted of 200 pairs of experiment items. The researcher equally divided them into 4 sections, and within each of the sections the experiment items were arbitrarily ordered with no disturbance between the sections.

D.   Procedures

The experiment was conducted in a quiet room and only one participant was allowed to enter the room each time and the whole experiment was finished on the same computer. The experiment procedures used DMDX (Forster & Forster, 2003). During the experiment, the background color of the computer was light grey, the stimulus were black with word size of 24 and font Arial. To avoid the effect that the morphological similarity might cause, the priming words were presented in lowercase and the target words in capital letters. Before the formal experiment, the participants did the exercises for 15 items and the exercises might be repeated until the participants had been familiar with the correct ways and the procedures. When the exercises ended, the participants pushed "Enter" and began the experiment. The order for the formal experiment was as the following: fixation point "+" 250 millisecond, masked symbol (12 "#") 500 millisecond, priming words 80 millisecond and the target words 600 milliseconds. The participants were required to

make the right or wrong spelling judgment for the target words within the shortest time and push the key ("L" for right and "A" for wrong). When the judgment ended, the next item began. If the participants failed to make the judgment within 5 seconds, the next item began automatically. The interval between the two experiments was 3 seconds. During the experiment, there were 15 adapted items before each section began and the participants might take a rest by themselves after each section was finished.

The masked priming experiment required the participants to process the priming words unconsciously or the participants were not perceptive of the priming words. To ensure the fact that this experiment could satisfy the above requirement, each participant had a visual test of the experiment materials after the experiment was finished. The test was composed of the 15 priming words and target words for the real filling items in the experiment which ranked arbitrarily and the participants were required to answer whether they had seen these words or not during the experiment.

E. Results

Before the data analysis, the researcher deleted the data for the participants and items with high error rate (consisting of 4 participants with more than 20% of the error rate and 8 items with more than 30% of the error rate), the extreme data (5.4%) with more than ± 2 of standard deviations for the reaction time (RT) and reserved the data with correct response. Then the researcher made a standard logarithmic transformation of the data before the analysis so as to decrease the effect that might be caused by the data distribution skewness.

The data analysis used the mixed effect model (Baayen et al. 2008), and the participants and the items were added to the model as random variables. In view of the fact that the materials might be distributed unevenly, the researcher introduced the material groups and the item presentation order into the model when it was initially created. Yet its effect seemed to be not significant, could be neglected and was accordingly deleted. The later model took the priming type, the relative familiarity and their interactivity as the main effect. Analysis of the model found that the interactive effect between the priming type and the relative familiarity was not significant (repeated priming x relative familiarity was low: $t=0.34$, $p=0.73$; irrelevant priming x relative familiarity was low: $t=0.21$, $p=0.83$) and was deleted.

TABLE 1
REACTION TIME AND ACCURACY RATE FOR THE TARGET WORDS ON DIFFERENT PRIMING CONDITIONS

Relative familiarity	Priming type	Reaction time			Accuracy rate	
		Means	Standard deviation	Priming effect	Accuracy rate (%)	Priming effect
High	Derived priming	844.63	304.00	94.94	84.66	2.53
	Repeated priming	847.79	300.54	91.78	87.37	5.06
	Irrelevant priming	939.57	302.04		82.31	
Low	Derived priming	829.22	306.20	53.62	87.11	2.47
	Repeated priming	811.94	301.40	71.00	89.79	5.15
	Irrelevant priming	882.84	289.77		84.64	

Finally the researcher merely reserved the priming type as the main effect for the analysis and found significant effect. Analysis of the data for reaction time indicated that there were significant differences between the repeated priming and the irrelevant priming, between the derived priming and the irrelevant priming (repeated priming- irrelevant priming: $t=5.36$, $p<0.001$; derived priming- irrelevant priming: $t=4.44$, $p=0.00$), but no significant differences between the derived priming and the repeated priming ($t=1.03$, $p=0.30$). The result for the analysis of the accuracy rate was similar to the above but the differences were not that significant. Merely the differences between the repeated priming and the irrelevant priming were significant at above 5% ($Z=2.23$, $p=0.02$). The accuracy rate for the derived priming was only a bit higher than that for the irrelevant priming and not significant ($Z=0.75$, $p=0.46$). The difference between the derived priming and the repeated priming was not significant either ($Z=1.56$, $p=0.12$). The above result indicated that the derived priming obtained the same full priming effect as the repeated priming, meaning that there was morphological decomposition in the Chinese EFL learners' processing of the derived words.

The result for the participants' visual test of the experiment materials after the experiment indicated that 77% of the target words were believed to have appeared in the experiment. Such a high rate revealed that the participants did have seen these words and that they had processed them consciously. Mere 9.2% of the priming words were believed to have appeared. Such low rate indicated that the participants did not really find them. And these priming words were chosen absolutely due to the participants' guessing. Hence the SOA in this research met the requirements for the masked priming experiment.

III. DISCUSSION

This research used masked priming experiment to examine the morphological decomposition in the Chinese EFL

learners' processing of the derived words. Result indicated that the derived words with both high and low comparative familiarity produced significant priming effect on the processing of the stems and the strength was similar to the repeated priming, called full priming. This finding has provided convincing evidence for the morphological decomposition in the Chinese EFL learners' processing of the derived words and further confirmed the effect of morphological structures in the processing of L2 complicated words.

It should be noted that in the priming experiment, the derived priming effect was totally different from the priming effect caused by morphological similarity or semantic relations. On the one hand, the derived priming was affected by its morphological structures in the processing of the derived words and thus decomposed, or the psychological representations of its stem was activated. In other words, the processing of the derived priming words and the target words was an understanding of the same representation unit, which was exactly the same as the repeated priming in nature. Hence it could achieve the full priming effect which was equal to that of the repeated priming, see the test result for the reaction time data in this research. However, the priming caused by morphological similarity or semantic relations was due to the close relations between the two in the psychological lexicon network and the understanding of the representation unit for the priming words increased the activation level of the representation unit for the target words, and made them easier to be identified. Nevertheless, as the processing of the priming words and the target words on this priming condition was an understanding of the different representation units, it was impossible for the priming effect to reach the strength of the repeated priming. On the other hand, a great number of researches on L1 have found that morphological decomposition was a processing mechanism for the complicated words that occurred automatically. This mechanism was activated at the early automatic stage of word identification and would occur even if the participants were unconscious of it (Rastle & Davis 2008), while the priming effect caused by morphological similarity or semantic relations would occur only at the conscious processing stage and it was hard for it to happen in the masked priming experiment when the priming words were presented in a very short period of time (Rastle et al. 2004). In this research the visual test of the materials used after the experiment indicated that the participants did not perceive the existence of the priming words, and therefore there would be no morphological or meaningful priming. Accordingly the derived priming effect found in this research should only be the result for the morphological decomposition of the priming words. However, the measurement result for the target words' accuracy rate in this research failed to reveal their significant priming effect that was similar to the data for the reaction time (RT) and even the repeated priming effect was not that significant. Hence the researcher believed that it was due to the presentation of the target words in capital letters. After the experiment, the participants confirmed that they had not been adaptive to the reading of the words in capital letters and committed errors in their judgment during the experiment so that the accuracy rate was decreased. In spite of that, the data for the reaction time (RT) indicated that there was morphological decomposition in learners' processing of the derived words.

The above conclusion coincides with those from Silva & Clahsen (2008), Diependaele et al. (2011) and Yue et al. (2012), revealing that L2 learners could acquire the decomposition processing mechanism for the derived words and made an online analysis of their morphological structures. This conclusion has provided future evidence for the view of Diependaele et al. (2011) that the characteristics of the target words determined their processing mechanism. It also indicates that the familiarity had no significant effect on the priming effect, and that the derived words with both high and low relative familiarity revealed their full priming effect. Previously L1 research by McCormick et al. (2009) and L2 investigation by Otto (cited in Zhang & Zhu 2013) also arrived at similar conclusions. The author of this research also observed that it was decided by the nature of the morphological decomposition. As an automatic processing mechanism for the derived words, the morphological decomposition was also activated when the brain perceived the morphological structures (Rastle & Davis 2008). Some researches found that this decomposition even occurred in the processing of the simple words (e.g. *corner*) which consisted of the similar morphological structures, while Yue et al. (2012) found that the morphological decomposition merely existed in the processing of the complicated words with high frequency stems instead of those with low frequency stems, which might be simultaneously affected by both word frequency and SOA. The higher the word frequency was, the higher level the words were activated and the easier they would be identified and vice versa. Hence when SOA was short, the high frequency stems would be also identified and activated the decomposition processing mechanism, while when the activation level for the low frequency stems was low, it took more time to identify them and the short SOA might not be sufficient for the participants to recognize them among the whole words and unable to activate the decomposition processing mechanism. This research appropriately increased SOA and made it possible for the stems with low familiarity to be identified and accordingly found the popularity of the morphological decomposition.

Although the derived words and their stems had different familiarity, their suffixes had high level of productivity. Therefore no matter how the learners were familiar with the derived whole words and their stems, they could identify the letter combination at the end of the words as suffixes, which also promoted the morphological decomposition at certain degree. In might be concluded that whether there was decomposition in the processing of complicated words depended on the features of the composition morphemes instead of those of the whole words, which coincided with Yue's (2012) view of the stem frequency effect: the higher frequency of the stems was, the more possible they would be identified as the morphemes and the more easier the decomposition processing mechanism would be activated; in contrast, the lower frequency of the stems was, the less possible they would be identified as the morphemes and the

more possible the decomposition processing mechanism would be activated.

The words used in this research were the same as those in Zhang's (2014). Zhang found that the derived words with low familiarity of stems and high familiarity of whole words were processed via whole words, while this research indicated that there was morphological decomposition in the processing of these words. These two conclusions were not contradictory since Zhang (2014) investigated the whole process of the processing while this research examined the early stage of the processing. The possibility might be that there was morphological decomposition in these derived words at the early stage of the processing and provided decomposition route for their processing, but the whole word representation for these words existed in them and the processing route for the whole words could also be used, which made it possible for the competition between the whole word processing route and the decomposition processing route. As the whole words were superior in terms of familiarity, the whole word processing route won in the competition, which was the whole word processing found in Zhang's (2014) research and also coincided with the view of double processing routes proposed by Schreuder & Baayen (1995).

The morphological decomposition mechanism in the processing of L2 complicated words might be the result affected by the decomposition and combination which was popular in language processing. Although there are not many derived words in Chinese, there is a great number of compound words among them. The composition mechanism of the two is very much similar and most of the Chinese derived words are composed of two or more morphemes, which means that the Chinese learners might have acquired the meta-cognitive ability of morphological decomposition in learning and using Chinese (L1) (Clark et al. 2011). When they learn L2 (EFL), this ability might be transferred and used in the analysis of L2 derived words. The other possible explanation might be that the learners used the word-building knowledge a great deal in the explicit learning and the explicit knowledge was gradually internalized and formed the implicit processing mechanism of morphological decomposition and combination.

IV. CONCLUSION

This research employed masked priming experiment to examine the Chinese learners' processing of EFL derived words and found that the derived words produced significant priming effect on their stems and the effect was not affected by the level of familiarity, indicating that like L1 processing, the processing of L2 derived words might be also affected by the morphological structures and according morphological decomposition occurred, which coincided with the view of Diependaele et al. (2011) that the characteristics of the target words determined their processing mechanism. This research further points out that what mainly affects the processing mechanism for the derived words prove to be the characteristics of the complicated word composition, not the features of the whole words.

There might be some limitations for this research for various reasons. Firstly, the materials or words used in this research were all derived words with semantically transparent suffixes which had high productivity of suffixes. These features might have provided conditions for the decomposition of the derived words. Then what would happen to the derived words with other suffixes or derived words with prefixes and no semantic transparency? How would be the processing mechanism for them? Secondly, the participants' EFL proficiency was limited and the number of the derived words fit for this research was also limited. Hence this research merely examined the two group of materials: the derived words with high familiarity of whole words but low familiarity of stems and those with low familiarity of whole words but high familiarity of stems. Then what would happen to the derived words with both high familiarity of whole words and high familiarity of stems and also those with low familiarity of whole words and low familiarity of stems? In addition, this focused on the Chinese EFL learners' processing of the derived words. Would it be different from the processing of the EFL inflectional words due to the limitation of the morphological system for the Chinese inflectional words? At the same time cross-linguistic contrastive researches might be the new hot topic to be further discussed. For example, Zhang & Zhu (2013) examined the Chinese learners' processing of the Japanese complicated words. Would the differences in morphological structures between Chinese and Japanese affect the learners' processing of Japanese words? To sum up, it proves to be only a beginning for the researches about L2 complicated words processing. It is expected that the researchers in the field of linguistics, psychology and neurology cooperate with each other, employ different methods and discussed about the unknown field from different perspectives.

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Guihua Cao was born in Jinzhou, China in 1979. She received her master degree in linguistics from Central China Normal University in 2007.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Hubei Engineering University, Xiaogan, Hubei, China. Her research interests include linguistics and EFL teaching.

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