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The international journal of language learning and applied linguistics world is a double-blind peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language teaching and applied linguistics. Papers submitted to the journal will immediately be sent to two related reviewers who are responsible to provide feedback on the content and the language use. The journal is published monthly in online and print versions. The scope of the journal includes, but not limited to, the following fields:
Theory and practice in English
Language teaching & learning
Teaching English as a second or foreign language
Applied linguistics
Discourse studies
Syllabus design
Language learning problems
Computer assisted language learning
English for specific purpose
English for academic purpose
Language teaching & testing
Translation studies
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The next issue to be published in June 2018
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COLLEGES STUDENTS’ PERCEPTION OF CREATIVITY AND THEIR SOFT SKILLS IN EFL CONTEXTS

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ABSTRACT
This project examined the relationships between university students’ creativity behavior and their use of soft skills. In particular, associations were examined among students’ perceptions of creativity and soft skills of language departments in the Khorasan Razavi Province. The sample included 300 university students, 180 girls and 120 boys. The Tabaran, Payamnoor and Khayam universities were chosen to provide a diverse sample with respect to their majors. The research design included the collection of quantitative data to obtain greater understanding and details about the relationships between students’ creative behavior and use of soft skills as perceived by university students. The Creative Behavior Inventory (CBI) and Soft Skills Questionnaire were given to 300 selected students. Data were processed, analyzed, and reported using descriptive and inferential statistics. Pearson product moment correlations provided the statistical data for this study. Findings proposed students’ perception of creative behavior and their use of soft skill did not have significantly and positively correlated. In the addition, the analysis of the data reveals that there was not statistic significant correlation between students’ creative behavior and sub scales of soft skills. Furthermore, the result indicated that there was not any correlation between two components of creativity behavior and soft skill. The current study focused on university students but expanding the research among the teachers and students in different cities and considering the interviews, diaries and observations through collecting the results might provide needed outcomes into developments of the same research.

KEYWORDS: Soft Skills, Perception of Creativity, Behavior

INTRODUCTION
Learning English is significant and most of people all over the world determine to study it as a foreign or second language. The teachers’ focus is primarily put on improving the teaching
process and making foreign language learning successful and practicable for every student (Warschauer & Meskill, 2000). Nowadays there is raising significance of creativity in professional and daily life because that is a closely relation between creativity and such characteristics as change, innovation and progress (Lebedeva & Bushina, 2015).

The term creativity is clarified ambiguously in modern social sciences: in education creativity means innovation, in mathematics refers the ability to find solutions to problems, in art, music in particular, this term means as creation of an aesthetic product (Reid & Petocz, 2004). Hofstein and Lunetta (1982) stated that one of the most important variables thought to be effective in school improvement supposed to be the students’ creativity. Creative people have a carefully and clearly defined set of goals. One of these goals could be improving their soft skills. Totally, soft skills is a term that related to a collection of personal, positive attributes and competencies that enhance a person’s relationships, job performance and value to the market. Soft skills refer to a compound of personal characteristic that help to make a positive human. Today lack of competence in soft skill is marked as one of the reasons of poor rate of employability of technical graduates, though it is true that soft skill need to be inculcated at a very young age at home but the role of soft skill training in schools and colleges cannot be ignored.

According to Vijayalakshmi (2016) soft skills contains a collection of abilities such as communicate effectively, approach positively, handle conflict, take responsibility, show respect, build trust, work well with others, manage time effectively, accept criticism, work under pressure, amiable to others and demonstrate good manners. The experts attempted to assign the specifics soft skills to be implemented and used in teacher educational system. To achieve these purpose researchers Pachauri and Yadav (2014) identified soft skills into seven categories in all institutions of teacher education. They were communicative skills, thinking skill, team work force, information management, entrepreneur skill, ethic and leadership skill.

Therefore, it can be deducted that soft skill has an essential role in education and improvement in the learning and teaching process. Kaminski and Gillard (2009) believed that excellent soft skills are necessary for success. On the other hand, the students’ creativity is often seen as a skill, and you don’t find many schools about it in your neighbourhood. But rather than a skill, creativity should be treated more like behaviour, like a posture towards life.

Exercising this behaviour will make your mind feel more ready to creative experiences, which will become more natural to you. In this study the focus on the functional and especially purposeful dimensions of the role of creative behaviour and find the relation of creative behaviour to build soft skills. In order to foster students’ creativity in learning process and recognize the importance of relation these behaviour to soft skills, to solve problems by becoming creative thinkers and to adopt more creatively as society changes and finally to provide powerful education for the future the present research is prepared.
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Creativity
The word creativity is marked by the ability to create, bring into existence, to invent into a new form, to produce through imaginative skill, to make to bring into existence something new. The word creativity is also used to denote enhancements to intellectual performance which are strongly generative in other words; they emphasize the speculative building of new mental structures rather than the analysis of existing structures.

Although creativity has a very long history, theories and ideas about creativity stem from many years ago in history that during this era the development of new ideas and original products is a particularly human characteristic. Remarkable educational model, Bloom’s Taxonomy, was altered to reflect the significance of creativity by placing creating in the prominent position of educational goals (Anderson, Krathwohl, & Bloom, 2001). Kaufman, Plucker and Baer (2008) states that creativity continues to grow as educators develop new tools for the assessment and comprehending of creativity. According to Craft (2003), creativity involves moving beyond what exists now, using resources brought from the past to devise potentially better options for the future (as cited in Moran, 2010). According to Kandi (2013) developing creativity without consider the barriers towards attain the aim is impossible. Therefore, he suggests the feasible ways into overcoming mental barriers of creative thinking: one of the barriers regards to consider creativity as: the fluent expression or directness as indicate of powerful mind, these kinds of incorrect assumptions are obstacles to our creative thinking; researcher consider habits as another barriers towards creative thinking; also, negative thinking itself is a barrier to creativity which is the fear of thoughts and inventions to be stolen when being displayed and cooperating them with others.

Soft Skills
According to Sean (2008) soft skills are "non-technical, intangible, personality specific skills" which determines an individual's strength as "a leader, listener and negotiator, or as a conflict mediator". The teachers and educators attempts to improve creativity thinking in order they survey the importance of soft skills in students' lives both at university and after university. Schulz, (2008) considered surveying how soft skills make perfect the hard skills, which were the technical requirements of a job the student is trained to do. Embedding the teaching of soft skills into hard skills courses is a very productive and effective approach of obtaining both an attractive way of teaching a particular content and an enhancement of soft skills. Infusing the soft skills among teachers in the curriculum is the need of the profession for it to be successful.

Soft skills are individual characteristics that enlarge an individual's communications, job performance and career prospects and hard skills which tend to be specific to a limited type of task or activity (Garavan& McGuire, 2001). Azmi and Bao (2013) examine the effect of the performing of literature circles in an active learning situation in association to developing soft skills among university learners. They consider literature circles as a well-known strategy in learning and teaching process that the students to be more creative, independent. To survey the results, a group of thirty participants was involved in these teaching and learning sessions. The researcher establishes a gradually positive effect in developing soft skills and also linguistic
skills. Soft skills are very essential to any individual who are needful to interact to other people and also helpful for development in different kinds of institutions. Teacher educators must prepare teachers for forces such as application of soft skills in order to make them ready for effective functioning in the classroom (Tobin, 2006).

There are numerous causes that refer to why soft skill has been ignored in education; for example many researchers feel that soft skills are not competency-based and so cannot be taught. Some of the educators feel that soft skills are inherent and a child is born with or without them (Phillips & Phillips, 2016). But, the importance and applicable of soft skills was surveyed by researchers and teachers. According to Seetha, (2013) soft skills training programs aims to improve a whole range of skills, like assertiveness, negotiation skills, communication skills and the skill to establish and maintain interpersonal relationship. The competence in soft skill among students provides them with important variables for effective schools' movement. Kaminski and Gillard (2009) believed that excellent soft skills are necessary for success. On the other hand, the students’ creativity is often seen as a skill, and you don’t find many schools about it in your neighbourhood. But rather than a skill, creativity should be treated more like behaviour, like a posture towards life. Exercising this behaviour will make your mind feel more ready to creative experiences, which will become more natural to you. In order to foster students’ creativity in learning process and recognize the importance of relation these behaviour to soft skills, to solve problems by becoming creative thinkers and to adopt more creatively as society changes and finally to provide powerful education for the future the present research is prepared.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Q1: Is there any significant relationship between students’ creative behavior and their use of soft skills characteristics?
Q2: Is there any significant relationship between students’ creative behavior and sub scales of soft skills?

METHODOLOGY
Participant
The study used a quantitative research approach with a correlational design intended at examining the relationship between creativity behavior and soft skill among university students in Khorasan Razavi. The totals of 360 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents in the three universities and 284 completed questionnaires were returned. The participants’ age ranged from 20 to 29 years old and the sample of students consisted of 180 female and 104 male students.

Instruments
The instrument that was considered to assess students' use of soft skill was Soft Skills Questionnaire (see Appendix A) developed by Kargozari, RezakhahKhadem. That composed of 27 items with a five point Likert scale. Soft skill components were communicative skills, critical thinking and problem solving skills, team work skill, life-long learning and management of
Participants completed the Creative Behavior Inventory (CBI) (see Appendix B) to measure their perception of creativity. Dollinger (2003) adapted this scale from a long version which was developed by Hocevar (1979) which was contained 28 items.

Procedure
In this study, a total of 360 questionnaires (Soft Skill & Creative Behavior inventory) were distributed among students in the three universities and 284 completed questionnaires were returned. Participants completed the Creative Behavior inventory and the soft skill questionnaire (approximately 55 min). In order, to ensure the validity of the data, the researcher explained the purpose of study to the participants and the importance of their participation in this project. Data normality assessment was performed to check for normality of data in the actual study. Descriptive statistics, Pearson r correlation, and Multiple Regression were conducted utilizing SPSS statistical software (version 19).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Quantitative data analysis was employed to describe various attributes of the study’s participants and addressed each of the research questions investigated in this study. At the first step, the researcher assess normality, to determine if the major assumptions were met for inferential statistics. The gathered data reveals the normality of the creativity and soft skills students’ scores and relatively normal distribution within the sample; therefore, the Pearson Correlation assumptions were met in the analysis of the present study. The research null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no significant relationship between students’ creative behaviour and their use of soft skills. In order to confirm or reject this null hypothesis, Pearson correlation analysis was carried out. The descriptive statistics analysis was assessed and presented, the maximum score of CBI 83 and the minimum score 30; in contrast soft skill highest score was 139 and the minimum 61. The researcher calculated the correlation co-efficient between creativity and soft skills of university students. For this purpose Pearson’s correlation co-efficient was utilized as shown in the Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Correlation Coefficient (r-value) between creativity and soft skill of university students</th>
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<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creativity</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From the data at Table. 1 it is obviously clear that the co-efficient of correlation between creative behavior and soft skills of university students is 0.163 and there is significant but not strong relationship (r = .163, p = .05) between two variables among Iranian students in KhorasanRazavi Province. In follow, Multiple Regression analysis was applied to demonstrate the relationship between sub scales of soft skills and the students’ creativity behaviour.
Table 2: Coefficients - Multiple Regressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
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<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
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<td>Communicative</td>
<td>.019</td>
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<td>Critical</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>.185</td>
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<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>.248</td>
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<td>1.92</td>
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<td>Ethnic</td>
<td>-.278</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>-.073</td>
<td>-.992</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td>.041</td>
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a. Dependent Variable: creativity

Also, the review of the Sig. values in Table 2 reveals that among the 5 predictor variables, none of them can make statistically significant unique contributions to creativity variable as their Sig. values were more than .05 with predicted variable. The result at Table 2 reveals that communicative, critical, teamwork, ethnic and leadership are not significant predictors of creative behaviour.

The main objective of this study was to find the relationship between creativity and soft skill among Iranian university students in Khorasan Razavi. According to Bushina (2015) the significance of creativity is raising in professional and daily life because that is a closely relation between creativity and such characteristics as change, innovation and progress. One of the most important variables thought to be effective in school improvement suppose to be the students’ creativity. Creative people have a carefully and clearly defined set of purposes. One of these purposes could be improved their soft skills in their real life. Teachers and educators more aware of the students' needs, and their educational system and the particular subject each individual learner's needs. The statistic dat in the current study implies that students' creative behaviour do not have any important relationship with their use of soft skills. These findings were line with the findings of Özden, (2016) who states that the students creativity to learn how to become an engineer, an accountant or a dentist, don’t related to their ability in learn soft skills. The results further confirm the idea that students' perception towards creativity would not be related to their sub scales’ soft skills abilities.

CONCLUSION
The study was conducted in several universities in Mashhad and Torbat Heidarieh, Khayam, Tabaran and Payamnor of Khorasan Razavi, Iran. The results of analysis revealed that the variables at soft skills were not considered statistically to predict the students’ creative behavior. The analysis of the gathered data revealed that all the five subscales of soft skills had small negative correlation with students’ use of creative behavior among participants. The findings of this study could be used as an aid in improving efficiency of professors teaching at educational system, and also to authorities who, for the sake of a better educational environment, respect the students’ needs toward their demands for ideal real life. Principals might focus more closely on
different subscales of soft skill in order to contribute to improve students'creativity. Other practical implications might include the importance of designating sufficient funding for professional development opportunities for finding out the variables which could improve learners' soft skills as one of the practical aspects to increase students' success.

**Limitations of the study**

To accomplish this study, the researcher encounters some limitations which may make the study hard such as:

- The lack of willingness among university students to cooperate with the researcher.
- The questionnaire were mailed to different groups of university students without considering their language proficiency level.
- This study is directed to EFL learners, not ESL learners. It is expected that if this study performs on ESL learners, it will have different result from the achieved result on EFL learners.
- This study was restricted to university students and did not provide insight into teachers and students in various level of education.

**REFERENCES**


**APPENDIX A**

*Soft Skills Questionnaire developed by Kargozari, RezakahKhadem*

Please rate the following statements in terms of how well they describe how you feel.

Rate each statement on the following scale:

1=strongly disagree  2=Disagree  3=Neutral  4=Agree  5= strongly agree

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**APPENDIX B**

*Creative Behavior Inventory* By : Dollinger (2003)

The inventory is simply a list of activities and accomplishments that are commonly considered to be creative. For each item, indicate the answer on the scantron that best describes the frequency of the behavior in your adolescent and adult life. Be sure to answer every question. In some cases, you should count activities that you have done as a school-related assignment. In other cases, you should not. To avoid confusion, the
1. Painted an original picture (excluding school or university course work)
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

2. Designed and made your own greeting cards
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

3. Made a craft out of metal (excluding school or university course work)
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

4. Put on a puppet show
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

5. Made your own holiday decorations
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

6. Built a hanging mobile (excluding school or university course work)
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

7. Made a sculpture (excluding school or university course work)
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

8. Had a piece of literature (e.g., poem, short stories, etc.) published in a school or university publication.
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

9. Wrote poems (excluding school or university course work)
   A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

10. Wrote a play (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

11. Received an award for an artistic accomplishment
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

12. Received an award for making a craft
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

13. Made a craft out of plastic, plexiglass, stained glass or a similar material
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

14. Made cartoons
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

15. Made a leather craft (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

16. Made a ceramic craft (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

17. Designed and made a piece of clothing (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

18. Prepared an original floral arrangement
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

19. Drew a picture for aesthetic reasons (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

20. Wrote the lyrics to a song (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

21. Wrote a short story (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

22. Planned and presented an original speech (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

23. Made jewelry (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

24. Had art work or craft work publicly exhibited
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

25. Assisted in the design of a set for a musical or dramatic production (excluding school or University course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

26. Kept a sketch book (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

27. Designed and constructed a craft out of wood (excluding school or university course work)
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times

28. Designed and made a costume
    A = Never did this           B = Did this once or twice        C = 3-5 times D = More than 5 times
PREDICTING C-TEST ITEM DIFFICULTY

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ABSTRACT
This study aimed to identify item difficulty for the C-Test. The C-Test was constructed using five passages, each with 30 items of total 150. The participants were 124 Japanese university students learning English as a foreign language. Their answers were marked using the exact scoring method and then replaced with 0 (incorrect) or 1 (correct) for statistical analysis. Sixteen independent variables seemingly related to item difficulty were chosen. Multiple regressions were conducted at both the gap and the sentence levels. The result indicated that word class, inflection, and word level explained about 30 percent of item difficulty, while content/function, word class, and the number of the words per passage explained about 55 percent. Results showed that word class was a reliable predictor of item difficulty. However, there are large unknown portions of item difficulty in C-Testing. Further research on the sentence level and passage level are required to identify the item difficulty in more detail.

KEYWORDS: C-Test, cloze test, item difficulty, multiple regression analysis, fluid construct

INTRODUCTION
The C-Test is a variation of the cloze test introduced by Klein-Braley (1981) to solve many of the problems encountered in the use of the cloze test. Kiya and Ito (2017) examined correlations between the C-Test and two discrete-point tests, the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and the Visualizing English Language Competency Test (VELC-Test). The results showed that the correlations were high (0.83 with TOEIC, 0.78 with VELC-Test). Therefore, it would be justifiable to say that the C-Test has high validity with the potential to be a powerful tool for measuring general English language proficiency among Japanese learners of English as a foreign language. In addition, Klein-Braley (1984) conducted research on the relationship between the readability of passages and text difficulty of the C-Test. The result showed a relationship between readability and text difficulty. However, to the authors’ knowledge not much research has been conducted on mutilated words in the C-Test. Therefore, to what degree mutilated words affect the difficulty of the C-Test remains unknown. Khoshdel, Baghaei, and Bemani (2016) conducted a preliminary study on C-Test item difficulty. Based on past research on cloze item difficulty by Brown (1989), they discovered 11 factors which might affect item difficulty in a C-Test. The 11 factors are the following:

(1) the frequency of the mutilated words (Brown, 1989; Sigott, 1995) as indicated by Collin’s Cobuild Dictionary,
(2) whether the words are content or function words,
(3) the length of the mutilated words,
(4) the length of the sentence where the gap is (Klein-Braley, 1984),
(5) the number of propositions in the sentence where the gap is,
(6) the propositional density (of the sentence where the gap is),
(7) inflections (Beinborn, Zesch, & Gurevych, 2014),
(8) the frequency of the word before the mutilated word,
(9) the frequency of the word after the mutilated word,
(10) text difficulty (p-values of the texts) (Beinborn, Zesch, & Gurevych, 2014), and
(11) dependency among items (Beinborn, Zesch, & Gurevych, 2014).

Then, Khoshdel, Baghaei, and Bemani (2016) conducted a multiple regression analysis in order to examine how well the selected factors explained C-Test item difficulty. In their study, the dependent variable was the mean score, and the independent variables included the 11 factors displayed above. The results indicated that three factors ((1) the frequency, (10) text difficulty (p-values of the texts), and (2) whether the words were content or function words) showed higher correlations with C-Test item difficulty, 0.248, 0.246, and 0.216 respectively, than the other eight factors. However, these correlation coefficients are not high enough to be treated as statistically significant. Furthermore, it should be noted that the other eight factors showed very low or almost no correlation with item difficulty. As a result, the multiple regression analysis showed that the 11 factors in total explained only 8 percent of the C-Test item difficulty. Therefore, at present we can say that the 11 factors above have little effect on item difficulty in C-Testing.

Though Khoshdel, Baghaei, and Bemani (2016) have made a preliminary contribution to the research on C-Test item difficulty, there are a few drawbacks in their research design. First, they chose item characteristics such as content and function word variables. The difference between content words and function words is computed as 0 or 1. However, this difference between content and function words is nominal, not numeric. Therefore, ideally, the nominal data should have been computed after being quantified. The second drawback is concerned with another variable, inflection. Factors such as inflection should be treated as nominal, so this factor also should have been quantified first.

Driven by these points, the present study was designed as an attempt to overcome these problems and then examine precisely what factors truly determine C-Test item difficulty. In addition to gap-level difficulty, the present study will try to shed light on sentence-level difficulty. The following 15 factors were selected for the present investigation.

The following seven factors are attributed to the gaps
[1] inflections (Beinborn, Zesch, & Gurevych, 2014)
[2] the length of mutilated words (L. Word)
[4] whether the words are content or function words (C/F)
   A regression coefficient – a weighted average is “category score”
[5] word class (adjective, adverb, article, auxiliary verb, conjunction, noun, pronoun, preposition, verb)
“Category scores” are calculated
A regression coefficient – a weighted average is a “category score”
[6] the number of syllables in the mutilated word (syll/word)
[7] the number of the set of consonant and vowel, vowel only (cv, v)
The difference between 6 and 7
(Example) “head” In case of [6], one syllable = 1
In case of [7], he a d , cv + v = 2

The following three factors are attributed to the sentence
[1] the number of syllables in the sentence where the gap is (syll/sen)
[2] the number of alphabets in the sentence where the gap is (alph/sen)
[3] the number of words in the sentence where the gap is (words/sen)

The following four factors are attributed to each passage
[1] the order of the gap in the passage (order/pass)
[2] the number of words in the passage where the gap is (words/pass)
[3] the number of sentences in the passage where the gap is (sen/pass)
[4] the average number of words in the sentence in the passage where the gap is (12 /13)
(average.w.sen.pass)

The following two factors are attributed to whole c-test
[1] the frequency of the word in five passages (Frequency)
[2] the order of the gap in the five passages (order/ 5 pass)

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants were 124 Japanese university students at Seinan Gakuin University who had had at least six years’ experience learning English in junior high and high school prior to this research. They were students in the Department of Literature, Law, and Human Science.

The C-Test
From the English articles available on the Internet, the following five texts, considered appropriate for the C-Test, were selected:
1. A thing left behind, Tokyo SIM Institute, 1992
4. Dogs originated from wolves domesticated in Europe 19,000-32,000 years ago http://news.nationalpost.com/life/dogs-oriented-from-wolvesdomesticated-in-europe-19,000-32,000-years-ago
Procedures
The C-Test (Appendix) was printed on A3 paper (a four-page document, including the cover). The tests were folded in half and distributed to the participants. The introduction to the test and a practice exercise were presented on the front cover. The C-Test was printed from the front cover verso to the final page. There were 150 test items in total and participants had 40 minutes to complete the test. Once the participants had completed the test, the examiners distributed the test answers to them. Participants then marked their own tests, using the exact-word scoring method, based on Raatz and Klein-Braley (1981). After scoring the papers, the results were replaced with 0 (incorrect answers) or 1 (correct answers) and were written on data sheets that had been distributed. The examiners collected the test papers, answers, and data sheets, and checked for any differences between the test results marked by the participants and the results on the data sheets. After the results were evaluated, the data were entered into an Excel worksheet.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Gap level
Table 1 displays the number of the participants, minimum score, maximum score, mean score, and standard deviation of the 16 independent variables. C/F, W. Level, and Inflection are all taken in account as numerical data by quantification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Descriptive statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>5.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. Word</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Level</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/F</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Class</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syll/word</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cv, v</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflection</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syll/sen</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>27.73</td>
<td>9.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alph/sen</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>163.00</td>
<td>91.95</td>
<td>33.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words/sen</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>33.00</td>
<td>18.87</td>
<td>6.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order/pass</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words/pass</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>101.00</td>
<td>91.20</td>
<td>9.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sen/pass</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average.w.sen.pass</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td>20.20</td>
<td>17.04</td>
<td>3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order/5pass</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>7.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multiple regression was conducted to predict item difficulty based on the 16 independent variables. As Table 2 shows, an equation was found, with an $R^2$ of 0.310. Participants’ predicted item difficulty is equal to $-5.1196 + 0.0107$ (Frequency) + 0.0245 (L. Word) + 0.1175 (W. Level)
Both the variables which have a high P-value and a combination of the variables may be obstacles for description rate of item difficulty. When five variables (syll/word, order/5passages, cv.v syll/sentence, order/passage) were deleted, the highest description rate was achieved. Therefore, as Table 3 shows, another multiple regression was conducted to predict item difficulty based on the 10 independent variables. An equation was found, with an $R^2$ of 0.329. Participants’ predicted item difficulty is equal to $-5.1207 + 0.0104$ (Frequency) + 0.0273 (L.Word) + 0.1159 (W.Level) - 0.9012 (C/F) + 1.3982 (W.Class) + 0.9452 (Inflection) - 0.0022 (alph/sen) + 0.0126 (words/sen) - 0.0206 (words/pass) + 0.1687 (sen/pass) + 0.0678 (average.w.sen.pass). Word level, word class, and inflection were significant predictors of item difficulty.
### Table 3: Maximum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression coefficient</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Standard margin error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>0.0104</td>
<td>0.2266</td>
<td>5.772</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>[* ] 0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. Word</td>
<td>0.0273</td>
<td>0.2115</td>
<td>7.503</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>[* ] 0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Level</td>
<td>0.1159</td>
<td>0.3269</td>
<td>3.831</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>[ ] 0.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/F</td>
<td>-0.9012</td>
<td>-0.3269</td>
<td>5.421</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>[** ] 0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Class</td>
<td>1.3982</td>
<td>0.6066</td>
<td>15.659</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>[** ] 0.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflection</td>
<td>0.9452</td>
<td>0.2384</td>
<td>9.764</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>[** ] 0.302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alph/sen</td>
<td>-0.0022</td>
<td>-0.2654</td>
<td>1.701</td>
<td>0.194</td>
<td>[ ] 0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words/sen</td>
<td>0.0126</td>
<td>0.2991</td>
<td>2.788</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>[ ] 0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words/pass</td>
<td>-0.0206</td>
<td>-0.6979</td>
<td>6.337</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>[ ] 0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sen/pass</td>
<td>0.1687</td>
<td>0.8370</td>
<td>2.194</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>[ ] 0.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average.w.sen.pass</td>
<td>0.0678</td>
<td>0.8665</td>
<td>2.382</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>[ ] 0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant term</td>
<td>-5.1207</td>
<td>8.230</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>[** ] 1.785</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| R                       | 0.379  |        |       |              |                      |
| R²                      | 0.329  |        |       |              |                      |
| Multiple correlation coefficient | 0.616 |        |       |              |                      |
| Adjusted multiple correlation coefficient | 0.574 |        |       |              |                      |
| AIC                     | -8.868 |        |       |              |                      |

### Text level

Brown (1989) and Khoshdel, Baghaei and Bemani (2016) insisted that research above the gap level would be necessary to identify the construct of the cloze test or the C-Test. The number of sentences that contained gaps was 23. Since there was no previous research on item difficulty at the sentence level, multiple regression was expected to predict the sentence level difficulty of the C-Test in the present investigation. Numerical values for each sentence variable were calculated as follows: “sum (numerical value of the front position of gaps in the sentence to the end position of gaps in the sentence) / (the number of gaps in the sentence)”.

### Table 4: Descriptive statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>5.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. word</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Level</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/F</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Class</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syll/w</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cv, v</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflection</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syll/sen</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>10.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alph/sen</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>163.00</td>
<td>81.96</td>
<td>35.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 5 displays, multiple regression was calculated to predict item difficulty based on the 16 independent variables. An equation was found, with an $R^2$ of 0.167. Participants’ predicted item difficulty is equal to $-13.5918 + 0.0061 \times \text{Frequency} + 0.0945 \times \text{L.word} + 0.5929 \times \text{W. Level} - 2.6561 \times \text{C/F} + 1.5153 \times \text{W. Class} + 0.2515 \times \text{syll/w} - 0.4527 \times \text{cv,v} + 2.2285 \times \text{Inflection} + 0.0456 \times \text{syll/sen} - 0.0068 \times \text{alph/sen} - 0.0409 \times \text{words/sen} + 0.0152 \times \text{order/pass} - 0.0276 \times \text{words/pass} + 0.3541 \times \text{sen/pass} + 0.1071 \times \text{average.w.sen.pass} - 0.0129 \times \text{order/5pass}$. The $P$-value of all the variables is above 0.10. There are no significant predictors in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression coefficient</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Standard margin error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>0.0061</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.468</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L.word</td>
<td>0.0945</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td>0.552</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Level</td>
<td>0.5929</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td>2.447</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/F</td>
<td>-2.6561</td>
<td>-0.852</td>
<td>1.695</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Class</td>
<td>1.5153</td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td>0.993</td>
<td>0.357</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syll/w</td>
<td>0.2515</td>
<td>1.306</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cv, v</td>
<td>-0.4527</td>
<td>-2.526</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>0.414</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflection</td>
<td>2.2285</td>
<td>0.567</td>
<td>0.497</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syll/sen</td>
<td>0.0456</td>
<td>3.975</td>
<td>1.853</td>
<td>0.222</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>alph/sen</td>
<td>-0.0068</td>
<td>-1.924</td>
<td>1.264</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words/sen</td>
<td>-0.0409</td>
<td>-2.381</td>
<td>1.249</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order/pass</td>
<td>0.0152</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words/pass</td>
<td>-0.0276</td>
<td>-1.980</td>
<td>2.392</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sen/pass</td>
<td>0.3541</td>
<td>4.117</td>
<td>2.108</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average.w.sen.pass</td>
<td>0.1071</td>
<td>3.105</td>
<td>1.645</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order/5pass</td>
<td>-0.0129</td>
<td>-0.831</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.486</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant term</td>
<td>-13.5918</td>
<td>0.598</td>
<td>0.469</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>17.575</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variables which have a high $P$-value and a combination of variables may be obstacles for the
description rate of item difficulty. When 11 variables were deleted, the highest description rate was achieved. As Table 6 shows, multiple regression was conducted to predict item difficulty based on the five independent variables. An equation was found, with an $R^2$ of 0.558. Participants’ predicted item difficulty is equal to $0.7087 + 0.1982 \text{(W. Level)} - 2.7515 \text{(C/F)} + 2.3289 \text{(W. Class)} - 0.0062 \text{(words/pass)} + 0.0210 \text{(order/pass)}$. C/F, word class, and word/passage were significant predictors of item difficulty.

**Table 6: Maximum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Regression coefficient</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Standard margin error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>W. Level</td>
<td>0.1982</td>
<td>0.314</td>
<td>4.259</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/F</td>
<td>-2.7515</td>
<td>-0.882</td>
<td>9.824</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>[**]</td>
<td>0.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Class</td>
<td>2.3289</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>9.640</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>[**]</td>
<td>0.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words/pass</td>
<td>-0.0062</td>
<td>-0.444</td>
<td>9.436</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>[**]</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order/pass</td>
<td>0.0210</td>
<td>0.278</td>
<td>3.289</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant term</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.095</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>[* ]</td>
<td>0.266</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

In the present study, the authors assumed that 16 factors may be related to the determination of item difficulty in C-Tests. Some factors were chosen based on Brown (1989) and Khoshdel, Baghaei, and Bemani (2016), while others were devised provisionally by the authors.

The results (Table 2, Table 3) suggested that word class, inflection, and word level are related to item difficulty. Word class, in particular, had the most significant relationship with item difficulty. While word class had the strongest relationship with item difficulty, inflection was the second-highest, and word level was the third-highest at the gap level. However, in these two gap level analyses, only about 30 percent of item difficulty was explained. About 70 percent of the variables related to item difficulty were not revealed.

There were no statistically significant variables in Table 5. This result may indicate that some variables do not have any relationships with item difficulty and also that such variables may be obstacles for other variables to explain item difficulty. As Table 6 shows, the combination of five variables, word level, content or function, word class, and order per 5 passages, showed the highest $R^2$, 0.558. Therefore, there is a possibility that the other 10 factors had a minimal relationship with item difficulty in the sentence level analysis. Word class and content or function variables had the most significant relationship with item difficulty. In addition, words per passage was the second-most significant.
The authors carried out four multiple regression analyses. Based on the analyses, the following four points are implied:

(1) It is easier to predict item difficulty at the sentence level with 16 variables than at the gap level. Prediction rates for item difficulty increased from 0.32 to 0.55. The disparity between the prediction rate at the gap level and that at the sentence level seems to be about 0.20. Moreover, at both the gap level and the sentence level, word class was the best predictor. However, other variables were different. In the gap level analysis, inflection and word level were the second- and third-best predictors. The other variables were not statistically significant (p>0.01). In the sentence level analysis, content or function was the best predictor as word class, and words per passage was the second-best. The other variables were not statistically significant (p>0.01). This result indicated that as the focus point shifted from the gap level to the sentence level, the variables that predict item difficulties changed. Note that the item difficulties at the sentence level are the averages of each passage of correct answers of gaps in the sentence. There is a possibility that item difficulties at the sentence level reflected sentence difficulties.

(2) There is a possibility that item difficulty has a fluid construct. The authors might have missed possible variables, but it seemed that all fundamental factors were included in the statistical analyses. However, the variables explained a small portion of item difficulty at the gap level (0.32). Seventy percent of item difficulty was not revealed. Furthermore, in the sentence level analysis, five variables predicted more than half (0.55) of item difficulty, while 45 percent of item difficulty was not revealed.

Kiya and Ito (2017) revealed that low-proficiency English learners and high-proficiency English learners used different strategies to answer the C-Test items. Furthermore, in this study, five passages were chosen as test materials, and each passage was focused on different fields. The first passage was a diary, the second was about health, the third was about an event related to Titanic, the fourth was about the DNA of dogs and wolves, and the fifth was about the movement of whales from land to the sea. The second, fourth, and fifth passages related to biology or science. Therefore, the test takers who studied or were interested in biology or science may have had an advantage in this C-Test. Sigott (2004) insisted fluid construct. There is a possibility that the test takers’ strategies differed by English proficiency level and that their different knowledge may have affected unknown portions of item difficulty at both the gap level and the sentence level. Additionally, in this study, the sentence level analysis showed a lower unknown portion of item difficulty. If the fluid construct is a true phenomenon, the result of this study may indicate that a fluid construct at the gap level is revealed more easily than at the sentence level.

(3) Variables that were attributed to the gaps themselves, but not variables that were attributed to sentence, passage, or five passages, affected item difficulty at both the gap level and the sentence level. In the gap level analyses, as displayed in Table 2 and Table 3, word class, inflection, and word level affected item difficulty. These three variables were all attributes of the gaps. In the sentence level analysis, as displayed in Table 6, three variables, content or function, word class, and words per passage, affected item difficulty. Two variables were attributed to the gaps. Words per passage was attributed to the sentences. In both the gap level analysis and the sentence level
analysis, variables that were attributed to the gaps affected item difficulty. At the gap level, the other variables that were attributed to the sentences and five passages were not statistically significant. Therefore, the authors concluded that variables attributed to the sentences and five passages do not affect item difficulty as much at the gap level. The results indicated that features of the gaps correlated to item difficulty at both the gap level and the sentence level. However, as the gaps seem to be integrating into the sentence level, the surroundings of the gaps (word/passage) may be determining item difficulty.

(4) There is a possibility that the C-Test measures vocabulary ability. Khoshdel, Baghaei, and Bemani (2016) insisted that vocabulary factors affected item difficulty. In this paper, word class affected item difficulty at both the gap level and the sentence level. Word class may have a connection with vocabulary. It was revealed that prepositions, auxiliary verbs, articles, and conjunctions were comparatively easier than adverbs, nouns, verbs, and adjectives. It is obvious that prepositions, auxiliary verbs, articles, and conjunctions see a high frequency of use and their numbers are overwhelmingly fewer than adverbs, nouns, verbs, and adjectives. The adverb, noun, verb, and adjective classes contain thousands of words. Furthermore, in the gap level analyses, word level significantly affected item difficulty. Therefore, the authors concluded that the C-Test seems to also measure vocabulary ability.

CONCLUSION

In this study, the authors attempted to clarify what variables affected C-Test item difficulty. The research findings are as follows:

(1) Word class, inflection, and word level explained about 32 percent of item difficulty in the C-Test. However, there is a large unknown portion (about 70 percent) of item difficulty. This portion might be related to other textual variables or to fluid construct.

(2) Content or function, word class, and word passage affect item difficulty. This analysis explained about 55 percent of item difficulty in the C-Test. However, 45 percent of item difficulty remained unexplained. This portion may be related to other textual variables.

(3) Sentence level analysis was more useful than gap level analysis in predicting item difficulty. If the fluid construct is a factor, and it accounted for a large unknown portion of item difficulty, the findings showed that as the test-taker takes the C-Test, the gaps in the C-Test would be integrated into his/her mind, and item difficulty would be determined and stabilized by textual features more than gap level difficulty. Moreover, the results may indicate that the prediction rates of several-sentences level analysis or passage level analysis would be higher than either gap level analysis or sentence level analysis. Therefore, further research should be conducted on several-sentences level and the passage level.

Limitations of the study and remaining issues

Limitations of the study and remaining issues were posed as follows:
First, it is not clear that the procedures of the sentence level analyses are adequate. Since there are few studies on item difficulty at the sentence level, the authors decided to calculate the average of each variable. However, each sentence had a different number of gaps. This method should be reconsidered in future research.

Second, there may be some doubt that the variables as numerical data in this paper are not accurate. In this paper, content or function, the variables as numerical data in this paper are not accurate. In this paper, content or function, word class, and inflection variables were quantified. Other variables were numerical. However, the ranges of the variables were different. This issue was asserted by Khoshdel, Baghaei, & Bemani (2016). Therefore, these variables may need to be quantified, as content or function, word class, and inflection were.

Third, there is a possibility that there are other significant variables that are related to item difficulty. The result may indicate that other variables that were not considered in this paper may relate to item difficulty, such as the distinction between words of Latinate and Germanic origin (Brown, 1989), constituent type, and main clause (Sigott, 1995).

Fourth, assuming that there is a fluid construct in the C-Test, the analyses may need to be divided into ranks of English proficiency level (rank) such as high-, middle-, and low- students. In future research, a divided analysis should be carried out to reveal the unknown portions of item difficulty from this study and the existence of a fluid construct.

Further research on these domains are awaited.

REFERENCES
APPENDIX

C-Test

Text 1

My one ambition in life had always been to become a writer. So, in September, 1970, I quit the company I had been working at for eight years and decided to become one. Although I succeeded in producing one long novel and several short stories during the first nine months, every publishing company I showed them to refused to print them. To make matters worse, the money I had saved during my years at the company was beginning to run out.

Text 2

According to the National Institutes of Health, the average adult sleeps less than seven hours per night. In today’s fast-paced society, six or seven hours of sleep may sound pretty good. In reality, though, it’s a recipe for chronic sleep deprivation. There is a big difference between the amount of sleep you can get by on and the amount you need to function optimally. Just because you’re able to operate on seven hours of sleep doesn’t mean you wouldn’t feel a lot better and get more done if you spent an extra hour or two in bed.

Text 3

More than 2,000 people were aboard when the Titanic sank. Some of the wealthiest people in the world were traveling in the ship’s luxury cabins. Hundreds of people were also on their way to America to immigrate, and were hoping for a better life. But as all these passengers rushed toward lifeboats, eight musicians remained calm. Led by bandleader Wallace Henry Hartley, they played music in an attempt to stop the panic. All eight men died when the ship sank. 30

Text 4

Scientists generally agree that dogs emerged from wolves to become the first domesticated animal. Their wolf ancestors began to associate with people, maybe drawn by food in garbage dumps and carcasses left by human hunters. In the process they became tamer, and scientists believe ancient people found them useful for duties like hunting and guard duty. Over a very long time in this human environment, wolves gradually turned into the first dogs. Researchers gathered DNA from fossils of 18 ancient wolf-like and dog-like creatures that lived up to 36,000 years ago in Argentina, Belgium, Germany, Russia, Switzerland and the United States.

Text 5

The journey whales made from land to water began about 50 million years ago. The dinosaurs had already disappeared. But many ancient mammals survived the extinction that wiped out most dinosaurs. The mammals were warm blooded. They had fur or hair to keep warm, and they produced milk to nurse their young. Some of these ancient mammals began to wander along muddy shores and explore the water. They were probably searching for food, says Flynn. The ability to find new kinds of food in the water or live in a new environment gave these land animals an advantage.
TRANSLATION CRITICISM OF THREE PERSIAN
TRANSLATIONS OF 'THE HUNDRED-YEAR-OLD MAN WHO
CLIMBED OUT THE WINDOW AND DISAPPEARED'
ACCORDING TO FARAHZAD'S CDA MODEL

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ABSTRACT
Different novels are the results of different ideas and viewpoint of their writers and therefore their translators. Notably different translation of specific novel can illuminate the ideologies of their translators. The present critical discourse analysis study is aimed to explore the possible ideological manipulations applied in three translations of a single English novel book called, The Hundred-Year-Old Man Who Climbed out the Window and Disappeared by Jonas Jonasson(2010), based on Farahzad's(2011) approach. The three dimensional CDA model were critically investigated as: textual and paratextual level. At textual level, the researcher worked on the lexical items, positive/negative, tense, addition, etc. At paratextual level, footnotes were analyzed. The three translators of the mentioned novel made some important differences changes. The translators are: Farzaneh Taheri, Jalal Rezaei Rad and Shadi Hamedi. All the translators applied deletion frequently but Rezaei omitted very essential sentences, he had used to omit many historical and political parts of the book. Taheri had ignored grammatical choices the most, changes in positive/negative, passive/active are the few more examples. Hamedi’s translation seems much closer to Jonasson's ideologies. But she had made changes in lexical parts, she chose a completely different words instead of definition of that. All this changes from the translators side is counted as an ideological significant that effect on readers mind unconsciously.

KEYWORDS: ideology, translation criticism, textual and paratextual model

INTRODUCTION
Awareness of complexity of translation process made human to translate by themselves instead of online translates apps as much as possible. The translation thus is both a process and a product. "One of the areas of translation studies is translation criticism. Thus, both the translator and critics have to acquire a wide range of knowledge in language and culture of source and target country, in order to initiate a successful process of books in translation". (Hatmin & Munday, 2004, p. 25) According to Farahzad (2011), translation criticism has divided into three
In this study, critical discourse analysis of three translations of the book *The Hundred-Year-Old Man Who Climbed Out the Window and Disappeared* based on Farahzad CDA model is the matter of investigation. Wodak (2007) states: one of the most important developments in CDA is a new focus on identity politics (translation and social change), language policies, and on integrating macro social theories with linguistic analysis. (p. 12) CDA is an interdisciplinary approach which can define language policies, writers and translator’s ideologies. The main aim of the study is to uncover the underlying ideological manipulations invisible in the metatext (target text) in comparison with their corresponding prototext (source text) and investigate the extent to which factors influenced the translator's strategies in providing the final products. Professional translators are neither looking at the dictionaries, nor machines. They are going to uncovered the words in one language then ingrained it in another language. At the moment of translating they should match the style and structure as well as possible to the source text. The existence of cultural gap in different languages cause problem for them. The point is that translators are free to choose their ideal style. And also they can impose their ideology to the reader. In reality it is somehow depends on the faithfulness of the translator. This study will scrutinize the hidden ideology of the writer and the three translators. Translation is considered as a powerful factor in which has a socio-cultural and historical effect on the society. Toury in his book, *The Nature and Role of Norms in Translation*, (1995) called these factors as norm and explain it: a translation of general values or ideas shared by community-as to what is correct or mistake, adequate or not into performance instructions-appropriate for an applicable to particular situations. (p. 113). These norms mostly emerge in literary works like novels. During translation may faces a great number of certain problems such as cultural, linguistically… that are depends on the translator s' thoughts and believes. In regard to Newmark (1988), a good translator or writer could often avoid not only errors of language use but also he simply applies his common senses and show sensitivity to language. This makes the result of the translation process an admissible one". (p. 32) As this study follows the Farahzad s’ model analysis, the pros and cons of the model could be clarified after this assessment.

Translation has been defined in lots of ways with various writers in the field that are all depends on how they view language and translation. In case of language, they are different from each other too. As Bell (1991, p. 12)said, "Translations are different in form. Having distinct codes and rules regulating the construction of grammatical stretches of language and these forms have different meanings. Text in different languages can have different equivalent (fully or partially equivalent), different level of presentation (equivalent in respect of context, of semantics, etc) and also different rank (word-for-word, phrase-for phrase and sentence-for-sentence)". In translation like in other professional area like medicine or computing…, manipulation results are depends on not only distortion, but also in improvement. Newmark (1988, p. 5) stated, Translating is an individual creative act, in the process in which the meaning of a text is also created a new individual meaning. Translation is presenting the meaning of a text into foreign language in the way that the author intended the text. Common sense tells us that this ought to be simple, as one ought to be able to say something as well in one language as in another. On the other hand, you may see it as complicated, artificial and fraudulent, since by using another language you are pretending to be someone you are not.
"A good translation is the one in which the deserve of the original work is completely transferred into another language, as to be as distinctly apprehended, and as strongly felt, by a native of the country to which that language belongs, as it is by those who speak the language of the original work. Translation is the 'trial of the foreign', but in a large amount of sense. In the first place, it establishes a relationship between the self-same and the foreign by aiming to open up the foreign work to us in its utter foreignness. The purpose which is behind the translation is among the important issues which should be taken into account; particularly in the case of cultural band texts, the degrees of intervention by translator will often depend on consumer and their needs". (Hatim & Mason, 1997, p. 190)

As world trade has grown the importance of translation apparent. In many translation projects, there are many advisors or consultants to help the translators. Larson (1984) believes that, consultants are normally interested in three matters: "(1) accuracy of content, (2) naturalness of style, and (3) effect on the receptor language audience. It is important that translators check their materials with a trained consultant after completing a section or two of a long document. If they continue, and do large amounts of translation work without any kind of a check, they will miss out on the training which a consultant can give as they run over the material together". (p. 55)

How does one know when a translation is good? Answer to this simple question lay at the heart of all concerns with translation criticism. As Susan Bassnett (1980) says that translation a study including translation criticism has been developing as a distinct discipline. But, in trying to assess the quality of a translation one addresses the heart of any theory of translation which is the crucial question of the nature of translation or, more specifically, the nature of the relationship between a source text and its translation text. Thus, translation is essentially an operation in which the meaning of linguistic units is to be kept equivalent across languages. (p. 112) CDA is not much like a direction, unlike the other approaches. Critical discourse analysis is based upon both concrete social events and abstract social structures as part of socials reality. Social structures can be convinced of as potentialities which are selectively actualized in social events. The relationship between social structures and social events is mediated by social practices, which control the selective actualization of potentials. (Faiclugh, 2010, p. 2)

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose and ultimately to resist social inequality. (Dijk, 1998, p. 84). In accord with Meriel and Thomas Bloor (2007), CD analysts identify and study specific areas of justice, danger, suffering, prejudice, and so on, even though the identification of such areas can be contentious. While it is now widely accepted that many social problems arise from the injudicious use of language or other forms of communication. (p. 3)

1) Analysis of (spoken or written) Language texts.
According to the three dimensions which are mentioned, Fairclough considers ideology a part of the analysis of discourse as social practice, related to all three levels of discourse. It's true that persons who know both the Source Language and the Receptor Language well can often make the transfer from one form to the other very rapidly, without thinking about the semantic structure overtly. However, for complicated texts, and when the translators may not be equally fluent in the two languages (if they are mother-tongue speakers of only one), the study of the principles to be presented here will enable them to adequate translation. Even if one is able to make an adequate translation without detailed analysis, it should be of interest to all translators to study the process of translating by semantic analysis. (Larson, 1984, pp. 4-5) A Critical discourse analysis would need to study such a family in some depth in order to reach any conclusions about how the situation could be improved. "CDA could discover a great deal about what was going on in such a situation, but, in order to enact change, other professionals would need to be involved – such as teachers. For this reason, there is great scope for CDA as part of team research." (Bloor Thomas, Bloor Meriel, 2007, p. 3)

In recent years, professionals from a variety of backgrounds have become interested in discourse issues. Historians, business institutions, lawyers, politicians and medical professionals and so on, have already used discourse analysis to investigate social problems which is related to their works. Van Djik (1997a), who prefers the term Critical Discourse Studies (CDS) for this reason, described it as 'A new cross discipline that comparises the analysis of text and talk in virtually all disciplines of the humanities and social sciences.

Farzaneh Farahzad is one of the famous researchers who are at the department of English translation in Allameh Tabataba'I University of Tehran. Her endeavor works on Critical Discourse Analysis was markable.

Farahzad (2011) introduce a three-dimensional model for translation criticism inspired by critical discourse analysis. She believes that unlike translation quality assessment which rests on value judgments, translation criticism needs to explore the ideological implications of translational choices and how they represent identities in target societies. Based on the concept of intertextuality, the model examines the metatext in relation to its corresponding prototext at three levels: the textual, the paratextual and the semiotic. The first dimension is' intertextuality' that explains the nature of the relation between a prototext and all its existing and possible metatexts. Two types of intertextuality exist: overt, in which the intertext include direct quotations and citations from other intertexts; and covert, in which the intertext relates to other intertexts not only in terms of genre and discourse, but also concepts. The second dimension is 'critical discourse analysis' that can serve translation studies by providing ways of looking critically in to translation to identify power relations, identity politics, and ideologies. So this model starts with textual analysis. There are two types of criticism, non-comparative, in which the metatext is independent of any corresponding prototext: and comparative criticism which is used for translation studies and examines the metatext in comparison to its corresponding porototext. The
third dimension is 'translational choice' that covers a rather vast area, ranging from lexical and grammatical choices a translator makes, to her/his choice of translation strategies, both at the textual, paratextual, and semiotic levels. Textual levels concern everything in the text, such as words, grammatical structures, overt and covert meanings, implications, etc. Paratextual level concern everything about the text, such as the translator's/ editor's/ publisher's notes, prefaces, judgments, and comments, translator's footnotes and endnotes. Semiotic level concerns other layers of the text, such as the graphic design of the book cover, illustrations, layout, fonts, colors, and the like. (pp. 30-35)

MATERIAL AND PROCEDURE
According to above explanation, the present study compared the three translations of the book in the field of mostly textual, and briefly semiotic according to Farahzad approach. Also in order to make the results of the study more reliable, some features such as omission, addition, elevation, versification and etc checked quantitatively, In order to make the results more tangible. The researcher read three translations of English book to gain a mentality about the translators and style of their writing. Then compared the Persian translations with their corresponding English book to find out words, phrases, sentences … considered to be ideologically loaded .English novel books with three Persian translations are as follows:


Translated by Shadi Hamedi (2014), first edition; Behnegar publications.

This book was chosen because according to many famous writers and theorists the book *The Hundred-Year Old Man Who Climbed out the Window and Disappeared* is among the valuable and working ones. It became the bestselling book in Sweden in 2010 and in 2012 had sold around three million copies in the world. This part provided the investigation and analysis of this study. In this work the original text and its three translations analyzed based on the Farahzad’s CDA model.

DATA ANALYSIS
The translations have been analyzed in terms of lexical choices, results are gathered. Data's analyzed by comparing the original text with the translations. The comparison was meant to find clues about the intervention and imposition of ideology on and in translation. Then the renderings were carefully examined to see if the translations conveyed the same ideological issues and senses as the original source or not.
In this section, some examples from textual level, and paratextual level were selected with the three translations are studied according to Farahzad CDA principals. Analysis of examples extracted from the novel The Hundred-Year Old Man Who Climbed out the Window and Disappeared by Jonas Jonasson (2012) was compared with three available translated versions by Shadi Hamedi (2014), Jalal Rezaei Rad (2014) and Farzaneh Taheri(2015).

1. Textual Analysis of Translations, Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Text</th>
<th>TT1: Jalal Rezaei Rad</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3: Shadi Hamedi and TT3: Farzaneh Taheri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If a nip of the hard stuff might be included.</td>
<td>حرف از چلکباب هم شست؟ (ص 31)</td>
<td>حرف از چلکباب هم شست؟ (ص 21)</td>
<td>حرف از چلکباب هم شست؟ (ص 14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What the hell</td>
<td>دربازه &quot;دلال اجتماعی و اصلاح&quot; (ص 22)</td>
<td>دربازه &quot;دلال اجتماعی و اصلاح&quot; (ص 31)</td>
<td>دربازه &quot;دلال اجتماعی و اصلاح&quot; (ص 32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;eugenic and social reasons.&quot;</td>
<td>به‌پارامیتر &quot;دلال اجتماعی و اصلاح&quot; (ص 26)</td>
<td>به‌پارامیتر &quot;دلال اجتماعی و اصلاح&quot; (ص 16)</td>
<td>به‌پارامیتر &quot;دلال اجتماعی و اصلاح&quot; (ص 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I might not know anything about privacy, but I'm good at getting people to talk.</td>
<td>اگر عنوان نقض یکی از جریمه‌های مجازی نظیر دستیابی به اطلاعات شخصی مربوط به نام و نمایندگی مالک حق اطلاعات باید مورد تحقیق قرار گیرد. (ص 7)</td>
<td>اگر عنوان نقض یکی از جریمه‌های مجازی نظیر دستیابی به اطلاعات شخصی مربوط به نام و نمایندگی مالک حق اطلاعات باید مورد تحقیق قرار گیرد. (ص 9)</td>
<td>اگر عنوان نقض یکی از جریمه‌های مجازی نظیر دستیابی به اطلاعات شخصی مربوط به نام و نمایندگی مالک حق اطلاعات باید مورد تحقیق قرار گیرد. (ص 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allan crept over it, age and knees be damned.</td>
<td>بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو</td>
<td>بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو</td>
<td>بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو بی‌رو</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So the idea had barely taken hold in the old man's head.</td>
<td>اگر عنوان نقض یکی از جریمه‌های مجازی نظیر دستیابی به اطلاعات شخصی مربوط به نام و نمایندگی مالک حق اطلاعات باید مورد تحقیق قرار گیرد. (ص 1)</td>
<td>اگر عنوان نقض یکی از جریمه‌های مجازی نظیر دستیابی به اطلاعات شخصی مربوط به نام و نمایندگی مالک حق اطلاعات باید مورد تحقیق قرار گیرد. (ص 5)</td>
<td>اگر عنوان نقض یکی از جریمه‌های مجازی نظیر دستیابی به اطلاعات شخصی مربوط به نام و نمایندگی مالک حق اطلاعات باید مورد تحقیق قرار گیرد. (ص 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He then moved five yards to the left.</td>
<td>بعد پنجره را می‌خورد. (ص 18)</td>
<td>بعد پنجره را می‌خورد. (ص 9)</td>
<td>بعد پنجره را می‌خورد. (ص 4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Explication of the table 1:
Example 1. Longman Dictionary defines 'Hard stuff' as: "strong alcohol". Rezaei translate "چلکباب", Hamedi translate "لشکری و قویه" and Taheri translate "اجرای مردانه". Rezaeis and Taheri have used unfamiliar words which are irrelevant with the original text and cause confusing. So, it seems the translation of Hamedi, with due attention to limitations in Iran, is closer to real definition.

Example 2. The original sentence is negative, while Taheri has used idiomatic expressions. Although the expression is positive but she has used to convey the negative meaning. Rezaeis' has used neutral translation in case the original text show the anger. Hamedi tried to attend this strategy in her translations as much as possible.

Example 3. Hamedi and Taheri in their translations 'translate the subject (he) as an object. It means they changed the active sentence into the passive one. Because the year of publications of all the three translators are close to each other, Rezaei by deleting this parts obviously wants to show his own idol Rezaei by deleting this parts obviously wants to show his self ideology.
Example 4. All three translators have used additions, seems Taheri bring the closest translation in this example. But Rezaei and Hamedi by adding expressions tried to recapture and save the tone of the sentence, which apprehensible the situations.

Example 5. In this example Rezaei and Taheri used additions. Rezaei's translation looks out of mind here. It's clear a hundred year old man can't be frisky as he translates. He has used hyperbolic words.

Example 6. The original sentence is positive, while Taheri translated it into negative sentence. Taheri had changed the positive/negative significant in the above examples. Hamedi tried to attend this strategy in her translations as much as possible. Rezaei by omitting the sentences tried to ignore the sense of the text.

Example 7. Hamedi and Taheri In this example, Taheri and Hamedi tried to domesticate the word 'yard', but the process of converting Hamedi had a mistake in conversion. The conversion of 5 yards into meters is about 4.5 meters which is not even close to the translations of Taheri. Rezaei pay no attention to the detailed and omit it.

Example 8. In Rezaei's translation the wordآن referred to unclear subject. Taheri and Rezaei used idiomatic expression which helps to domesticate in order to have the nearest equivalents in their translation.

Paratextual level concerns everything about the text. Footnotes can be useful, in providing supplementary information, but long explanatory also can distract readers. In paratextual level any additional data may provided along with the metatext falls into this category. This extra information is mostly implicating the ideological issue. The presence of footnotes on Hamedi's translation was significant.

2. A Sample of footnotes in Hamedi's translations, Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Footnote</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Sarongs</td>
<td>فرسایش: گروهی مسیحی و مکتبی فکری در میان یهودیان بین قرن ششم و قرن سوم میلادی بودند. از آن ها می‌توان به نویسنده انجیل نام برده شده است که اختلاف نظرهای عمیق با عیسی مسیح ناشست. م (صف 370).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pharisees</td>
<td>سارونگ: سامان سلی مسیحی که در مناطق وрубیی از شرق آسیا و شاخ آفریقا و خليج دارود می‌گذرد. م (صف 336).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Explanation of the table**

Rezaei and Taheri have no used footnotes in their translations, they mostly try to use foreignization and domestications. When there is a large distance between two cultures, absolutely using footnotes helps the reader to be familiar with foreign culture and causes clarifying the source text. So the true meaning convey. Hamedi by using footnotes tried to be faithful to the original text. So consequently she translates better production.

Semiotic Level is the visual signs which provide information about the text. They are therefore ideologically significant. As Farahzad said, these visual signs mostly include the graphic design...
of the book cover. In cover page of Jonas Jonasson, original book, he has used a black frame as a window which pointed to the window of the old people's home. The frame has parted into four. It has an old man with suitcase and pair of indoor slippers, on his feet is going along the road. At the back of the cover book, there is an open window without even any shadow of the old man. Rezaei in his book cover has used slang in translation of the title

پیرمرد صد ساله ای که از پنجره خانه سالمندان زد به چاک و ناپدید شد.

He designed the book cover by an old window with a disappointed and hesitated old man who's sitting on the edge of the window. Hamedi designed the book cover by ignoring the window with a thoughtful man on the obscure path. The man she used in cover page is old but not as 100 years old. It looks middle-aged man and walked steadily. Taheri designed the cover page as similar as possible to the original one. This part has contained one more important point: that none of the mentioned translators follow the back cover book as the original one. All of them ignored this matter.

CONCLUSION
Any changes will affect the reality, when a translator change lexical meaning the word, she/he wants to put own ideology on the text. Rezaei has changed the lexical meaning to reveal sentences which have political, cultural issues, which some of them are not allowed to explain due to the Islamic limitations, but for the purpose of the translation he could infer that word. He has not handover reliabale and faithful translation and imposed his ideologies to the target texts. In Taheri's translation, the number of negation is more than the others are, which shows that she wants to put emphasis on the other aspects of reality. In Literary translations seems more likely to use nominalization. Translators change nominalizations into sentences to emphasize the actions but also they break the norms and clichés. The rate of nominalizations was more in Taheri's translation that of the others. Hamedi also had errors on lexical parts, but because of having footnotes it seems she has more success in conveying the true meaning. They used addition in order to have more coherent sentences by adding some explanations. Hamedi's translation seems much closer to Jonasson's ideologies in most of the parts.

At the semiotics level, all three translation book covers, the fore grounded elements have not been changed fully; indeed they changed some details of content which guidance the points of view of the readers.

Delimitations and limitations of the study
Poor access to the original source text of the selected novel 'The Hundred-Year-Old Man who Climbed out of the Window and Disappeared' by Jonas Jonasson in Iran is a limitation, although the PDF file of the source book is available if search engines are tried on the net. The second issue is unavailability of the essential information about the writer and translators such as ideologies and beliefs they follow, social status and some other information which can be important before any critique. The cooperation of the publishers would be very important in order to find the translators for an interview but the researcher never had a chance to do due to lack if such cooperation.
Regarding the research delimitation, during the investigation of translation strategies for dealing with ideology traces, it would be useful if more corpora are accessible in order to gain better insight for drawing the findings based on the results. Due to time constraints, just one novel in genre of literature was considered in the process of research. The mentioned novel already has three translations, the researcher decided to make use all of them. These three translators are: 1. Shadi Hamedi 2. Jalal Rezaei Rad 3. Farzaneh Taheri as mentioned above.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT
This research was supported by Department of English Language Translation, Shahr-e-Qods Branch, Islamic Azad University and the researcher thanx from the authority of the university who provided insight and expertise that greatly assisted the research.

REFERENCES
VOCABULARY LEARNING: TASK-BASED AND EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION VERSUS A TRADITIONAL METHOD

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ABSTRACT
The study examined the effect of task-based versus explicit instruction on learning vocabulary among Iranian EFL learners as compared to a control group. Seventy five BA university students (males and females) studying English participated in the study (age = 20-25). Homogeneity was checked for through a proficiency test. Participants were assigned into three groups: Two experimental groups (task-based and explicit learners) and a control group. Task-based group received treatment based on sentence writing and reading comprehension tasks and the explicit group received the treatment based on explicit definitions of new vocabulary items before reading texts. The control group was exposed to the formal traditional instruction in an ordinary classroom. A pre-test was administered to all groups at the beginning of the experiment to ensure similarity in knowledge regarding the target vocabulary. Then, at the end of the experiment, a post-test was administered to all groups to determine whether task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction had any effects on learners’ vocabulary development as compared to the control group. The findings showed that both experimental groups performed significantly better than the control group. There were no significant differences between the two experimental groups. Teachers, thus, could use such methods in order to turn teaching/learning into a more student-centered activity. Lastly, the findings may encourage materials developers to focus on such methods as a way of enhancing the textbooks.

KEYWORDS: Task-based language teaching, Explicit vocabulary instruction, Vocabulary learning, Second language acquisition

INTRODUCTION
Vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency providing much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read and write. Without an extensive vocabulary and strategies for acquiring new vocabulary, learners often achieve less than their potential and may be discouraged from pursuing language learning (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Wilkins argued that “without grammar, there are few things we can express; while without vocabulary, there is nothing we can express” (1976, p. 111). This clearly indicates the importance of vocabulary in communication.
Vocabulary has been found to be the most difficult part that language learners encounter in the process of language learning and their daily communications (Li-na, 2012). Knight (1994) believes that vocabulary is the single most important aspect of foreign language learning. Muscle (2006) stated that vocabulary refers to the words we must know to communicate effectively by listening, speaking, reading and writing. Read (2000) believes that words are units of meaning out of which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and texts are made. Vocabulary, thus, is the knowledge of words and word meanings. It is also accepted that people with large vocabulary pools are more successful readers than those with limited vocabulary.

There is no one right method for teaching a particular lesson, but there are some criteria that pertain to each and can help a teacher make the best decision possible (Nippold, 2004). According to National Reading Panel (2000) there are five methods in teaching vocabulary: Explicit vocabulary instruction, Implicit vocabulary instruction, Multimedia methods of vocabulary instruction (vocabulary is taught through a number of modalities such as semantic maps, graphic representations, hypertext, computer assisted instruction), Capacity methods of instruction (repeated exposure to words for automatic recognition and use such as flash cards and vocabulary drills) and Association methods of vocabulary instruction (students make connections by associating a new word with something they know such as the keyword method).

Two major directions towards vocabulary teaching and learning have been the cause of debate among vocabulary researchers: (1) Explicit instruction which involves diagnosing the words learners need to know, presenting the words for the first time, elaborating word knowledge and developing fluency with known words; and, (2) Incidental learning which is acquiring vocabulary through other communicative skills such as listening, reading, speaking and writing. According to Khansir, Mousavi Basri and Hajivandi (2013) incidental vocabulary learning is learning that occurs when the mind is focused elsewhere, such as on understanding a text or using language for communicative purposes.

**Explicit and task-based vocabulary learning**

Explicit instruction of vocabulary can be conducted through presenting the definition of new words before encountering them in reading. Teaching specific vocabulary before seeing them in a reading helps both learning the new words and reading comprehension. It is believed that explicit vocabulary instruction can increase students’ knowledge of words and help them to understand what they are hearing or reading. In addition, it helps them use words correctly in speaking and writing. Explicit vocabulary learning engages learners in activities that focus attention primarily on vocabulary (Ellis, 2003).

The approach of Task-based language teaching is considered to be a revolution in English language teaching in the late 20th century which has been developed based on the concept of tasks. Nowadays, the concept of tasks and task-based methodology is the common orthodoxy in the field of language teaching and it is becoming more and more important in English language teaching. According to Festco et al. (2005), learner-centered teaching methods facilitate learning. Task-based teaching method encourages the learner to do the task and so the learner plays a key role in the learning process. This method emphasizes meaningful learning through doing
completely learner-centered tasks and the task is considered as the basic unit of the syllabus design, curriculum development and teaching in the classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). As Yarmohammadi (2005) stated, in this method the learners would have the opportunity for analysis, problem solving, innovation, and critical and creative thinking. This approach is likely to provide learners with opportunities to connect old knowledge to other learning tasks in a communicative way (Ellis, 2003). Several key principles which can help teachers, however, still remain which can include points regarding ideas such as how to teach new vocabulary, use of facilitating images, use of a variety of techniques, providing a number for interactions/encounters with a word, encouraging independent learning strategies, and promoting a deep level of processing (Sokmen, 1997).

A wide range of studies in the literature have addressed the effects of task-based learning in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes (Fallahrafiei, 2015; Javanbakht & Yasuj, 2011; Sarani and Sahebi, 2012; Thanh & Huan, 2012; Vosoughi & Mehdipour, 2013). Studies have shown that tasks can be used in vocabulary classes to enhance learner motivation and vocabulary gain (Thanh & Huan, 2012). Teaching through tasks is an activity which involves the use of language but in which the focus is on the outcome of the activity rather than on the language used to achieve that outcome, providing favorable learning conditions for the students (Iranmehr, Erfani & Davari, 2011). Task-based language teaching offers a means to involve learners in primarily meaning-focused activities while taking the advantage of opportunities to focus learners’ attention, in an implicit manner, on formal aspects of language including its lexicon (Laufer, 2005). Nevertheless, not all tasks are equally effective in promoting vocabulary acquisition. In fact, classifying tasks in terms of their effectiveness regarding mental processes that involve vocabulary learning has been the major concern of many of studies (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Skehan, 1998).

Task-based language teaching focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. Such tasks can include visiting a doctor, conducting an interview or calling customer service for help. Assessment is primarily based on task outcome (in other words the appropriate completion of tasks) rather than on accuracy of language forms (grammar). This makes task-based language teaching especially popular for developing target vocabulary for language fluency and student confidence. In task-based language teaching, language is used to perform a task. Willis stated that “the focus is on providing communicative activities needed for English language learning, performing task via the target language and the use of English language in other ways for learning task” (1996, p. 88).

Pedagogically, a task, according to Breen (1987), Donato (2000), and Newton (2001) is any structured language learning endeavor which has a particular objective, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. A vocabulary-learning task is a range of work-plans which have the overall purposes of facilitating vocabulary development from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as simulations and decision-making endeavors.
Ellis (2003) noted five features that define a language learning task. First, a task is an activity in teaching and learning a language which requires learners to use the target language to achieve a particular purpose. Second, it focuses on meaningful activities or on the language form. Third, it involves language use in terms of communication, to allow learners opportunities to take part in meaningful interactions to complete a specific assignment. Fourth, it uses one or more language skills. Fifth, it involves learners in understanding the use of the target language.

It is not surprising that learners do not feel interested in learning new items and that they cannot retain the words and phrases with traditional methods. Even though they remember the meaning, it may be difficult to use the vocabulary in an appropriate situation. Therefore, it is worth examining other ways of teaching vocabulary and suggesting some strategies to improve learners’ vocabulary acquisition. Siyanova and Schmitt (2008) stress that teachers should make fundamental changes in their vocabulary teaching strategies by focusing on different strategies. As such, the present study was designed to investigate the effect of task based versus explicit vocabulary instruction on learning vocabulary as compared to the traditional formal course of language learning among Iranian EFL learners.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Vocabulary learning approaches
Researchers such as Nation (1990), Rubin and Thompson (1994) and Richel et al. (1996) suggest two main approaches in dealing with vocabulary acquisition, namely the direct and the indirect vocabulary learning approach. These approaches correspond to the intentional-incidental debate, which is also known as explicit-implicit vocabulary acquisition. “Direct” or “explicit” vocabulary learning encompasses conscious learning processes in which language learners acquire vocabulary explicitly, either in context or in isolation (Liangpanit, 2013). This is what Hulstijn perceives as intentional vocabulary acquisition which is “any activity geared at committing lexical information to memory” (2001, p. 271).

“Indirect” or “implicit” vocabulary learning, on the other hand, is concerned with the unconscious processes of learning through reading or listening without necessarily being aware of the goals of learning; new words are procured incidentally while reading extensively on your own or they are attained from listening to stories, movies, television or the radio (Liangpanit, 2013). This is in line with Hulstijn’s classification of incidental vocabulary acquisition, which is the “learning of vocabulary as the by-product of any activity not explicitly geared to vocabulary learning” (2001, p. 271). Thus, in this approach students absorb vocabulary simply from being exposed to rich language. Scholars concur that both approaches are a necessity in vocabulary acquisition (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997).

Implicit vocabulary learning
So far, many second language acquisition studies have been carried out concerning vocabulary learning/teaching approaches. For instance, Zimmerman (1997) mentions the following advantages of incidental vocabulary learning. (a) It is contextualized, giving the learner a rich sense of word use and meaning; (b) it is pedagogically efficient in that it yields two activities at
Among other factors, frequency of exposure to the new items is a determining factor in learning vocabulary. Rott (1999) studied the effect of frequency with which words occur in a reading text and the role of reading as an input resource in vocabulary acquisition. Her study examined whether intermediate learners incidentally acquire and retain unknown vocabulary by reading a text. She concluded that regarding productive vocabulary knowledge, only half of the participants showed a significant rate of retention, and on receptive knowledge, all but one experimental group retained vocabulary items over four weeks.

Explicit vocabulary learning

The Longman dictionary of Contemporary English defines the term explicit as being “expressed in a way that is very clear and direct” (2002, p. 549). In explicit vocabulary instruction, students are involved in activities where they directly learn the words. Hunt and Beglar (2005) stated that the goal of explicit vocabulary instruction is to direct the learner’s attention. To develop vocabulary intentionally, students should be explicitly taught both specific words and word learning strategies. Explicit learning is generally viewed as facilitative since it guarantees the chance of acquisition by directing one’s attention to it. According to Hulstijn (2003), intentional learning occurs when the learner is clearly informed that he will be tested at the end of an activity. DeKeyser (2003) defined it as a more explicit [overt] process whereby various mnemonics, heuristics and strategies are engaged to induce a representational system.

A way to help students develop vocabulary is by increasing word consciousness; it means an awareness and interest in words. Word consciousness is not an isolated component of vocabulary instruction; it needs to be taken into account each and every day (Diamond & Gultlohn, 2006). One way in which teachers can encourage acquisition of new vocabulary is by the use of pre-reading activities that show vocabulary in the text. Previewing can increase the salience of target vocabulary and ensure more repetition in terms of input and output (Zimmerman, 1997). In a study on Asian ESL learners, Wintergerst and DeCapua (2003) found that these students were better used to teacher-centered classrooms. As Ellis (1994) argued, any aspect of vocabulary learning having to do with meaning involve conscious explicit learning and added effort helps to achieve more learning. Ellis (1994) concluded that both implicit and explicit processes are important to vocabulary learning. Khamesipour (2015) found that both methods (explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction) are effective but the implicit vocabulary instruction is significantly more efficient.

Coady et al. (1993) investigated explicit instruction in high-frequency vocabulary and its effect on ESL reading comprehension. Participants were 42 students of diverse proficiency levels at a university. Twenty-two students were assigned to the experimental group and the rest to the control group. The study was carried out in two phases. In phase one, all students completed a 36-item multiple-choice vocabulary test. Both groups, then, underwent instruction. In addition to the common treatment, the experimental group used a computerized vocabulary learning program weekly over a period of two months. The program presented students with 20 new words each
session. After eight weeks, all participants completed the same vocabulary test that was used as the pretest. In the second phase, vocabulary items were randomly selected from the computer program. The results showed that in phase one, the experimental group experienced significantly greater gains in both reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. In phase two, the students significantly increased their reading comprehension and vocabulary scores. The majority of participants indicated that they enjoyed using the program and felt that it helped them to learn vocabulary and improve their reading comprehension. It was concluded that explicit learning of vocabulary is more beneficial and leads to longer retention as effective vocabulary needs to be automatic and easily retrievable from memory.

The current study defines explicit learning as follows: (a) learners focus their attention directly on the information to be learned; (b) conscious operations on the part of learners are involved in the learning process; (c) learners are aware of the process of learning; (d) learners are aware of the information to be learned; (e) learners are aware of the resulting knowledge from the learning process; and, (f) learners might exploit analytic strategies such as hypothesis formation to learn the knowledge.

**Task-based instruction**

Mastery of vocabulary is an essential component of second and foreign language acquisition and effective second and foreign language vocabulary learning proves important to English language learners (Hunt & Beglar, 2005). That is why language teachers and researchers have realized the significance of different pedagogical tasks in second and foreign language vocabulary learning that involves learning of a great load of lexicon. The problem to address is to determine a suitable strategy or technique to fulfill vocabulary learning. A learning strategy (technique) covers a series of activities and efforts one follows, which consequently completes a successful learning task. Vocabulary learning strategies have so far been studied as a subcategory of language learning strategies. Meanwhile, they are applicable to a wide variety of language learning tasks which include task-based vocabulary instruction for instance, the core issue of the present study.

Fuente (2006), studied the effects of three vocabulary learning methods (two task-centered and one traditional). Overall, the task-centered lessons were found to be more effective than the traditional lessons. The findings also suggest that the efficacy of the task-centered lessons varies due to the manner in which the modules were utilized. Moreover, the research concluded that the focus on form module was more expedient if placed at the end of the lesson rather than the start.

Khansir, Mousavi Basri and Hajivandi (2013) investigated the effects of three kinds of tasks including reading comprehension, reading comprehension with fill-in gaps and sentence writing on Iranian students’ vocabulary learning. The findings revealed the significant impact of task involvement on the incidental learning of vocabulary by EFL learners. Vosoughi and Mehdipour (2013) examined the effects of recognition tasks and production tasks on incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners. The results indicated that both treatments had a significant effect on incidental vocabulary learning.
Sarani and Sahebi (2012) investigated vocabulary learning in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses within the paradigm of task-based language teaching among Persian literature students. The results showed that ESP learners who were taught vocabulary through task-based language teaching outperformed those learners who were taught vocabulary through the traditional approach. Javanbakht and Yasuj (2011) explored incidental vocabulary learning through three kinds of tasks (reading comprehension, reading comprehension with fill-in gaps, and sentence writing) among male elementary EFL learners. The results showed evidence of the significant impact of task involvement on the incidental learning of vocabulary by male elementary EFL learners.

**Purpose and questions of the study**
Teaching and learning vocabulary has not always been an interesting work especially in classes where the teacher uses techniques such as memorization, repetition, translation and so on. There has been, therefore, a great number of different approaches to language learning, each with a different outlook on vocabulary (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). While vocabulary knowledge is central to language learning (Zimmerman, 1997), in many EFL classes, teachers still tend to allocate more time to grammar. Moreover, teachers leave students on their own to develop their vocabulary knowledge without giving them enough explicit instruction.

Most EFL students in Iran are well aware of the importance of vocabulary in studying a foreign language. Still, EFL courses in Iran at university level, despite new methods and approaches having already been introduced, make use of traditional vocabulary teaching methods; teachers focus on the translation and there is no real interaction among students. Therefore, the present study aimed to determine whether the task-based and explicit learning approaches could be effective regarding vocabulary development among EFL students or not. In other words, the main purpose of this study was to examine the effect of task-based versus explicit vocabulary instruction as compared to a traditional method on vocabulary development among Iranian EFL learners. Based on the purpose of this study, two questions were formed:

1. Does using task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction significantly improve vocabulary learning of EFL students?
2. Is there any significant difference between task-based, explicit and traditional instruction for vocabulary development of EFL students?

**METHODOLOGY**
A quasi experimental design was used in this study. Students were given a pre-test before the treatment and then the same pretest was administered as a posttest (only the item-order was changed). This design helped investigate the effect of task-based vocabulary instruction versus explicit vocabulary instruction among Iranian EFL students as compared to a control group too. Participants were assigned to three groups in order to examine the differences in learning vocabulary through task-based and explicit vocabulary teaching methods (experimental groups) and those who received traditional instruction for vocabulary teaching (control group).
Participants
Initially, 100 male and female EFL students (age = 20-25) from the English language department of Sistan and Baluchistan University were chosen to participate. Based on the Nelson proficiency test (2016), 75 participants who were at the same level of language proficiency were selected. The participants were divided into two experimental groups (25 students per group) - who were taught through task-based and explicit vocabulary teaching method - and a control group who received traditional instruction for vocabulary learning. The participants’ mother tongue was Persian and their participation was voluntarily. Stratified random sampling was used in dividing the participants into the three groups.

Instruments
Nelson proficiency test
This test was used to measure the participants’ proficiency in English. The test, which consisted of 60 items, was found to be reliable (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.83$). It was administered to the total 100 participants in order to select homogenous students. Based on the results, 75 students whose scores were one Std. deviation ($SD = 6.40$) above and below the mean ($M = 26.30$) were selected as homogeneous participants for this study.

Vocabulary test
Two vocabulary tests developed by the researcher were used as the pre- and post-test. The items were mainly selected from the book Reading Skillfully (2) by Mirhassani and Rahmani (2010) which were to be covered during the course in all groups. They were designed to test the students’ knowledge of the vocabulary items they were taught. The test materials consisted of 100 multiple choice (A-D) questions. Scores on this test could range from 0-100.

The test-retest reliability was used to determine the internal consistency of the test in a pilot study. The test was administered to 25 students and after five weeks, it was re-administered to the same group. The reliability estimate of the pilot study was calculated to be 0.75 (Cronbach’s $\alpha$). In order to observe content validity, two experts in English were contacted to examine the test and the content it was based on. The instrument was restructured in line with their suggestions.

Procedures
The study followed these procedures. Firstly, students from different English language departments of Sistan and Baluchistan University were invited to participate in the study. Next, the Nelson Proficiency Test was administered to select a homogeneous group of participants. Accordingly, the participants were randomly labeled into the three groups (two experimental and a control group, namely, the task-based, explicit and the traditional group). Thirdly, the vocabulary test was administered as the pre-test.

Fourthly, participants were enrolled in a course of seven sessions for this study to receive their respective treatments (one hour and a half, once a week). Groups engaged in this study were instructed by the same teacher. During the whole course, 100 words from Reading Skillfully (2) (Mirhassani & Rahmani, 2010), each session 15 terms (except last session that included 10 words), were taught through different treatments for each group. The task-based group received
treatment based on sentence writing tasks in each session, the explicit treatment group received treatment based on explicit teaching method in which students received definitions of new vocabulary items before reading the texts; and, the control group underwent the traditional treatment of vocabulary teaching that only used translation and memorization. After seven sessions, the vocabulary post-test was administered.

Data Analysis
The research questions were posed to determine the differences among three variables of task-based, explicit and traditional vocabulary instruction among EFL learners. In order to analyze the pre- and post-test, the data were tabularized through SPSS (v. 19). Paired-samples t tests and one-way analysis of variance were conducted to analyze the data in terms of vocabulary development within and between the groups. Paired-samples t-tests analyzed the performance of one group before and after the experiment and one-way ANOVA was used to see if there were any differences between the experimental groups and the control group.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Preliminary analysis
Before getting into the results, the data was checked for normality issues. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were used to check normal distribution. Table 1 shows the output for Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk tests. As the normality tests show, the pre- and post-test scores showed normal distribution.

Table 1: Tests of normality for pre- and post-test scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Results
Since the scores showed normal distribution (Table 1), a series of parametric tests were employed to answer the research questions. Paired samples t-tests were used to compare the mean values of the pre- and post-test scores for all groups (within-groups comparison). An ANOVA procedure was used to compare the vocabulary achievement of the three groups against one another (between-groups comparison).

Within-groups analyses (the first question)
Paired-samples t tests were used to compare the pre- and post-test scores for all groups separately. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the pre- and post-tests scores for all group. As shown, mean values for the post-tests were higher. According to the table, there seems to be an increase in mean scores from pre- to post-test regarding all groups. Whether these differences reached significance or not is investigated next.
Table 2: Descriptive statistics for the three groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task-based group</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>45.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>45.92</td>
<td>2.581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>64.04</td>
<td>2.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit group</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>46.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>46.52</td>
<td>2.859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>65.48</td>
<td>2.845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control group</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>50.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>50.92</td>
<td>2.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>50.92</td>
<td>2.768</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first question asked if using task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction could significantly improve vocabulary learning of EFL students. In other words, whether there was a difference between the means for pre- and post-test scores. To determine whether the difference in mean scores reached statistical significance or not, paired samples t-tests were used. The results of which are shown in Table 3. As it can be seen, there was a statistically significant difference between the task-based group’s pre-test and post-test scores ($p = .000$). Checking the t-value ($t = -37.696$) shows that throughout the treatment, this group improved in terms of vocabulary development. To answer the first question of the study regarding the task-based group, it can be concluded that this treatment showed a significant improvement. The effect size statistic (eta squared) calculated for this group was .98 which indicates a large effect based on Cohen’s guidelines (1988).

Next, we look at the same analysis for the explicit-instruction group shown in Table 3. The explicit group received treatment based on a teaching method where vocabulary was taught explicitly; students received definitions of new vocabulary items before reading the texts. The pre- and post-test scores for this group too were analyzed to check for any differences. As it can be seen, there was a statistically significant difference ($p = .000$) between pre- and post-test scores regarding the explicit-instruction group. To answer the first question, then, it can be said that the treatment resulted in significant vocabulary development for the participants ($t = -53.641$). The effect size statistic (eta squared = .99) calculated for this group indicated a large effect based on Cohen’s guidelines (1988). Finally, the first question did not ask for a within-groups comparison for the control group, and therefore, this analysis was not run for the control group.

Table 3: Within groups analyses to check vocabulary development over time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task-based group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>-.1812</td>
<td>2.403</td>
<td>.481</td>
<td>-19.112</td>
<td>-17.128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.353</td>
<td>-19.690</td>
<td>-18.230</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>-.18960</td>
<td>1.767</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Between-groups analysis (the second question)
The second question of the study asked if there is any significant difference between task-based, explicit, and traditional instruction among EFL students in terms of vocabulary development. In order to examine the difference(s) between the three groups in terms of their vocabulary level
after the treatments, scores on the vocabulary post-test were compared. The descriptive data are presented in the Table 4.

**Table 4: Descriptive statistics of post-tests for the three groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control group</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>50.92</td>
<td>2.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit group</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>65.48</td>
<td>2.845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task-based group</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>64.04</td>
<td>2.508</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A one-way ANOVA test was used to see if the difference between the three means was statistically significant. Table 5 shows the result of the ANOVA procedure. As shown, there were significant differences between the groups \((p = .000)\) in their vocabulary level after they received different vocabulary instructions. The effect size statistic (eta squared = .84) calculated for this analysis was large based on Cohen’s (1988) guidelines.

**Table 5: ANOVA test run on the post-tests scores to examine between groups differences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>3150.427</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1575.213</td>
<td>192.386</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>589.520</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>8.188</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3739.947</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To clarify where this difference was located, post-hoc Tukey tests were requested (Table 6). As Table 6 shows, there was a significant difference in post-tests between the control group and the explicit group \((p = .000)\). The control group showed a significant difference with the task-based group as well \((p = .000)\). There was not a significant difference in post-tests between the explicit and task-based groups \((p = 0.074)\).

**Table 6: Post-hoc multiple comparisons test between the three groups (post-tests scores)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) group</th>
<th>(J) group</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>explicit</td>
<td>-14.560*</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-16.50 to -12.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>task-based</td>
<td>-12.760*</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-14.70 to -10.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>14.560*</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>12.62 to 16.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>task-based</td>
<td>1.800</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>-1.14 to 3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task-based</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>12.760*</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>10.82 to 14.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>explicit</td>
<td>-1.800</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>-3.74 to 1.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

**Discussion**

*The first question*

The first question asked if using task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction could significantly improve vocabulary learning of EFL learners. The study provided evidence that both these methods resulted in significant gains in vocabulary knowledge. EFL students need a large vocabulary pool to be effective; the use of different kinds of activities might increase the
interest and motivation of EFL students to learn new words better. Empirical studies targeting such a diversity of factors involved in L2 task motivation are still lacking. Richards and Rogers (2001) assert that task activity and task achievement, as a characteristic of task-based instruction, are motivational. Brown (2000) stated “it is easy to assume that success in any task is due simply to the fact that someone is motivated” (p. 160).

Effectiveness of task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction as found in the present study agrees with the findings of Thanh and Huan (2012) who examined the effects of task-based language learning on motivating non-English majors to acquire vocabulary. They concluded that the participants were motivated to learn vocabulary and their vocabulary achievement improved after the experiment.

Also, the findings of this study confirm the findings of Sarani and Sahebi (2012) who investigated the teaching of vocabulary in ESP courses within the paradigm of task-based language teaching. Their results showed that ESP learners who were taught vocabulary through task-based language teaching outperformed those learners who were taught vocabulary through a traditional approach. Furthermore, the results of this study were in line with finding of Javanbakht and Yasuj (2011) who studied incidental vocabulary learning through three kinds of tasks (reading comprehension, reading comprehension with fill-in gaps, and sentence writing). Their results showed evidence of the significant impact of task involvement on incidental vocabulary learning. Lastly, the finding of this study are in line with the findings of Coady et al. (1993) that found explicit learning of vocabulary to be more beneficial and lead to longer retention.

The second question
The second question of this study checked to see if there are any significant differences between task-based and explicit instruction in EFL students’ vocabulary development as compared to a traditional method. It was found that task-based and explicit vocabulary instructions resulted in significantly higher gains in vocabulary knowledge as compared to the control group. There were no significant differences between the two experimental groups (i.e., task-based and explicit groups) themselves in terms of vocabulary gain. The findings substantiated the impact of task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction on vocabulary development. The two approaches provided increased opportunities for exposing students to foreign language vocabulary knowledge in meaningful situations. They seem to be, thus, authentic approaches toward vocabulary development. Their positive impact on test results indicated that by attaching words to the context and practical resource materials, the likelihood of comprehension and retention is increased (Schmitt, 2000).

Task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction are direct and meaning-centered methods; such meaningfulness in task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction provides an authentic, purposeful and intentional background for comprehending and using language and it is encouraging for the EFL learners. But in the traditional method, the focus is on translation and memorization of new vocabulary items and students are not concerned with the context in which these items are used.
A feature that can be referred to as an important reason for the observed results is the collaborative and interactive nature of the task-based and explicit approaches to vocabulary learning where language use and language learning take place simultaneously. Their cooperative nature can help students get feedback from the members of a task group in addition to the teacher. In the traditional group, however, students work individually on the exercises, so the only authority would be the teacher. It can be claimed, therefore, that existence of such feedback provides a more relaxed and less threatening environment for learning a foreign language.

The results regarding the effectiveness of task-based and explicit vocabulary teaching were in line with the findings of Javanbakht and Yasuj (2011), Sarani and Sahebi (2012), Thanh and Huan (2012) and Vosoughi and Mehdipour (2013). These studies revealed the significant impact of task involvement on EFL students’ vocabulary learning. The findings of this study strengthen the findings of Khansir et al. (2013) that revealed the significant impact of task involvement on incidental vocabulary learning. Also, this finding was in line with the findings of Ellis (1994) who concluded that both implicit and explicit processes are involved in vocabulary learning.

CONCLUSION
The study aimed to investigate the impact of task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction on EFL students’ vocabulary development as compared to a traditional method. EFL students who underwent vocabulary instruction through the task-based and explicit methods outperformed those who were instructed through the traditional approach. Therefore, the traditional approach was found to be less effective. It could be concluded that when students are taught vocabulary using task-based and explicit instruction, they will learn better, grasp words with more ease and use these words in appropriate contexts.

The present study has provided further empirical evidence for the value of task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction to foreign language learning. It revealed that learner-learner interaction while performing tasks can provide opportunities for the learners to talk about vocabulary items and monitor the language they used. Explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction are meaning-centered methods and provide an authentic and purposeful background for comprehending and using language. The traditional method, however, focused on translation and memorization of new items without engaging the students with the actual contexts in which they are used. It seems, thus, that task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction have the potential to bring about large vocabulary gains.

Implications and limitations of the study
The main findings of this study indicated that EFL students who underwent task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction were more successful in vocabulary development as compared to the control group. English language teachers should employ a variety of teaching approaches like task-based and explicit vocabulary instruction in order to enhance students’ interest. Application of such methods could make teaching/learning more of a student-centered activity and thus reduce over-dependence on the use of traditional lecture-based methods. Lastly, the findings of this study may encourage materials developers to start employing such methods in their practice.
This research had a number of limitations including gender differences and age limitations. Because the participants were students within a certain age range, the possible effect of age and gender were ignored. Other variables such as habits, student motivation, personal exposure to other language learning environments and the influence of over reliance on the L1 or L2 during the period of this research were not controlled for. Moreover, vocabulary development could not be simply reflected in one vocabulary learning task. Factors such as familiarity/unfamiliarity with the topics, peer influence, task difficulty, etc. all could potentially effect the results. Other limitations of this study included the time and resource constraints which did not allow the researcher to obtain more data. This forced the researcher to use convenience sampling.

**Suggestions for future research**

This study was carried out with both males and females; other studies can be conducted with male and female participants in separate groups to examine genders differences as well. Task-based and explicit instruction could be implemented in areas other than vocabulary development. Moreover, a study to compare the productive versus receptive vocabulary of the students will be of great benefit. Future research conducted in this field could focus on more longitudinal designs in order to examine long-term retention as well.

**REFERENCES**


