EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION OF COGNITIVE STRATEGIES: THE CASE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT
This study attempted at providing a strategy-based way of teaching listening in Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) classes because a dichotomy between teaching listening and testing this skill was blurred in English classes. The study aimed at finding whether strategy-based listening instruction significantly affects EFL learners' listening comprehension achievement. To this end, two groups of Iranian EFL learners were selected based on availability sampling procedure in Aryanpour Language Institute in Tehran, Iran. They were instructed in the form of experimental (N=30) and control (M=30) groups to conduct the research to see if students listening proficiency will improve after teaching cognitive strategies explicitly. There were thirty upper-intermediate students in each group. Results from groups' pretest and posttest were analyzed through independent sample t-test. Findings of the study revealed that strategy-based listening instruction significantly had positive affect on EFL learners listening comprehension.

KEYWORDS: Cognitive strategies; Explicit instruction of strategies; Learning strategies; Strategy-based instruction; Strategy use

INTRODUCTION
According to Mendelsohn (2006:75), “much of what is traditionally misnamed listening should in fact be called testing listening. The distinction that is being made is that when you teach, by definition, you teach the learner of anything how to do something, whether it is planning a piece of wood, driving a car, developing a roll of film, or learning to listen. On the other hand, when you test a learner, you do not show them how to do it but rather, simply have them do it”.

In the other place, Mendelssohn (2006) claims ironically that in second language classes teachers ask learners to listen and answer to some questions related to the audio or video (generally listening parts) they listened. This happens while there is no instruction from teacher to teach how to go about it and how to comprehend it. Listening and then answering to some related questions is just a form of a substantial amount of listening and somehow practicing listening. In
fact, there was and there is no attempt at training learners the ways of getting at the meaning.

Sheerin (1986) also clarifies the difference between teaching and testing listening comprehension. She states that listening comprehension lessons are just like listening tests. For testing listening, teachers play tapes and then some exercises like answering questions, checking pictures, filling blanks and other kinds are attempted by the learners, after that a feedback is given in the form of the 'right' answer. She added that, the way listening comprehension is tested is the same as the way it is taught. She also proposed some ways to teach listening rather than testing.

Griffths and Oxford (2014:3) referred to some researchers such as Chamot (2004) and Oxford (1989) and argued that "even if it is partly successful, strategy instruction is an important part of the language teacher's role. A corollary to this argument is that it is both possible and necessary to continue identifying success factors within any type of strategy instruction."

Moreover, Mangubhai and Lal (2000) contended that introducing different strategies to learners is upon language teachers. Therefore, teachers can make learning language more effective for language learners by teaching language strategies for them. Also teachers can provide different opportunities to help the learners use and practice those strategies consciously.

Four tips were introduced by Richards and Burns (2012) to improve effective listening strategies through pondering on the nature and use of strategies (meta-cognitive strategies) and by establishing ways of adapting with the content of listening texts (cognitive strategies):

Help learners to compare effective and ineffective strategies: learners can be asked which strategies they use to understand the recording because some strategies will be more effective than others. Therefore learners can be made aware of them. Different studies show that listeners listen in different ways. Some of the listeners think that they should not miss even one word of the listening part, thus this makes them frustrated. Learners should be aware of language strategies to be successful; therefore, learning strategies are suggested to be taught. Some theorists (like, O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, cited in Richards and Burns, 2012) believe that strategies should be taught explicitly and directly to make learners aware of their strategy use toward learning. Strategies should be modeled for learners, practiced, and evaluated. These are some hints that a teacher should know. Teachers are required to know appropriate strategies for different kinds of listening tasks and activities. Teachers must consider learners' proficiency level and help them to identify effective listening strategies. These are some things that teachers can do.

Teach students how to use meta-cognitive strategies: thinking about the processes of learning is called meta-cognition. There are different ways that a learner can think about their listening comprehension processes and applying useful meta-cognitive strategies can make learners proficient. Meta-cognitive strategies involve three steps of planning, monitoring and evaluating in listening. Listeners can plan for a listening activity, and control his or her performance during a listening activity then evaluate how she or he carried out the listening task or activity. Teacher
does not need to use such a term (meta-cognitive) to discuss the strategies. Listeners can be taught to use these strategies to improve their learning and listening comprehension.

Teach students how to use cognitive strategies: these strategies can assist learners to cope with the nature and content of a particular task or text. For example, if learners cannot understand the listening part, it may be due to not knowing much about the topic. Demands of listening tasks first should be recognized and then listeners should be provided to deal with the demands of the text in every phase of listening (before and after listening).

Model strategy use and give students regular practice in using strategies: there are two steps in using strategies. First one is upon teacher to instruct and clarify different kinds of strategies to listeners or learners. The second one is to prepare frequent chances for learners to practice those strategies. Effective listeners are active ones and think about the processes of listening and listen to get whatever they wanted to hear. Learning strategies assist learners to be more self-controlled, goal-directedness and autonomous. Practical examples and demonstrations can help learner the notion of strategies which is abstract and difficult to understand. What teachers can do is to encourage learners to discuss in pairs and groups and share listening strategies and also teachers can show the practical benefits of strategy use in language learning.

Brown (2001) provided some other ways to teach listening. He believes that strategies can be taught:

Teach strategies through interactive techniques: technique and strategy are different. Strategies can be practiced and prompted through techniques. Brown clarified the distinction by giving an example from Oxford (1990). Teacher can ask listeners to listen to a conversation and then fill in the grids of information in groups (to find and write the names, profession, address, age and appearance of the speakers in grids with blank). This task is called information gab listening technique and also includes direct strategies such as guessing, practicing naturalistically, learner interaction and taking note.

Use compensatory techniques: these are some techniques that are provided for the purpose of compensating style weaknesses and overcoming learners' problems. Here are some style problems and techniques to solve them:

="Low tolerance of ambiguity: brainstorming, retelling stories, role-play, paraphrasing, finding synonyms, jigsaw techniques, skimming tasks
_Excessive impulsiveness: making inferences, syntactic or semantic clue searches, scanning for specific information, inductive rule generalization
_Excessive reflectiveness/caution: small group techniques, role-play, brainstorming, fluency techniques
_Too much right-brain dominance: syntactic or semantic clue searches, scanning for specific information, proofreading, categorizing and clustering activities, information-gap techniques
_Too much left-brain dominance: integrative language techniques, fluency techniques, retelling stories, skimming tasks" (Brown, 2001, P. 219).
Administer a strategy inventory: a list of strategies for language learning can be introduced to learners according to their learning styles and learning preferences which are identified through using "a self-check list and formal style tests in the class" (Brown, 2001, P. 219). "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)" promotes learners' strategy awareness and can be applied as an instrument in the class to assist language learners to learn successfully (Brown, 2001).

Make use of impromptu teacher-initiated advice: "learners can benefit greatly from teachers' daily attention to the many little tricks of the trade that teacher can pass on to them" (Brown, 2001, P. 219).

White (2006) provided the goals for teaching as well as learning listening skill and strategies as follows:
- "understanding short utterances on a literal semantic level involving knowledge of phonology, stress, intonation, spoken vocabulary, and spoken syntax.
- understanding longer or interactive discourse involving knowledge of discourse features such as markers, cohesion and schemata.
- understanding the function/illocutionary force of an utterance.
- Interpreting utterances in terms of the context/situation involving knowing how different socio-linguistic groups use language, so involves knowledge of dialects, cultural references, degrees of formality, power relations and so on.
- solving comprehension problems by seeking help from the speaker.
- remembering input, monitoring and evaluating how well one is understanding" (p. 127).

THE PRESENT STUDY
The purpose of this study is to help teachers understand the process of listening, the role of strategies, especially cognitive ones, in listening comprehension development, clarify the difference between teaching and testing listening then how to teach listening in an effective way. The study focuses on teaching listening which can motivate and assist learners to improve listening skill in language classes. There are different strategies which were proposed by different researchers and linguists to provide a condition for EFL learners to experiment with different approaches to use while listening. Among all, cognitive strategies and the use of them in teaching language and then in learning how to listen are followed and investigated in this study to see their impact on second language learners' listening comprehension achievement.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
RQ: Does strategy-based listening instruction significantly improve Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension achievement?
Due to controversies in literature, a null hypothesis was accordingly proposed for it.
METHODOLOGY
Every study has its own limitations which the researcher is forced to surrender to them. In the case of this work, limitations were as follows:

Because of the lack of time and resources, the researcher could not go to other cities in Iran besides Tehran, observe the classes in these cities, and give them the research treatment.

Due to subject availability problems, the researcher had to choose the experimental group participants from the institute where she teaches (Aryanpour Language Institute in Tehran).

Ideally speaking, such research projects should be over an extensive time. However, the researcher had to implement the research over only one term. Research was delimited in two ways:

1: Participants of the study were all chosen from the upper-intermediate level;
2: All participants of the study in both control and experimental groups were female.

Participants
This study applied accidental or availability sampling which refers to a sampling strategy where the researcher selects whoever is available and willing to participate in the study (Farhadi, 2007). Consequently, participants were selected non-randomly. 60 female upper-intermediate English language learners were chosen. They were between 16-25 years old. Their native language was Persian. 30 of them were assigned to experimental and 30 to control group. Individuals of experimental group had enrolled in fall term lasting for two months in Aryanpour Language Institute in Tehran. Actually, the experimental group members were among researcher's students in the institute. They attended the classes two times a week (Sundays & Tuesdays) and 45 minutes of every session were allocated to teaching listening and presenting the treatment.

Members of control group had also registered in the same institute but attended the classes on even days and were instructed by a friend of the researcher. The researcher had made sure that in the control group there was no strategy instruction for listening skill.

Instruments and Materials
Interview
To admit the researcher's claim based on testing listening skill in place of teaching it in Iranian EFL classes, researcher designed a structured interview protocol (appendix A). There were four questions in the one to one interview protocol. 20 teachers (each about 20 minutes) were interviewed informally in different suburban language institutes of Tehran by the researcher and her assistant. Interview took the researcher about two weeks to be conducted. Teachers' experience range was from 4 to 19 years of EFL teaching. Their academic background and field of education was diverse but mostly EFL teaching. Most of them graduated from university and were qualified teachers in intermediate, upper-intermediate and advance levels. Interviewees' words were written in the interview protocol sentence by sentence and were tabulated by the researcher (appendix B).

Pretest
Before giving the experimental treatment, pretest was administered to both experimental and control groups to see if the groups were equal or homogeneous because researcher wanted to know whether the difference existed, if there was any difference, between two groups after giving
treatment was due to the treatment not other extraneous factors. Listening diagnostic paper pretest was chosen as this study pretest from Debora Philips's book (2001), Longman Complete Course for the TOEFL Test. Pretest validity and reliability has been already established. This book has been written to prepare learners for the TOEFL tests and includes the computer and paper format tests of TOEFL for four skills. Lack of facilities in the institutes made researcher select the paper format. Philips's listening comprehension or diagnostic pretest demonstrated the learners' level of listening proficiency or ability to understand spoken language.

There are three levels (A, B and C) of the test. Level of difficulty increases from part A to C. Based on the research purpose and research participants' level, part A was chosen to administer. Part A included 30 listening comprehension test items about short conversations. Test was given under the time pressure of the actual test which Philips determined, i.e. it too approximately 35 minutes. Each correct answer was given one score. The total score was 30.

Posttest
Posttest was given to both experimental and control groups. Posttest determines the degree of changes in dependent variable, in comparison with the pretest. Because the purpose was to measure the learners listening comprehension achievement, the study posttest was the achievement type. Since the material has been taught during the study was the Expanding level of Tactics for Listening by Richards, the achievement posttest was a pre-established valid and reliable test from the teacher's book of Tactics for Listening by Richards, 2003. The tests included in this book were designed for midterm and final evaluation of students' mastery. Midterm test was chosen because first twelve units of the student's book were covered during the study. Test was composed of four listening comprehension question parts. The test total score was 100. The time allocated for the test was 10 minutes.

A list of listening cognitive strategies
The list of listening cognitive strategies was provided by Vandergrift (1997, reproduced by permission of ACTFL and mentioned in Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). Topic of the research was narrowed down from learning strategies to listening cognitive strategies and the impact of their instruction on listening comprehension achievement; therefore, just the cognitive strategies were presented to experimental group as the study treatment. Refer to appendix C to see the list.

Tactics for Listening (Richards, 2003)
This book was used as part of supplementary teaching materials for experimental group during the study. Based on the characteristics of the book that matched with the purpose of the study, researcher concluded that the best material to practice the listening strategies was this popular textbook since it provides chapters which are thematically based and focus on different sub-skills of listening.

Procedure
First, both experimental and control groups were pretested to see if they were homogeneous in listening comprehension. Tests were scored according to the test scoring criterion. The results showed that they were not significantly different in terms of proficiency level. Second, researcher
started to give the treatment. A list of cognitive strategies along with their pedagogical implications was selected as the study treatment. To give a whole picture of learning strategies, teacher gave a copy of the list of listening strategies to each participant in the experimental group. After two sessions, Tactics for Listening (Richards, 2003) as the teaching material came along. In each part of the book, useful related strategies were chosen to practice. There was no cognitive strategy instruction, and treatment in the control group. They practiced the listening parts of Tactics for Listening book in a traditional way, i.e. listening was tested rather than taught. Third, the posttest was administered. Test papers were rated by the researcher according to the test scoring rules.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
As it mentioned before, the listening section of a sample paper and pencil TOEFL test was given to both control and experimental groups as a pretest in order to check the homogeneity of their listening proficiency. Tables 1 and 2 below show the descriptive and inferential statistics of two groups' scores on listening pretest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Independent T-test Comparing Results of Pre-test between Experimental and Control Groups</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Experi.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cont.</td>
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<th>Table 2: Independent Samples Test</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene's Test for Equality of variances</td>
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<td>--------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>F</td>
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<td>----</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

As the results of table 1 illustrate, the mean scores of two groups are very close to each other (58.8889, and 59.8890). As the P-value (.67) is bigger than the standard error (0.05), therefore, groups could be called homogeneous and there was no meaningful difference between the groups.

In order to test the proposed hypothesis another independent t-test was implemented on the post-test results for the control and experimental groups.
Table 3: Independent T-test for Comparing Results of Post-test between Experimental and Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exp.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>83.9667</td>
<td>8.01070</td>
<td>1.46255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cont.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>72.2000</td>
<td>7.35504</td>
<td>1.34284</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equal variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>equal variances assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of this analysis indicated that the P-value (.000) is bigger than the standard error (0.05), and it indicated that there is a significant difference between the control groups' performance in the posttest and pretest. Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Discussion**

The results of this study supported a number of other findings and claims of researchers in the field which are presented next.

As Cohen and Weaver (1998) mentioned learning strategies help learners to be more autonomous and self-directed to direct the process of their learning and to recognize the strength and weaknesses of their own learning. The main discussion is the explicit strategy instruction and its effect on second or foreign language listening comprehension. In accord with Vandergrift's claims (2011, cited in Aponte-de-Hanna, 2012) it is believed that not only listening skill is the most used skill in both real situation and language class, but listening ability can have an important role in developing other language skills. To achieve this goal, teachers can increase strategy knowledge of listeners.

In this study, experimental group outperformed control group. This difference between pretest and posttest of experimental group showed that strategy instruction (treatment of the study) had a positive impact on listening comprehension achievement (dependent variable). In contrast, there was not any significant difference between pretest and posttest of control group because there was no treatment (strategy instruction) in this group.
There are different Iranian scholars who conducted experimental researches investigating the effect of the instruction of learning strategies, in general, and teaching metacognitive strategies, in particular, on listening comprehension achievement such as Rasouli, Mollakhan, Karbalaei, (2013), and Hariri (2014). Although cognitive strategies influence on listening comprehension was not investigated, the overall attention of the studies was on strategy instruction and its influence on language learning improvement, in general and listening comprehension achievement in particular. Moreover, they concluded that teaching learning strategies has positive effect on listening comprehension achievement.

It is claimed that listening skill is of paramount importance among other skills. However, it is difficult to acquire and on the other hand is the least researched one. Although this research tried to find the direction of listening strategy instruction influence, some other issues can be considered into account during developing strategies.

As the place of listening skill and teaching it in second language learning was investigated, it became clear that at first listening skill was ignored and focus was on the reading and translation. By the development in linguistics researchers found that listening strategy is the most essential and necessary skill to learn a second language. They believed that to communicate with others, first comprehension is required. Without understanding spoken language, communication is not possible.

It was believed that by understanding grammar rules and the principles of putting words beside each other, parsing, listener can understand the spoken language, i.e. purely bottom-up processing model. An example of the activities is a text with some missing words in the blank spaces which should be filled up by students after listening to the spoken text. Consequently, listening exercises were more like a test of the listening skill not a means of improving it. Moreover, cognitive perspective of listening process may help instructors to design strategy-based lessons by which learners' autonomy can be raised. There was a shift from Krashen’s(1981) theory of second language learning in which teachers used to provide comprehensible input for listening and then ask the listeners to answer a set of questions to answer them after listening. This can be assumed as testing listening rather than teaching it. Certainly, second language learners are looking for a way to improve their listening ability. To achieve this goal, learning second language was viewed from the cognitive learning theory. Cognitive learning theory empowers the learners since it teaches them how to distinguish between sounds, recognize and sentence structures, "interpret stress and intonation, retain and interpret this within the immediate as well as the larger socio-cultural context of the utterance" (Wipf, 1984: 345). Cognitive view of learning also provides the tool to design and implement lessons for listening in classroom to develop practicing listening instead of testing (Mendelsohn, 2006).

In accord with Rosts'(2006) claim, the process of listening comprehension does not involve either top-down or bottom-up. Both process models should interact to perform listening task. When to use or how to use each depends on listeners' knowledge of language and the predetermined purpose of the listening. Researches concerning cognitive psychology have indicated that listening comprehension is not merely getting meaning from incoming speech, but also it is a
process of matching speech with the topic. Therefore, if listeners know the topic and the context of spoken text, the comprehension process may be facilitated since listeners can activate their schemata or prior knowledge and make related inferences which can be important for message comprehension. Cognitive strategies and being aware of them can help learners to practice this strategy for facilitating listening comprehension. Teacher is the person responsible for activating schemata, helping listeners to make predictions (that is one of the strategies among cognitive ones) or guess from the context of listening and prepare them for listening. Except for the context and using it to get the meaning of listening task, having a purpose for listening is the other issue to be taken into account. Both utilizing context and purposeful listening are two components of cognitive strategies. Listening to and understanding every word of the spoken task or text is not possible. Therefore, second or foreign language listeners should listen selectively. Having a purpose before listening task can determine listening type and way of handling task.

Despite the fact that it was considered that like a child, listening skill can be improved by great exposure to spoken language and different listening recordings and the cognitive theory of language learning is ignorable the realities on the ground indicate otherwise. Learning listening skill through practicing can be time-consuming for language learners who have different purposes and time limitation to accomplish learning a second language. Thus, it was the actual time for researchers to investigate students' personality characteristics, learning and cognitive styles, and the particular strategies used by effective vs. ineffective learners and offer second and foreign language learners a convenient, quick and conscious way of learning how to listen. Real life and authentic listening was combined into communicative approach and then learner-strategy approach tried to make learners independent to make their own language learning decisions and to try and choose specific strategies according to their own needs, wants and characteristics.

This complex skill needs to be developed consciously. Researcher established a situation for learners of the study to learn learning strategies consciously to select the specific one among all to overcome particular listening comprehension task. In addition, the process of learning listening skill can be facilitated greatly through strategy use.

CONCLUSION

The concluding remarks as well as pedagogical implications for teaching and learning, and suggestions for further research concludes this article.

"Cognitive strategies are used during the execution of a task to facilitate comprehension or production. Examples of cognitive strategies are elaboration, or use of prior knowledge, grouping or classifying items to be learned, making inferences while listening or reading, and taking notes of information to remember" (Mendelsohn, 2006, p. 80). All these strategies seem to improve listening comprehension. However, the issue that should be mentioned here is that the moment instructor taught strategies, learners should be required to put them into practice and do a lot of authentic listening.
It was found that teaching learning strategies can have positive effect on listening comprehension achievement and make learners have control on their own learning. Once learners become aware of cognitive strategies, they consciously choose specific strategy to overcome listening tasks' difficulty and comprehend spoken language. Learners do not know innately whatever effective listeners do; therefore it is concluded that teachers have the responsibility of sharing the knowledge of strategies, making learners aware of them and creating a convenient environment for the listeners. Once the learners' awareness is raised, their performance in second language process is increased.

The present study supports many scholars and researchers' ideas like Annevirta et al. (2007) who claims that many research endeavors which have been conducted on the strategy instruction and its influence, generally on language learning and particularly on listening comprehension, concluded that increasing the knowledge of strategies can pave the way for language performance.

Although it is concluded that teaching learning strategies can facilitate listening and help learners to comprehend the received message, some factors involving the listeners' level of proficiency, characteristics of the learning strategies, and factors affecting strategy choice or use should be taken into consideration by teachers while instructing strategies in EFL contexts.

**Implications**

The present study attempted to find whether strategy instruction has any positive or negative impact on second language listening comprehension. Once it was confirmed that strategy-based listening instruction significantly affected L2 learners listening comprehension achievement, the study automatically provided some implications for different individuals such as second language learners and teachers and syllabus designers.

As mentioned and quoted in first chapter, listening skill is the most important and most-used skill among all. However, it is difficult for second language learners to learn, and comprehend spoken text easily and sometimes learners are not interested in listening tasks because they assume it a burden on themselves to deal with. Therefore, learners need a way to help them listen, and to facilitate listening comprehension and make it effective for the learners. Since L2 learning strategies are specific behaviors or thought processes for enhancing L2 learning, learners can make use of them to improve their L2 listening.

This study enables teachers, who test listening skill rather than teaching it, to teach how to listen using learning strategies. In addition, it is suggested to teachers to teach learning strategies explicitly in the classroom because explicit teaching makes learners intellectually aware of the functions that each performs. Teachers are the only people who know their students, thus they can introduce learning strategies and provide a convenience environment in the class to ask them practice listening tasks through utilizing learning strategies. The reason why learners are not able to use or find related strategies to use to tackle the specific problem in learning can be faded away. If teachers assist learners to report the strategies they use to develop a task, learners will be able to be aware of the kinds of strategies they use and improve their skills.
Findings of the present study can serve as a useful reference for syllabus designers in language institutions, schools and universities to diagnose the learning problems of learners and to assist them to tackle these difficulties effectively with regard to learning strategies. As it is obvious, Iranian EFL institutions select teaching materials in which learners practice listening; therefore, syllabus designers of language institutions should choose materials which take learners level of proficiency and their need into account. Moreover, authentic materials are emphasized for strategy learning and teaching. Listening materials can be chosen among which allow learners practice listening through using strategies, i.e. materials which support strategy instruction like the one the researcher applied in this study.

**Suggestions for Further Research**

Researcher made her effort to find the effect of strategy instruction on listening comprehension achievement. However, there are some issues and variables which were not investigated in this study. These factors can provide useful variables to investigate and ponder on for researchers and further researches.

First, this study was conducted on upper-intermediate English language learners, thus, future researches can be done with other different levels of language learners to see the effect of strategy instruction on their listening comprehension achievement.

Second, because of lack of available subjects, this study just chose 60 participants to investigate the issue. Other studies can be conducted using large amount of subjects.

Third, as it was mentioned in delimitations of the study, participants of the study in both control and experimental groups were selected among females. It is suggested to use both genders to do future researches.

**REFERENCES**


**Appendix A**

**Interview Protocol**

Date of interview:……………………………

Started at:…………………..

Ended at:…………………..

Interviewee’s Name:……………………………(real name here for data analysis purposes only)

Teaching experience:…………………..years

TTC/TEC/TDC courses passed?  Yes/no        local/international        when?

Academic major:…………………..

Fresh man/ sophomore/ junior/ senior/ graduate/ A.d/ B.A/ M.A/ Phd

Teaching Level:

Elementary / pre-intermediate / intermediate / upper inter/ advanced

1. What is your attitude toward listening skill? How important is it in teaching?
2. How do you teach listening skill?
**Appendix B**  
**Summary of Teachers’ Interview**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L2 teacher (LT)</th>
<th>Teachers attitude toward listening skill</th>
<th>How does teacher teach listening skill?</th>
<th>How should this skill be taught?</th>
<th>How is listening skill be tested?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LT 1 9 Years of Exp.</td>
<td>-The most important skill among all; -The best input to learn a second language.</td>
<td>-Learners are asked to listen then repeat the sentences or tell the summary.</td>
<td>-Teacher agrees with the way she teaches.</td>
<td>-Audio part is played once and learners answer the questions related to the audio part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT 2 16 years of Exp.</td>
<td>-65 percent of class should be assigned to it; -The basic and important skill for learning a second language.</td>
<td>-Pre-listening activities are done, then learners listen; -Learners are asked to speak about the listening part.</td>
<td>-Teacher agrees with the way she teaches.</td>
<td>-In testing listening, teacher doesn't help learners to comprehend the text. Teacher just tests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT 3 3 years Of Exp.</td>
<td>-The basis of teaching and learning a second language.</td>
<td>-First learners listen, there is no comprehension at first; -Listening is done for the second time; -Teacher helps learners to comprehend; -Learners listen for the third time and repeat the sentences then teacher writes unknown words and idioms on the board.</td>
<td>-Teacher agrees with the way she teaches; -Teacher claims that nobody has taught us the way of teaching this skill.</td>
<td>-There are some questions on the paper that should be answered after listening to the audio part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT4 5 years Of Exp.</td>
<td>-It should be taught more and more; -A strong input; -The basis of learning and teaching a second language.</td>
<td>-Audio part is played; -In the case of no comprehension, it is played again; -Then learners repeat the sentences and teacher writes unknown words and idioms on the board.</td>
<td>-First, new vocabularies should be taught; -Then listening should be done, because not knowing vocabularies results in no comprehension.</td>
<td>-Learners listen once and answer different kinds of questions like fill in the blanks, checking true or false sentences and numbering pictures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT5</td>
<td>-Basis of learning and teaching a</td>
<td>-First learners listen, then they are asked to</td>
<td>-Teacher agrees with the way she</td>
<td>-Teacher does not help learners in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT 6</td>
<td>- The importance of the skill is the same as the other skills.</td>
<td>- Audio part should be played two or three times; - Learners are asked to tell what they understood; - The source of teaching listening is important, i.e. what should be listened. - Students are asked to listen at home to be prepared for the class practices.</td>
<td>- Teacher agrees with the way he teaches; - Teacher believes that there should be a way to teach it.</td>
<td>Testing listening does not show the real proficiency of the learners, it should be tested in real situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT 7</td>
<td>- An important factor for teaching and learning a second language; - An important skill to be taught and learnt.</td>
<td>- Learners should be ready before class; - Learners listen in the class and then take note, after that they tell the summary of what they heard.</td>
<td>- Teacher agrees with the way she teaches.</td>
<td>- Different questions related to the audio part are answered after listening.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT 8</td>
<td>- It is not more important than other skills but it should be learnt first.</td>
<td>- Sources are important to teach and practice listening; - Pre-listening activities are done as warm-up; then listening is done; - Learners answer the questions related to the listening part or tell the summary.</td>
<td>- Teacher agrees with the way she teaches.</td>
<td>- Teacher cannot help student to understand, just teacher tests to see if learners comprehend or not.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT 9</td>
<td>- Is the most important skill among all;</td>
<td>- First audio is played once then learners are asked about what they</td>
<td>- Teacher agrees with the way she teaches.</td>
<td>- Teaching is the interaction between the knower and the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT 10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Years of Exp.</td>
<td>-Like a new-born child, at first she/he listens and then starts speaking.</td>
<td>-Audio part is replayed and learners are asked some questions about the audio part.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-To speak well, learner should know how to listen;</td>
<td>-Listening should be practiced;</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>-The complementary of the other skills.</td>
<td>-Practicing is more important than teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT 11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Years of Exp.</td>
<td>-The most important skill;</td>
<td>-Listening is not taught in the class;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-As important as speaking.</td>
<td>-Listening should be understood;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Audio part is played several times and then learners are asked to repeat.</td>
<td>-Audio part is played, then learners are asked what they understood;</td>
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<td>-Sentences are repeated word by word;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Source of listening should include news, film, audio and video.</td>
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<td>-Teacher agrees with the way he teaches;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Teacher is looking for a useful way to teach the skill.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Practicing, practicing and practicing;</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Listening and listening and listening then making perfect;</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Teacher just helps learners understand the listening part better.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Just practicing listening can make a learner proficient;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Teacher agrees with the way he teaches.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Testing is evaluating learners to see if they understand the spoken language or not so they are asked to answer the questions related to the audio part.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-The basis of teaching a second language.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Sources are important to practice and teach listening;</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Audio part is played, then they are asked what they got(grasp);</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Then sentences are practiced word by word;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-There is no fixed method for teaching listening.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Teacher agrees with natural situation approach, it means to listen to a real and a authentic listening part;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Teacher agrees with the way he teaches.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-The context of testing is not as convenience as teaching context. Audio part is played once and teacher does not help learners to answer the questions because teacher wants to know the level of their achievement or proficiency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Testing is played once and there is no repetition in testing. Learners just answer the questions related to the audio part or tell the summary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### LT 14 3 Years of Exp.
- The basis of learning and teaching a second language.
- First learners are asked to listen at home and take script.
- Then audio part is listened in the class and learners are asked what they got;
  - Audio part is listened again to check the new words and idioms.
- There can be a better way to teach listening;
  - There is no special way to teach this skill (i.e. it should be practiced).
- Testing and teaching this skill are the same.

### LT 15 5 years Of Exp.
- After speaking, it is the next important skill;
  - To speak well, it is necessary to understand well.
- First audio part is listened then learners are asked what they understood;
  - Listening part is played for second time then new words and idioms are practiced.
- It should be practiced rather than taught.
- Learners might be stressful because of the context of testing in which audio part should be played once then related questions are answered without teacher assistance.

### LT 16 5 Years of Exp.
- The basis of teaching and learning a second language.
- First learners are asked to listen at home and take script;
  - Learners are asked to tell what they got;
  - Listening part is played for second time and learners are asked to repeat the sentences.
- Teacher agrees with the ways she teaches.
- Audio part is played then learners are asked to answer the questions.

### LT 17 3 years of Exp.
- The most important part of teaching a second language.
- First listening and then asking learners to repeat the sentences.
- Teacher believes that there should be a better way to teach listening.
- Teaching listening is the way of preparation for testing it. Teacher tests to know if the learners comprehend. Audio part is played then learners are asked to answer the questions related to that part.

### LT 18 2 Years of Exp.
- The main skill among all;
  - 50 Percent of the class should be assigned to listening.
- First warm-up activities are done;
  - Then listening part is played then learners are asked to tell the
  - Teacher agrees with the way he teaches and will welcome to any new useful strategy.
- Testing is just asking learners to answer the question related to audio part without helping them.
summary of that part and repeat the sentences after listening.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LT 19</th>
<th>- It is an important skill to learn a second language fast.</th>
<th>- Learners listen for several times then repeat the sentences.</th>
<th>- Pre-listening activities should be done; - Teacher agrees with the way she teaches.</th>
<th>- The same as teaching, asking learners to say what they got is testing this skill.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>LT 20</strong>&lt;br&gt;6 Years of Exp.</td>
<td>- Listening is the most important skill among all; - First listening then speaking.</td>
<td>- First learners are asked to practice at home; - Then audio part is listened in the class and learners are asked to repeat what they listened to.</td>
<td>- Testing is asking learners to answer the questions related to an audio part.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Appendix C**

*A List of Cognitive Strategies with their pedagogical implications by Vandergrift (1997)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Focus on the Learner</th>
<th>Focus on the Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Linguistic inferencing</td>
<td>Guessing the meaning of unknown words by linking them to known words.</td>
<td>Before a listening task, the teacher writes some difficult vocabulary on the board so as to draw attention to these words. The teacher then plays the tape and asks students to listen for the new vocabulary and try to guess the meaning from their understanding of the whole text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Voice inferencing</td>
<td>guessing by meaning of the tone of voice</td>
<td>The teacher focuses the learners' attention not on what is said but on how it is said.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
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nternational Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
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Firoozjahantigh, M., & Ghahraman, V

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paralinguistic or kinesic inferencing</th>
<th>Guessing the meaning of unknown words by referring to paralinguistic clues.</th>
<th>Teacher discusses with the learners how certain features of the speakers’ actions in the video can help them guess the meaning of the message.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extralinguistic inferencing</td>
<td>Guessing based on other clues, such as what is required in the task.</td>
<td>The teacher informs the learners that they will listen to a long stretch of speech. The teacher then writes some questions on the board to direct the learners’ attention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferencing between parts</td>
<td>Making use of certain words in the text that may not be related to the task to get more information about the task.</td>
<td>The teacher points out that the information at the beginning of the text will help the learners understand the later sections of the text.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elaboration</th>
<th>Focus on the Learner</th>
<th>Focus on the Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal elaboration</td>
<td>Learners use prior personal experience to comprehend the task.</td>
<td>At the beginning of a lesson, the teacher asks learners to talk about any experiences they have had that relate to the topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World elaboration</td>
<td>Learners use their world knowledge to comprehend the task.</td>
<td>At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher activates the learners’ schemata on certain topics by asking general questions about atopic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic elaboration</td>
<td>Learners use knowledge gained during their formal learning experiences.</td>
<td>During a listening task, the teacher can ask learners if they have encountered similar experiences in other disciplines, such as knowledge of countries in their geography lessons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning elaboration</td>
<td>Learners question themselves about what they do know, and what they do not know.</td>
<td>The teacher sets up brainstorming sessions before, during, or after a listening task for learners to question themselves about what they know about the situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative elaboration</td>
<td>Learners try to adapt what they hear to make the story more interesting to themselves.</td>
<td>The teacher has learners’ brainstorm different endings of a story and then listen for the real ending.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Learners use mental imagery to create a picture of what is happening.</td>
<td>The teacher asks learners to keep their eyes closed while listening to a story and try to picture what is happening.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus on the Learner</th>
<th>Focus on the Teacher</th>
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19
| Summarization | Learners make a mental or written summary of what they hear. | The teacher asks the learners to give an oral summary to each other, or to write one sentence to summarize what they have listened to. |
| Translation | Learners translate from the first language verbatim what they hear in the second language. | The teacher asks learners to talk with each other in the L1 and try to translate what they have listened to. Or, if the teacher is bilingual, the learners can translate what they heard for the teacher to check. |
| Transfer | Learners use knowledge about their first language to facilitate listening to the second language. | The teacher could draw student’s attention to words in the L2 that are similar to words in the L1. |
| Repetition | Learners repeat words they listen to so that they become familiar with the sounds. | The teacher sets up a shadow listening task. In this task, the learners look at the text while listening to a story. While listening, they read the text quietly to themselves. |
| Resourcing | Learners use any resources to aid them in their understanding (e.g., dictionaries, diagrams, notes, peers) | When appropriate, the teacher focuses the learners’ attention on artifacts that will help them understand the task. For instance, “Look at the diagram before you listen to the story.” |
| Grouping | Learners group words together based on common attributes. | The teacher activates the learners’ schemata on certain areas so that they are aware that the information they hear will have something in common with their previous knowledge. |
| **Focus on the Learner** | **Focus on the Teacher** |
| Note-taking | Learners write notes as they follow some spoken text. | The teacher assists the learners in making notes that will help them comprehend the messages skeleton form or free. These notes can be in form. |
| Deduction/Induction | Learners apply rules they have learned or have developed themselves to follow a text. | The teacher either explains the rules of a particular part of speech or has learners guess what the rules are by listening to a text. |
| Substitution | Learners substitute words they | The teacher asks students to give a
| Variety of words or expressions to compensate for certain parts of the text they listen to. For instance, “The man said ‘Could you close the door?’ What else could he have said?” | Know to fill in gaps in their listening to see if their overall comprehension makes sense. |
CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ‘FACE’ IN PERSIAN COMMUNICATION

Sara Alibabaee
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ABSTRACT
Iran is one of the guiding nations in the Middle East that has an enlightenment history both in culture and civilization, but has not received much attention in the area of communication. Face is a central concept in communication and the concept of face relates to the picture that people project of them to the world. According to Erving Goffman (1972), it is their most intimate and valuable possession, the source of their security and pleasure, but it does not belong to them unconditionally. It is lent to them by society on condition that they behave in ways appropriate to the face they project. He also spotlights the protective of one toward the speaker’s own face and toward the face of others, which is frequently simultaneous, even in the case that one of them may be more predominant at times. In Persian, politeness has a very strong normative aspect and Iranian’s face has two main aspects and managing polite communication in Persian needs consideration for both aspects and for both interlocutors: Shakhsiat: personality, social standing, self and others respect. Āberu: respect, credit, prestige, honour. Although the concept of face is claimed to be universal (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Spencer-Oatey 2000), research has revealed significant cross-cultural dissimilarities in the nature and the commonness of the concept (e.g., Hill et al 1986; Ide 1989; Matsumoto 1988). Brown and Levinson consider face in the context of politeness, and identify two aspects, positive and negative and this paper is going to argue that their model of politeness cannot account satisfactorily for the Persian data collected for this research and that a more broad-ranging frame needs to be conceptualized to present a picture of Persian notion of Face.

KEYWORDS: Face, Shakhsiat, Āberu, Ehteram, Taroof

INTRODUCTION
The idea of this investigation has been formed by seminal politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) and ‘face’ concept. This research set out to discover whether, and to what extent, the notion of ‘face’ applied to Persian communication.

The method for this research is ethnographic tradition, and my sister was asked to tape-record spontaneous conversation in an acquaintance gathering for the duration of 3.5 hours in Tehran, Iran. The data had been transcribed and analyzed. The participants belonged to a different range of ages and educational and professional backgrounds.

In case of data analysis, a complicated picture of Iranian politeness and face came up, in which certain features of Brown and Levinson’s theory appeared to have little relation in Iranian face
Although the first one is more individual based and the second is more dynamic, but both should be counted into full realization in interaction.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**The Concept of ‘Face’ in the Literature and Iranian Culture**

Goffman’s (1972) concept of face can be applied to the description of face in Persian communication, as it described ‘face’ as an individual’s ‘most personal possession and the center of his security and pleasure’. Although face belongs to the individual, it ‘is only on loan to him from society’; it will be taken away from him if he, through inappropriate behavior, shows he is unworthy of it (Goffman, 1972:322).

An individual’s position in society places certain limitations on behavior, in order to manifest face, a person is expected to live up to their self-image, to show self-respect and not to carry out actions or take part in activities that are out of keeping with that self-image (Goffman, 1967:7). Such limitations in behavior stem from pride (‘from duty to himself’ Goffman, 1967:9) or honour and, in effect, render the individual his own ‘jailer’, albeit in a cell of his liking (Goffman, 1972: 9-10). In the same way that an individual is concerned with his or her own face, s/he is also expected to show consideration for others’ faces and to work towards upholding their faces because s/he identifies emotionally with them and their feelings (Goffman, 1972: 9-10).

Brown and Levinson’s (1978, 1987) seminal politeness theory turning to Goffman’s ideas, defined as ‘the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself’. On the basis of this universal theory, face consists of two aspects, negative and positive face, defined respectively as a model person’s ‘want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded,’ (Brown and Levinson, 1987:129) and ‘[his] perennial desire that wants (or the actions/ acquisitions/values resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable’ (Brown and Levinson, 1987:101). In polite communication, strategies applied to redress interlocutor’s negative or positive threatens face.

Although Goffman was not concerned with politeness, his 1959 work introduced the concept of face, which became the basis of Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) most influential and comprehensive theory of politeness. Goffman conceptualized ‘face’ as a person’s ‘most personal possession and the center of his security and pleasure’, which, however, ‘is only loan to him from society’ and ‘it will withdrawn unless he conducts himself in a way that is worthy of it’ (Goffman, 1972:322).

Similar to Goffman’s pride and honour, Persian face consists of two sides: *Shakhsiat* (‘personality’, ‘character’, ‘self-respect’, ‘social standing’) and *Ehteram* (‘respect’, ‘esteem’, ‘dignity’). It was argued by Koutlaki (2009) that *Shakhsiat*, despite some differences, is similar to Brown and Levinson’s notion of positive face. The main difference is that Brown and Levinson’s
notion of positive face refers to an individual’s want to be desired, respected and liked, and his want shared by others; in other words, it is rooted in the individual (Koutlaki, 2009). Conversely, the Iranian concept does not detach of the group and pick up the real meaning in connection with it. However, it is worthy to mention that Ehteram is almost ever-present in Iranian interaction and it is often, although not always, dependent upon a person’s Shakhsiat. In other words, a speaker addressing an interlocutor of a high social position or educational background (high perceived Shakhsiat) will show a high degree of Ehteram too. Though, this does not mean that a person of a lower social standing will not receive Ehteram. Koutlaki (2009), postulate that Ehteram is one of the primary inspirations behind polite behavior in Persian.

Face can be threatened, lost or enhanced in interaction and, following on from Goffman’s description of face, every rational person is interested in maintaining or enhancing an interlocutor’s face in order to have his face similarly maintained or enhanced and the greater the risk of face loss involved, the higher numbered strategy will be chosen by a speaker. Face-threatening acts (FTAs), acts that inherently damage the face of the addressee or the speaker by acting in opposition to the wants and desire of the other, are at times inevitable based on the terms of conversation.

**Negative face-threatening acts**
When negative face is threatened, freedom of choice and action are impeded. For example an act that affirms or denies a future act of the hearer creates pressure on the hearer to either perform or not perform the act. Examples: orders, requests, suggestions, advice, reminding, threats, or warnings. Or those acts that expresses the speaker’s sentiments of the hearer or the hearer’s belongings. Instances: compliments, expressions of envy or admiration, or expression of strong negative emotion toward the hearer (hatred, anger, lust). Offers and promises can also be FTAs if the pressure has been put on the hearer to accept or reject the act and possibly incur a debt.

**Positive face-threatening acts**
Positive face is threatened when the speaker or hearer does not care about their interactor’s feelings, wants, or does not act what the other wants, positive face threatening can also cause damage to the speaker or hearer. When an individual is forced to separate from others so that their well being is treated less importantly, positive face is threatened. For example, an act that expresses the speaker’s negative assessment of the hearer’s positive faces or an element of his/her positive face. The speaker can display this disapproval in two ways. The first approach is for the speaker to directly or indirectly indicate that dislikes some aspects of the hearer’s possessions, desires, or personal attributes. The second approach is for the speaker to express disapproval by stating or implying that the hearer is wrong, irrational, or misguided. Examples: expression of disapproval (e.g. insults, accusations, complaints), contradiction, disagreements, or challenges. Those acts that expresses the speaker’s indifference toward the addressee’s positive face. The addressee might be embarrassed for or fear the speaker. Examples: excessively emotional expressions or the speaker indicates that he does not have the same values or fears as the hearer: disrespect, mention of topics which are inappropriate or in the context. Belittling or boasting when the speaker indicates that he is willing to disregard the emotional well being of the hearer.
The speaker increases the possibility that a face-threatening act will occur. This situation is created when a topic is brought up by the speaker that is a sensitive societal subject. For example, topics that relate to politics, race, religion. The speaker indicates that he is indifferent to the positive face wants of the hearer. This is most often expressed in obvious non-cooperative behavior. Instance: interrupting, non-sequiturs.

FTAs can be either accidentally or intentionally: the speaker misidentifies the hearer in an offensive or embarrassing way. Generally, this refers to the misuse of the address terms in relation to status, gender, or age. Example: addressing a young woman as “ma’am” instead of “miss”.

In polite communication, every act that potentially threatens face is usually accompanied by strategies directed at redressing interlocutor’s negative or positive face. After several criticisms made by researches of different cultures (de Kadt 1998; Hill et al., 1986; Ide, 1989; Koutlaki, 1997; 2002, Mao, 1994; Matsumoto, 1988; 1989; Nwoye, 1992), at the notion of negative face, ongoing thoughts favour the revising and reconsidering of Goffman’s concept of face (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2003), which, being dependent on others, ‘is only realized in social interaction’ (Watts, 2003: 107) and is therefore mutually constructed (de Kadt, 1998: 176) or co-constituted (Arundal, 2006: 196) rather than being rooted in the individual, as Brown and Levinson postulate.

**METHODOLOGY**

The approach applied for this study, ethnography approach, initially employed by researchers of anthropology, which means direct observation of linguistic practices of a community without any intervention on the part of the researcher. Ethnographic approach adopted through recording of naturally-occurring conversations in an acquainted family gathering in Tehran. The speakers represented different range of backgrounds and ages.

In this study, I was not present in the gathering, where the participants being aware they had been recorded on their normal interactions. The focus of this study has not been gender or age differences in politeness patterns, but in some examples some information relating to the interlocutors gender and age has been supplied, so the reader can have a clear picture in the mind.

Analyzing the conversations, have led into the description of the notion of *Taroof*, some issues of social values in Iranian community, the perception of face and politeness system, and the analysis of the components of Persian face.

**Taroof**

Several authors have noted the importance of the notion of *Taroof* in Persian, as an applicable communicative strategy (Koutlaki, 2002; Hodge, 1957; Hillmann, 1981; Asdjodi, 2001; Assadi, 1980; Eslami Rasekh, 2005). *Taroof* can be regarded as a cultural schema that forms a large part of everyday social interactions in Persian. “Its realization in conversations may be in the form of ‘ostensible’ invitations, repeated rejection of offers, insisting on making offers, hesitation in making requests, giving frequent compliments, hesitation in making complaints, etc. (Sharifian,
Even in a single conversation, all the parties may use a combination of these realizations in different degrees, although it can not be a genuine communicative act. That is why speakers constantly ask each other not to engage in Taroof. The following extract is from the tap-recorded data from an acquainted gathering in Tehran, Iran, (note: H stands for host and G stands for guest):

H: *Az in salad ham befarmayin.*
   From this salad eat:polite form
   ‘Please test this salad as well.’

G: *Mamnoon sarf shodeh.*
   Thanks I have.had
   ‘Thanks, I have had some.’

H: *To ro khoda befarmayin,ghabel-e shoma ra nadareh.*
   For God’s eat:polite form , worthy-of you it.is.not
   ‘For God’s sake have some. They are not worthy of you.’

G: *Sahebesh ghabel-e, dast-e-toon dard nakoneh.*
   The.owner worthy-is, hand-of-your pain doesn’t
   ‘You are worthy, thanks.’

H: *Shoma k chizi nakhordin, befarmayin, namk nadareh.*
   You nothing eat, eat:polite form, salt doesn’t have
   ‘You eat nothing, please have some, it has no salt’.

G: *Taroof nemikonam, kheyli khordam.*
   Taroof don’t-I, eat a lot-I
   ‘I don’t do Taroof, I eat a lot’.

H: *Ye ghashogh be oonjaha nemikhoreh.*
   One spoon is not too much
   ‘One more spoon wouldn’t be that much.’

G: *Chashm, dast-e-toon o kootah nemikonam.*
   Ok hand-of-your marker short will-not-I
   ‘Ok, I won’t turn down your offer.’

Sharifian (2011), explained the general aim of the cultural schema of *Taroof* as “to create a form of social space for speakers to exercise face work and also to provide communicative tools to negotiate and lubricate social relationships”. Besides, the interlocutors have chance to construct certain identities and social image, for example as a welcoming, helpful or open-handed and sociable.
Various labels had been used to describe Taroof concept in English, “including ‘communicative routine’ (Koutlaki, 2002: 1741), ‘ritual courtesy’ (Beeman, 1986:56), ‘ritual politeness’ (Koutlaki, 2002:1740), and ‘polite verbal wrestling (Rafiee, 1992:96), cited in Sharifian, 2011: 145.

Taroof is closely tied to the concept of Shakhsiat, which has been translated into English as ‘character’, ‘personality’, ‘pride’. Koutlaki (2002:1742) defined Shakhsiat as “a complex concept which could be rendered as ‘personality’, ‘character’, ‘honour’, ‘self-respect’, ‘social standing’”. She relates Shakhsiat to politeness and believes who observe politeness is considered to have Shakhsiat. It is also depending on variables such as family background, level of education, social status, financial level, etc. Shakhsiat ties to Taroof in the sense that applying Taroof as an appropriate communicative strategy is an indication of heightened Shakhsiat. Unlike Aberu, which, is conceptualized as a social image and status of person and/or family and friends/ social norms/ relationship and networks, Shakhsiat is constructed as a result of individual endeavor at constructing socially acceptable image of person in the eyes of others. By exercising appropriate communicative strategy, Taroof; one can gain Shakhsiat and by not applying it correctly, one can lose it. So, Shakhsiat is a dynamic concept.

Koutlaki (2002) quoted that giving Shakhsiat “to an addressee has to do with society’s injunctions about paying face, and also with group face wants.” As it is recognized by her, Shakhsiat is something that a speaker can give or get from the addressee. Following is an excerpt from the leave-taking conversation in the mentioned gathering, in which the interlocutors tried to keep up their own Shakhsiat by also maintaining the other interlocutor’s Shakhsiat too.

G: Bebakhshid zahmat dadim.
   Forgive trouble gave-we
   ‘Sorry for giving you a trouble’.

H: In che harfiyeh, Kha hesh mikonam, inja manzele khodetone.
   What statement, please, here house yours-is
   ‘Do not mention it. Please, it is your house.

G: Merci babate zahamat-I ke baray sargarmi bache-ha keshid-id.
   Thanks for troubles-the that for entertainment kids went.through-you
   ‘Thanks, for entertaining the kids’.
   Ham-e ja ro ham be ham rikhtan, jamojuram nakardim.
   Everywhere mess up-they, tidy-up-too not did
   ‘They did mess everywhere, I didn’t even help you tidy up’.

H: Ey baba, bache-an dg, bebakhshin age bad gozasht.
   Oh, kids they-are, you forgive if bad passed
   ‘Oh, no problem. They are just little kids. I am sorry if you had a bad time’.
   Az kadoye ghashangeton ham kheyli mannoon.
   From present nice-of-you very thanks
Very many apologies developed by the host and the guests in utterances, which set up a complex facework sequence. Guests expanded superficial apologies for the trouble they have given for their visit. The hosts also expressed nominally apologies for the bad time the guests have spent with them. The net result of this compounded interaction is that all participants tried to pay face both to the other interlocutors and themselves at the same time.

Other various politeness strategies applied simultaneously by Persian interactors to develop and keep face. The example provides from the extract of the taped-conversation, when the hostess asked the guests to join for the dinner:

H: Befarma-id sar-e miz ta az dahan nayoftadeh,
Please-you to the table since it mouth not-fall
‘Please start, since it does not become cold,’
Albatte be ghazaha-ye Nasim joon k nemireses.
Surely at foods Nasim dear does-not reach.
‘Surely this is not as good as dear Nasim’s cooking’.
H utterances can be regarded both as praise and a practice of apology because she presents the guest’s cooking as superior to hers and exhibit her humility. The motive behind this utterance is to raise the guest in deference and expecting the enhancement of both (the guest and her own) faces. Consequently, the guest’s response reflects the host satisfaction in function.

In Persian, even though a speaker humbles himself by elevating an interlocutor, he does not expect the interlocutor to confirm the compliment. In this occasion the same occurs on behalf of the interlocutor: he also elevating the speaker by humbling his self.

A very usual response to such a compliment is ekhtiar darid which means “you are free to say anything you like, (but the compliment is not true)”. The interesting point is that Iranians characterize a speaker haughty and impolite if he accept a compliment and says thanks!

CONCLUSION
The present work tried to illustrate important triads of Persian facework. The Persian face is realized and worked out through verbal behaviors, which had been taped-recorded in an acquaintance gathering in Tehran, Iran. The discussion is based on Brown and Levinson’s (1978, 1987) theory due to the fact that it is the most complete account of politeness theory, which, unlike previous theories, it also recognizes politeness as intrinsically related to ‘face’, which defined as ‘the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself’ (1987:61).

As cited in Koutlaki (1997), the fact that politeness is closely linked with face considerations has been confirmed by research on many cultures like Chinese (Gu, 1990, Chen 1993, Mao, 1994), Japanese (Matsumoto, 1988, 1989,1989, Ide, 1989, Hill et al, 1986), Greek (Siffinou, 1997, 1992, 1993) and Igbo of Nigeria (Nwoye, 1992). Brown and Levinson’s ‘face’ construction is deeply generated in an individual’s desires, while Persian face (Shakhsiat) does not only rooted in one’s individual positive or negative face wants. Persian face recognized as “collectivist” by Koutlaki (1997), since it underpins all social relationship and communication among speakers. So, it also includes group face wants, which can be maintained, enhanced or lost through adherence to agreed social conventions.

As it has been shown in extracts, in Persian, some speech acts which have been characterized as Face Threatening Acts (FATs) by Brown and Levinson function as Face Enhancing Acts. According to Brown and Levinson acts like offers, compliments, expression of thanks, unwilling offers, and apologies threaten the addressee’s or speaker’s face. But it is not the case in Persian. These acts are used to maintain interactants’ and their extended group’s face.

One of the most important verbal ritual politenesses in Persian is Taroor, which has been examined in this paper, attend to a speaker’s face, his family and group’s face, and also very
importantly, to an addressee’s and his family/group’s face simultaneously. That’s why the discussion of Iranian face is corresponds to Goffman’s (1967) views, in which he described face as two-sided. As it has been shown in the extracts, the Persian participants in the conversations operated with consideration towards their own face and at the same time other’s face. So, as an individual tries to maintain his face, he is also aware that he is expected to try to preserve other’s faces. The other side of the face based on Goffman’s (1967) conceptualization of face is related to a person’s face that is on loan to him from society: “the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact”. Iranian society is a collectivist society. So, it is rational to accept the fact that the individual cannot hold on to his face and others without adhering to social norms and avoiding blame worthy behaviors. Thus, Persian native speakers experience politeness by adhering to social conventions and attending to both an individual’s and group face wants. Positive and negative face wants are not beginning and end of Persian face. Rather it established by conformity to the social norms and correct socialization.

This research has conducted in a small scale, so it may not be able to show a wider picture of politeness in Persian communication and different Persian social classes. Some aspects of Persian pragmatics have only been mentioned and not dealt with any details. For example using Taroof between intimates, acquaintances and stranger, or gender and age differences. It would be interesting to discover whether such differenced in Persian communication exist at all.

REFERENCES

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SYNTHESIZING EFL LEARNERS' TRAITS: 
MI, LEARNING STYLES AND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

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ABSTRACT
Multiple intelligences and learning styles are important factors in learning a foreign language. It appears that, discovering the relationship between these variables is a relatively new issue which has recently become important and has drawn the attention of English teachers. In a bid to address this issue, this study was conducted to investigate the relationship between multiple intelligences, learning styles, and EFL learners’ language proficiency level among the Iranian candidates. In fact, the attempt was made to explore the extent to which they correlate. To fulfill this objective, a 140-item language proficiency test, a 70-item multiple intelligence questionnaire, and a 30-item learning styles questionnaire were distributed among 132 Iranian students. Pearson correlation coefficients were run to analyze the data. The results indicated that the nature of styles is different from intelligence since contrary to the relationship between language proficiency and multiple intelligence, learning styles don’t have such connection with language proficiency. Further studies on the nature of these main variables including multiple intelligence and learning styles in isolation and mixed besides the issue of the nature of each constructs are suggested.

KEYWORDS: Multiple Intelligence; Learning Styles; Language Proficiency

INTRODUCTION
The term ‘intelligence’ is traditionally described as intelligence quotient (IQ) measured via individuals verbal-linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences (Hajighashemi, 2011). However, Gardner (1983) challenged the belief that intelligence could be objectively measured and reduced to a single number or “IQ” score and claimed that the IQ test does not provide information on other kinds of intelligences. He stated that each individual has a multitude of intelligences quite unaffiliated of each other. In this regard, he defined intelligence as “the ability to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings” (2006a, p. 48), which entailed in the suggestion of his Multiple Intelligence (MI) Theory. According to him (1983), each individual has varying levels of intelligences and each individual has a unique cognitive profile composed of verbal-linguistic, musical-rhythmic, logical-mathematical, visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, intrapersonal, interpersonal, naturalist and existential intelligences.
Educationally speaking, MI theory motivates teachers to acknowledge that all students have strengths and that each individual is unique (Carreiro, 1998; Teele, 2000). Lazear (1991, 1992) regards MI theory as a solid platform based on which the learners’ needs, learning strategies, and intelligence models can be studied. It is concerned with the way people process information, and it accommodates dimensions of cognitive and developmental psychology, anthropology, and sociology to explain the human intellect.

According to Gardner (1990), all human beings have all different intelligences in varying degrees and each individual shows different levels of these varied intelligences, and thus each person has a unique "cognitive profile"; all human have all variant intelligences in different amounts; each individual possess an incompatible composition; different areas of the brain include varying intelligences and can either work independently or together. According to him, man can improve his education by utilizing multiple intelligences, and man's species may be defined by these intelligences.

**Domains of multiple intelligences**

According to (McKenzie, 2002), multiple intelligences have three domains including the analytical, introspective and interactive, all working as an organizer for understanding the mixed relationship of the intelligences and how the intelligences work with one another. Figure 1 Dimensions of MI (McKenzie, 2002).

Gardner (1983) offered that all individuals possess personal intelligence profiles that include combinations of seven different intelligence types. He, then, (1999) added natural and existential intelligences to that list, as illustrated in figure 2.
The schematic presentation of the nine types of intelligences (Smart, 1999)

Learning styles
In addition to MI theory as “the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior” (Cornett, 1983, p. 9), learning styles have been extensively discussed in the educational psychology literature (Claxton & Murrell 1987; Schmeck 1988) and specifically in the context of language learning by Oxford and her colleagues (Oxford 1990; Oxford et al. 1991; Wallace and Oxford 1992). This notion has been interpreted differently based on the understanding of the researchers of what constitutes learning styles (Zou, 2006). Oxford, Hollaway and Horton-Murillo (1992) described learning styles as the general approaches used by learners, while Honigsfeld and Dunn (2006) described it as a biological and developmental set of personal characteristics that can be effective for some learners and ineffective for others. Peacock (2001) called styles as students’ preferred mode of learning. Within the area of learning styles, each individual reflects sensory style dimensions (visual/auditory/hands-on) and social style dimensions (extroverted/introverted). Every person also has preferences along cognitive style dimensions, among which are concrete-sequential/abstract-intuitive, closure-oriented/open, detail-focused/holistic (sometimes called particular/global), and analyzing/synthesizing (Oxford, 2003).

In terms of learning English, a number of researchers suggest that mismatch between students’ preferred learning styles and instructors’ preferred teaching styles has entailed undesirable effects on students’ learning and attitudes in the class and to English in general (Cortazzi, 1990; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Jones, 1997; Oxford, Hollaway & Horton-Murillo, 1992; Stebbins, 1995; Reid, 1987), while any correspondences would lead to an increase in motivation and learning (Griggs & Dunn (1984); Smith & Renzulli (1984), and Wallace & Oxford (1992)).
Knowing students’ learning styles is important and beneficial to teachers as it will allow them to tailor their way of teaching so as to accommodate the learning style preferences of their students (Hinton, 1992). Oxford (2003) regards learning styles and strategies as being among the main factors that help determine how and how well the students learn a second or foreign language, and indeed different students will tend to favor different learning styles. For example, Reid (1987), Melton (1990) and Jones' (1997) investigations with Chinese students and Sharifah Azizah and Wan Zalinay (1995) and Hariharan and Ismail's (2003) studies with Malaysians are all in support of variety of styles used by them. In the same vein, Ellis' (1989) work with German learners and Willing's (1988), as cited in Tabanlioglu (2003), research on immigrants are all proofs to the fact that not only do learning styles vary among the learners but they are also effective in the way learning happens.

**Language proficiency**

Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined Language Proficiency as" the degree of skill with which a person can use a language, such as how well a person can read, write, speak, or understand language" (p. 292). Briere (1972, p.322) described proficiency as:"The degree of competence or the capability in a given language demonstrated by an individual at a given point in time independent of specific textbook, chapter in the book, or pedagogical method". According to Farhady (1983), language proficiency was referred to many factors and which encompasses educational background. On the other hand, Richard (1985) defined it as:"…..the degree of skill with which a person can use a language"(p.159). All of the above cited definitions center on same explanations and are the subject of criticisms.

Karim Hajhashemi, Kourosh, Akef, and Neil Anderson (2012) conducted a research in regards of the relationship between multiple intelligences and reading proficiency of Iranian EFL students. The findings revealed that there is a relationship between reading proficiency of Iranian EFL pre-university students and MI. Moreover, it was found that low achievers have a higher musical-rhythmic intelligence and diligent readers may be more intelligent 'musically' than they more proficient counterparts. Nahid and Zohreh Kasaeian (2010) suggested that more intelligent university students learn a foreign language with more success than their less intelligent peers.

Surprisingly enough, Razmjoo (2008) found that there is no significant relationship between language proficiency and multiple intelligences as a whole factor. He also found that based on the multiple regression analysis, none of the intelligence type could predict the language proficiency. Aliakbari (2012) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ learning style preference and their gender, proficiency level and achievement score. The results revealed that there was a low association between participants' learning style preference (LSP) and proficiency level. According to Heidari Sowreshjani and Naseri (2011), the proficiency level of learners significantly affects the learning style preferences of language learners. In another study, they (2012) also found that sensory styles are the most preferred learning styles for beginning learners, personality styles for intermediate learners , and finally, degree-related styles for advanced-level learners. Mohammadi (2009) conducted a study on the relationship between learning strategies and EFL learners' level of proficiency. The results of his study represented that participants’ use of learning strategies in their study had correlation with their English proficiency level. Adel Abu
Radwan (2011) concluded that there is a relationship between language proficiency level and the overall strategies used by learners and also strategy choice. Moreover, the same results were achieved in a study conducted by Hayati Samian and Tavakoli (2012).

Definitely, all discussions on the mentioned variables so far revolve around their role in skill acquisition. Given the significance of reading skill among the other skills of language, this study was delimited to investigate the relationship among the target variables and reading skill. In the light of this literature, it can be perceived that multiple intelligences, learning styles, learning strategies, and language proficiency are important factors in learning a foreign language. There has been a wide range of studies conducted in the relationship between two of these variables. However, the extent to which these variables relate and affect skill acquisition is still blurred. It appears that discovering the relationship between these variables is a relatively new issue which has recently become important and has drawn attention of English teachers in the era of stylistic and strategic education.

In order to address the synthesis or integration of these traits of EFL learners, four research questions each addressed through respective null hypothesis, were raised which address the relationship among them synthetically or interactively. Statement of the questions is left to the statistical analysis subsection as follows. Generally speaking, the main question is read if there is any relationship among EFL learners’ multiple intelligence, learning styles, learning strategies and language proficiency.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Q1. Is there any statistically significant difference between EFL learners’ language proficiency level and multiple intelligences?

Q2. Is there any statistically significant difference between EFL learners’ language proficiency level and learning styles?

Q3. Is there any relationship between EFL learners’ multiple intelligence, learning styles, and language proficiency?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

In order to run this creational research in design 132 EFL learners from Tehran, Iran were selected based on their performance in TOEFL PBT. They then were divided into two levels (i.e. advanced & upper-intermediate) based on their standing position on the normal distribution curve and the standard deviation measures.

**Instrumentations**

The data required for the study was collected through a language proficiency test (TOEFL PBT), and also two separate questionnaires measuring MI (i.e., Gardner’s MI Inventory), Raid’s (1087)
Perceptual Learning Styles Preference. To make sure of their reliability and validity indices, the K-R21 formula was run to estimate the former as their ratios are shown in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: K-R21 Reliability Indices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest MI 0.67, Pretest Learning Style 0.69, Pretest PBT 0.67, Posttest MI 0.72, 0.82, Posttest Learning Style 0.69, Posttest PBT 0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As to the latter characteristics; validity, given its relative and context-bound nature, the construct validity of each instrument was estimated through running factor analysis and varimax rotation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Factor Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Component</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest PBT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest PBT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest L Style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest L Style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest MI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest MI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>972</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Procedure**

In order to collect the data required for the fulfillment of the objectives, the questionnaires were administered to a total of 186 students. Then, they were asked to take the TOEFL PBT test after a break. Subsequently, a final number of 132 participants, who were considered to be tailored enough to participate in the test, were divided into two language proficiency groups based on their performance on the TOEFL PBT test and the way they answered the questionnaires.

**Data Analysis and Results**

The data collected by the questionnaires were examined along with the TOEFL PBT scores. The Pearson correlation coefficients were applied in order to probe any significant relationship between EFL learners' multiple intelligence, learning styles, learning strategies and language proficiency.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Testing Assumptions**

Four assumptions should be met before one decides to run parametric tests (Field 2009)); 1) the data should be measured on an interval scale; 2) the participants should be independent that is to say their performance on the test is not affected by the performance of other students, 3) the data should enjoy normal distribution and 4) the groups should have homogeneous variances (Field; 2009). The present data are measured on an interval scale and the participants perform independently on the tests. The assumption of normality is also met. Since as displayed in Table 1, the values of skewness and kurtosis are within the ranges of +/- 2 (Bachman 2005).
Table 3: Normality Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest MI</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td></td>
<td>.727</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>-1.192</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Learning Style</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>.647</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.188</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>-1.192</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest PBT</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>-.092</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.686</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>-1.192</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest MI</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>.734</td>
<td></td>
<td>317</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Learning Style</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.686</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The assumption of homogeneity of variances will be discussed when reporting the results.

Addressing the Research Questions

The First Research Question

In order to address the first research question, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run to compare the advanced and upper intermediate students’ mean scores on posttest of multiple intelligences while removing any possible effects of their multiple intelligences as measured through the pretest. ANCOVA requires observation of three more assumptions, i.e. homogeneity of regression slope, linear relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable and homogeneity of variances. As displayed in Scatter Plot 1, the assumption of homogeneity of regression slope is met. Both upper intermediate (upper line) and advanced students (lower line) show the same regression slopes. The R-squared values for the two groups are .94 and .97 (as appeared on the left side of the plot), respectively.

Scatter Plot 1

Homogeneity of Regression Slope Posttest of multiple intelligences by Proficiency Levels with Pretest

The second assumption, i.e. linear relationship between the dependent variable (posttest of multiple intelligences) and covariate (pretest of multiple intelligences), was examined within the
main table of ANCOVA results. The F-observed value for the effect of covariate is significant (F (1, 129) = 1425.64, P = .000 < .05; Partial $\eta^2 = .91$, which represents a large effect size). Based on these results, it can be concluded that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate. Thus, the second assumption is also met.

Table 4: ANCOVA Posttest of Multiple Intelligences by Proficiency Levels with Pretest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest MI</td>
<td>1855.401</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1855.401</td>
<td>1425.647</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof Level</td>
<td>113.813</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>113.813</td>
<td>87.452</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>167.886</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>1.301</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113257.000</td>
<td>132</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And finally the third assumption, i.e. homogeneity of variances, is also met. As displayed in Table 5, the Levene’s F-value of .067 (P = .796 > .05) is not significant.

Table 5: Levene’s Test of Homogeneity of Variances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.067</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>.796</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The F-observed value for the effect of the independent variable (proficiency level), as Table 4 shows, is significant (F (1, 129) = 87.45, P = .000 < .05; Partial $\eta^2 = .40$ which represents a large effect size). Based on these results it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the advanced and upper intermediate students on the posttest of multiple intelligences after controlling for possible effect of their entry ability as measured through the pretest of multiple intelligences. Thus, the first null-hypothesis as there is not any statistically significant difference between EFL learners’ language proficiency level and multiple intelligences is rejected.

As displayed in Table 6 and bar Graph 1, the mean scores for advanced and upper intermediate students on posttest of multiple intelligences are 29.93 and 28.07, respectively. The advanced group outperformed the upper intermediate students on the posttest of multiple intelligences.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics Posttest of Multiple Intelligences by Proficiency Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prof Level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Intermediate</td>
<td>28.078</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>27.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>29.937</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>29.659</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Second Research Question

In order to answer the second research question, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run to compare the advanced and upper intermediate students’ mean scores on the posttest of learning style while removing any possible effects of their learning style as measured through the pretest. As displayed in Scatter Plot 2, the assumption of homogeneity of regression slope is met. Both upper intermediate and advanced students show the same regression slopes. The R-squared values for the two groups are .85 and .87 (as appeared on the left side of the plot) respectively.

The second assumption, i.e. linear relationship between the dependent variable (posttest of learning style) and covariate (pretest of learning style) was examined within the main table of ANCOVA results. As Table 7 shows, the F-observed value for the effect of covariate is significant (F (1, 129) = 824.55, P = .000 < .05; Partial $\eta^2 = .86$, which represents a large effect
size). Based on these results it can be concluded that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate. Thus, the second assumption is also met.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Learning Style</td>
<td>2057.346</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2057.346</td>
<td>824.559</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof Level</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.561</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>321.866</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>2.495</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>137628.000</td>
<td>132</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And finally the third assumption, i.e. homogeneity of variances, is also met. As displayed in Table 8 the Levene’s F-value of .007 (P = .936 > .05) is not significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.007</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>.936</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The F-observed value for the effect of the independent variable (proficiency level) is not significant (F (1, 129) = .339, P = .561 > .05; Partial $\eta^2 = .003$, which represents a weak effect size) (Table 5). Based on these results it can be concluded that there is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the advanced and upper intermediate students on the posttest of learning style after controlling for possible effect of their entry ability as measured through the pretest of learning style. Thus, the second null-hypothesis as there is not any statistically significant difference between EFL learners’ language proficiency level and learning style cannot be rejected.

As displayed in Table 9 and bar Graph 2, the mean scores for advanced and upper intermediate students on posttest of learning style are 32.06 and 31.90, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prof Level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upper Intermediate</td>
<td>31.901</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>31.508-32.294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>32.068</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>31.675-32.461</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Third Research Question

In order to address the third question, the Pearson correlation coefficients were run. Based on the results displayed in Table 13, it can be concluded that:

- A: There is a significant relationship between EFL learners learning style and proficiency (r (130) = .36, P = .000 < .05, which represents a moderate effect size).

- B: There is a significant relationship between EFL learners multiple intelligences and proficiency (r (130) = .28, P = .001 < .05, which represents an almost moderate effect size).

- C: There is not any significant relationship between EFL learners learning styles and multiple intelligences (r (130) = .082, P = .353 > .05, which represents a weak effect size).

Three separate Pearson correlations were run to probe a single research question, the False Detection Rate (FDR) analysis (File 2009) should be run to reduce the inflated error rate caused by multiple application of a single analysis to probe a research question. Although four of the Pearson r-values are reported as significant in Table 10, based on the results displayed in Table 14, it can be concluded that there are only three significant r-values, i.e. relationship between Learning strategy and learning style and multiple intelligences with proficiency.
Table 11: False Detection Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pearson R</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>P-Corrected</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L-Style with Proficiency</td>
<td>.364</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency with MI</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-Style with MI</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.353</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>Non-Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

This study addressed the relationship between EFL learners’ multiple intelligences, learning styles, and language proficiency. Regarding the correlation between EFL learners’ learning styles and language proficiency, the results revealed a significant relationship, which lends support to Toh Peng Yeow, Mark Kiak Min Tan, Li-Cher Loh and Julia Blitz's (2010) findings. Moreover, on the relationship between EFL proficiency and multiple intelligences, the obtained data with P-value of 0.001 and r-value of 0.282 indicates a meaningful relationship. In other words, the proficient English learners maintain a more developed intelligence type or types. This finding lends support to the research conducted by Nahid and Zohreh Kasaeian (2010), who found that more intelligent university students learn a foreign language with more success than their less intelligent peers.

Surprisingly enough, in contrast with the aforementioned findings, Razmjoo (2008) found that there is no significant relationship between language proficiency and multiple intelligences as a whole factor. He also found that based on the multiple regression analysis, none of the intelligence types could predict the language proficiency. Lastly, the respective results revealed the presence of no notable relationship between learning styles and MI, contrary to what was found by Tee, Tze Kiong and Widad, Othman and Yee, Mei Heong (2009) indicating that most of the students prefer to utilize different learning styles with emphasis on Intrapersonal Intelligence for the excellent level and Verbal-Linguistic for the low level.

Putting together all the findings, language instructors are recommended to take over the responsibility of a researcher as well in order to recognize not only their students’ individual differences, but they should also know how to supply the needs of their learners.

**Limitations of the study**

Unfortunately, like most studies, this research also encountered some obstacles during the time it was being conducted. The main barrier to this study in Iran’s context was that some institutes were reluctant to cooperate with the researcher. Moreover, gathering sufficient participants was arduous. Additionally, the validity of questionnaire as a data collection instrument is controversial. On the other hand, the study was limited to the respective centers and participants from Tehran, which is a threat to the validity of the study. Another limitation of the study was that individual characteristics of students were not taken into account while identifying and analyzing their multiple intelligences and learning styles.
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Tee, Tze Kiong and Widad, Othman and Yee, Mei Heong (2009). *Relationship Between Learning Styles and Multiple Intelligences Among Bachelor Of Technology And Education In Universiti Teknologi Malaysia*. In: International Conference on Education Research And practice (ICERP), 10-11 June 2009.


THE INFLUENCE OF ASYNCHRONOUS COMPUTER-MEDIATED VERSUS CONVENTIONAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON TWO IRANIAN LEARNERS’ WRITING ACCURACY

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this case study is to investigate the effects of asynchronous computer-mediated versus conventional corrective feedback on learners’ writing accuracy. Two pre-intermediate female students aged 21 and 23 participated in the study. Both were asked to write one composition per week for a month. Only errors regarding English articles were treated using highlights and comments features of word processor for the first participant receiving e-mail, and red pen for the second participant receiving hard copies. Direct corrective feedback was provided for both electronic and print students. Results revealed that the learner who received feedback via e-mail showed more absorption of the grammatical feedback. The results of this study can be used by teachers and researchers interested in investigating various types of written corrective feedback strategies.

KEYWORDS: Corrective feedback, Asynchronous computer-mediated feedback, Conventional feedback

INTRODUCTION
The role of written corrective feedback (henceforth WCF) in the process of acquiring a second language (L2), has been an issue of notable controversy among theorists and researchers (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2009, 2010; Ferris, 2003, 2006; Krashen, 1984; Lee, 2009; Truscott, 1996, 2004). While corrective feedback (CF) has been widely used as pedagogical means, practical and theoretical objections have been raised to its effectiveness (e.g. Truscott, 1996; 1999; 2004; 2007; 2009).

Teachers of second or foreign languages and researchers have long been maintained that written corrective feedback can help students learn the targeted linguistic forms and gives them the ability to increase the correct use of target structures. Hence, they continuously attempt to find an effective way to provide written WCF to give students opportunity to improve their writing accuracy.

In the process of learning target language, learners possibly make syntactic errors and mistakes. When learners make mistakes, teachers usually try to give students appropriate feedback as to guide them towards the target language. By providing appropriate corrective feedback, teachers can effectively cope with the failure learners indicate between what they receive as input and
what they produce as output (Campillo, 2003). Providing students with corrective feedback facilitates the process of experiencing the effect of what they have produced as a guide to their future output (Brown, 1998). Lightbown and Spada (1990) defined corrective feedback as any indication teachers made to help learners understand that their use of the target language is in error and needs to be corrected.

Traditionally teachers have provided hand-written corrective feedback on students writing, however through the past few years computers have paved the way to educational environments, and after introducing the Internet, attentions were attracted to the benefits technology can bring into educational system, and more specifically language learning. Therefore, studies were conducted to investigate the effects of computer-assisted language learning (CALL), and computer-mediated corrective feedback. At the end of the 20th century, computer-mediated communication (CMC) and the Internet have remolded the language learning processes. Besides information processing, computers were used as a means for communication (Gundez, 2005). Hiltz and Turoff (1978) first coined the term CMC when experimenting on computer conferencing as a tool of communication on the Internet. They defined CMC as a medium for generating, understanding, transmitting, decoding, and encoding information. Barnes (2002) also viewed CMC as a broad range of technologies that have been integrated into human interaction and sharing of information with the use of interconnected networks including e-mail, discussion groups, and real-time chat.

Conventionally CMC is divided into two modes: synchronous (SCMC) and asynchronous (ACMC) (Pfaffman, 2008). Warschauer (2001) provides a definition for different modes of CMC as: (1) "Synchronous computer-mediated communication, by which communication happens in real time via chat or online network; (2) Asynchronous computer-mediated communication, by which communication takes place in a delayed manner for instance by e-mail; and (3) The reading and writing of documents online" (p. 207). Asynchronous CMC (ACMC) provides opportunities for both interlocutors to review, revise, or even drop the communication before sending information (Heisler & Crabill, 2006). This feature of ACMC involves learners in the process of critical thinking, and problem solving (Lee, 2004), since learners focus on more purposeful communication. Lee (2004) also pointed that ACMC provides opportunities for learners to take notice of erroneous structures, and therefore, output modification such as self-repairing can happen. Moreover, as adopted in language learning and teaching, CMC is considered to have more positive impacts on learners, since students feel less bored in a more interesting environment compared to class restricted one. Results obtained from research in recent years indicated that learners hone their writing accuracy in specific targeted areas when teachers provided written corrective feedback (e.g. Ellis et al, 2008; Bitchener, 2008).

Studies which have been done on e-mail communication confirmed that electronic tools are beneficial for learners' productivity as measured by the number of words they produced (González-Bueno, 1998; González-Bueno & Pérez, 2000). St. John and Cash (1995) conducted a research on an adult learner exchanging e-mail with a native speaker, and found out that the learner improved his language ability because he studied new vocabularies and grammatical structures when receiving e-mails, and uses them to improve the content of his letters. In the
same vein, Nagata (1993, 1997) reported positive findings in her study of 14 second year Japanese students’ acquisition of Japanese particles. Students were divided into two groups: one receiving online metalinguistic feedback by means of online particle exercises, and the other receiving translation feedback on the same online particle errors. The result of the study showed that the group which received metalinguistic electronic feedback outperformed those of translation group. Similarly, Sauro (2009) also in a study reported that asynchronous and synchronous CMC are perfect environments for both teachers and learners, since they facilitate the occurrence of noticing, and increases the learners' awareness of their errors. Another study by Razzaghifard and Razzaghifard (2011) examined corrective feedback in a computer-mediated communicative setting, and indicated that students who received computer-mediated corrective perform better than the students receiving no feedback.

As has been noted, although many studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of different types of WCF, there is still a matter of controversy over what types of WCF is more beneficial to students' writing accuracy. As Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005) stated, further research is needed to examine the influence of different types of corrective feedback with less advanced learners, therefore; the present study aims at investigating the effects of asynchronous CMC in comparison to the conventional pen-and-paper approach on students' writing accuracy to find out which of these two types of feedback is more helpful in retentiveness of targeted item.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

Is there any significant difference between learner's writing performance receiving asynchronous computer-mediated corrective feedback and learner's writing performance receiving conventional feedback?

**METHODOLOGY**

This case study was conducted with two adult Iranian students learning English as a foreign language. Before the study begins, Oxford Placement Test (2007) was given to the students, and the results showed that they both were pre-intermediate learners. The study was done considering direct corrective feedback in two different contexts, namely asynchronous and conventional to investigate which one is more effective to enhance the writing accuracy of the learners.

*Design*

The focus of this study was on correcting students' written work. The researcher targeted English articles as a grammatical category and made correction on errors related to this element. This target structure was chosen because students belong to different English language proficiency levels experience difficulty in using English article system (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron. 2005; Butler, 2002).
Participants
Two adult EFL learners participated in this study. They were randomly chosen among a number of students, and according to Oxford Placement Test (2007) they were identified as pre-intermediate learners. Both were female and Persian native speakers.

Procedure
Participants of the study were randomly assigned to one of the two types of error treatment method. Asynchronous computer-mediated corrective feedback was applied using e-mail, and errors were corrected directly using word processor comments and highlighting features. Conventional corrective feedback, on the other hand was applied using red pen, and error correction was provided directly. The study was done during four sessions, each lasted about 40 minutes. During each session students were given pictures and were asked to describe what was happening in the pictures. Picture one was showing a beach scene, picture two a camping scene, picture three a mountain scene, and picture four a picnic scene. Pictures were chosen because students were obliged to describe people and objects, and therefore; they needed to use articles. Participants were supposed to write a minimum of 150 word composition in 40 minutes. While researcher was correcting the compositions, only errors related to the targeted structure were treated until the last session. A week after each session, compositions with correction on targeted structure were delivered to students.

Treatment
One of the students was chosen randomly to send and receive her compositions via e-mail. Errors related to the targeted structure were provided using highlights and comments. The other student participated in the study was asked to hand her compositions in hard copies, and to receive them in hard copies as well. Errors related to the targeted structure were treated using red pen.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
To analyze the data, obligatory contexts for articles were determined by an educated English native speaker. The categorization model of articles used in this study was that of (Nassaji & Swain, 2000). They provided a model in which, they categorized articles into four types: a-an-the-0 (zero). Table 4.1 shows the number of obligatory contexts as well as the number and percentage of correct instance of articles used by two students in each of the four compositions. There were significant differences between the performances of the two students across their four compositions. Although both students were recognized as pre-intermediate learners, according to the Oxford Placement Test (2007); they were different regarding their knowledge of English articles. The conventional feedback student produced more correct instances of articles in the first composition than the asynchronous feedback student (77.4 vs. 65.3).
While in the first composition, conventional feedback student outperformed her asynchronous counterpart in using articles (77.4 vs. 65.3), eventually; the asynchronous feedback student had better performance her counterpart and improved her accuracy by the forth composition, and outperformed the conventional feedback student (90.4 vs. 72.0).

Accordingly, it is believed that asynchronous corrective feedback via e-mail can be an advantageous way of correcting students' errors, since students will have opportunity to relate to their previous errors, and the corrected forms conveniently by using their e-mail account. They also might have less problems reading their instructor's handwriting; and therefore, can understand the given feedback effortlessly. Results obtained from the present study support the findings of a study conducted by Schultz (2000) and Tuzi (2004) who found that the writing ability of their participants improved better in an on-line environment.

**CONCLUSION**

The data analysis of the study indicates that asynchronous computer-mediated corrective feedback was more effective regarding the improvements of learners' writing accuracy. The learner who received asynchronous computer-mediated corrective feedback showed less accuracy in using English articles in her first composition than the other student who received conventional corrective feedback. However, as they reached their fourth composition, students had a rather opposite performance. Asynchronous feedback student displayed more accuracy in the use of articles in her last composition. Results of the study are in line with a the results of a study conducted by Yeh and Lo (2009) which indicated that the participants who received online corrective feedback performed significantly better than those who received the paper-based error correction feedback on recognizing writing errors.
REFERENCES


THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE INTERPRETATION OF CONCEPTUAL NOUN- NOUN COMBINATIONS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF COLLOCATIONAL KNOWLEDGE IN IRANIAN EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

This study is an attempt to investigate the relationship between the interpretation of conceptual noun-noun combinations and the development of collocational knowledge in Iranian EFL students. To accomplish this goal, 60 advanced subjects, both 30 male and 30 females, were selected randomly from among EFL students in Sistan and Balochestan University. Based on their performance on OPT, they were assigned to two groups: control group and experimental group. Then a collocation test was administered to ensure the subjects’ homogeneity of English collocations. The experimental group received the treatment on English collocations and conceptual combinations. It consisted of five 90-minute sessions in five successive weeks. A conceptual combination test was administered to both groups as the post-test. The null hypothesis of the study stated that the development of collocational knowledge has no effects on the interpretation of conceptual noun-noun combination. The data obtained were subjected to t-test. The results rejected the null hypothesis of the study. The findings showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the obtained t-value (i.e., \( t = 2.955 \), \( p = .005 \)). So it can be concluded that the development of collocational knowledge affects the interpretation of noun-noun conceptual combinations. The findings of this study can directly benefit teachers, textbook writers, material developers, and syllabus designers.

KEYWORDS: Conceptual combination, Noun-noun combinations, Collocational knowledge

INTRODUCTION

Language is a multifaceted phenomenon which comprises of connected features. Each of these features has a role in learning. Second language learning research may help language teachers to choose the most appropriate teaching methods, the construction of teaching materials, and the design and execution of teaching techniques (Cook, 1991, p. 2). An overall aspect of language is that individuals generate new combinations and listeners have no or slight trouble comprehending them (Wisniewski & Love, 1998). All languages in the world make use of collocations. As Ellis (1997) puts it "collocation is a very important principle underlying the structure of language and
accounting for much of its patterning and connections. Larson (1984) considers that recognizing which words go together is a significant portion of comprehending a text. Simple concepts are denoted by single words such as "apple", "fruit". But simple concepts make only a small fraction of our conceptual repertoire. Most of our concepts are "composite", that is they are denoted by more than one word such as "red fruit" (Smith, 1988).

Native speakers and learners of a language know the significance of getting the word true. They need good skills of vocabulary to make sentences and to comprehend them. It is important part of understanding meaning to know which words should go together (Mollanazar, 1997). Collocations function so significantly and so subtly in conveying meaning that are sometimes referred to as "nerves" of a text where grammar is the "bone" and text is the "flesh" (Newmark, 1988).

Lewis (2000) claims that collocations offer a more useful and overall method to language teaching prospectus than grammar for the reason that grammar offers merely the most general instructions of language. Collocational patterns comprise some of the changeability not apprehended in the rules plus making available direction for language usage which may be grammatically right but not satisfactory. Most scholars seem to agree that students have problems when they learn a second or foreign language. Lack of appropriate knowledge of words affects L2 acquisition and consequently poses many problems for students while combining words together. Grains and Redman (1988) point out that multi-word units may be used by L2 speakers in inappropriate semantic discourse context, leading to communicative errors.

Learning collocations can arise challenges intralingually and interlingually. "Collocation" defines vocabulary relations and combination of the words but combining lexicons that are compatible in semantic and do not always make acceptable combinations. For instance, "powerful coffee" is not acceptable but "strong coffee" is (Gitsaki & Taylor, 2000).

Each year many noun-noun combinations move in the English language and prolong the everyday lexis we be required to define our world: new add-ons such as, soccer mom, and notebook computer (Keane & Costello, 1999).

Cannon (1987) claims that nearly 55% of entries in are compounds of present words. Perhaps the most important reason for the entrance of new combinations is the need to denote to some thing or feature of the world. If a new customer is produced such as a palm top computer, then individuals require a name for it (Keane & Costello, 1999)

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

When we are learning our first language, we are developing concepts through which we are learning the ways our language community expresses those concepts. We may later use the language in innovative ways to bring new concepts to our fellows. When we approach another language, we begin to understand and appreciate this role of language. We already possess
many concepts and we seek ways of expressing in the new language. Since language is embedded in a way of life and thought, a culture, we frequently find that it is not easy to express these concepts in the new language; yet the language seems to lend itself with ease to the expression of concepts which are new to us, or are expansions or reductions of concepts with which we are familiar (Rivers, 1981, p. 463).

To learn the vocabulary the students should learn the concept. They should learn that words do not label things but classify concepts (Rivers, 1981). Cognitive theories are clearly among the most appropriate psychological theories to explain the teaching of concepts (Finocchiaro & Bonomo, 1973).

In Bruner's theory, for example, concept learning involves forming categories on the basis of what is common to different events. Not surprisingly, Robert Gagne (1985) suggests that repeated experience with characteristics and perceptual characteristics play roles in the formation and extension of lexical concepts and categories.

Sanchez and Lopez (1993) worked on the relationship between teaching conception and the element that can affect its meaning. Making connections is the ability gets the learner ready to challenge novel information, to realize its rudimentary association, and to decrease its difficulties.

**Conceptual Combination**

Our ability to make and understand conceptual combinations that combine formerly isolated conceptions into components that direct fresh thoughts and arouse new thoughts is an outstanding trait of human perception. Because combinations can define things that were formerly uncategorized for example home page, couch potato and, soccer mom, they can cause enlargement of the language and have even been connected to creativity (Rothenberg, 1979; Donaldson, 1991; Mobley, Doaros & Mumford, 1992; Mumford, Baughman, Maher, Costanza, & Supinski, 1997).

People regularly use combination of the concepts to make novel comprehensible demonstrations, as in comprehending an utterance. There has been much new attention in one specific feature of conceptual combination that is the interpretation of new noun-noun combinations (Gerrig & Murphy, 1984; Murphy, 1988; Smith, Osherson, Rips, & Keane, 1988; Shoben, 1993; Wisniewski, 1997; Shoben & Gagne, 1997).

Creating new combinations and minimizing difficulty in understanding them is an overall characteristic of language. Conceptual combination includes retrieving two or more concepts and shaping how they' come together to make a novel concept. For instance, to comprehend a new phrase such elephant tie, someone might use the combination elephant and tie in a manner to mean "a tie worn by an elephant" or "a tie which an elephant picture was printed on it, "many elephants tied to each other ", or even "a large tie" (Wisniewski, 1996).

Realizing how individuals join concepts is significant for many reasons. Firstly, joining familiar language terms into new combinations is a normal method to spread a language (Downing, 1977).
Such phrases often apprehend the shifting features of actuality. Doorway smoker, notebook computer, and drug dog are some new instances in dominant print. Downing (1977) advocates that the making new arrangements "works as the back door into the lexicon".

Second, learning how concepts join together can offer a method to make and clarify principles about how concepts are characterized. For instance, Medin and Shoben (1988) revealed that interrelated properties were significant in adjudging the comparative typicality of combinations (e.g., metal spoon vs. wooden spoon) regarding particular concepts (e.g., spoon). Showing differences between the organization of super-ordinates and basic level concepts, Markman and Wisniewski (1995) utilized a conceptual combination task. Generally, work on conceptual combination can offer indications to conceptual arrangement which may not have been revealed by simply learning single concepts.

It will be a thought-provoking task to achieve a good comprehension of how people chain concepts. A few direct rules exist for combining one concept with others, particularly when they are nouns (Downing, 1977; Murphy, 1988; Wisniewski, & Gentner, 1991). For instance, the similar noun can be chained with others to make a variety of connotations: corn oil, baby oil, and lamp oil are three combinations which mean differently the first one means "oil extracted from corn" but the second means "oil polished on babies", and the third combination means "oil for light lamps". This example does not establish any simple rules for how the first word combine with the other nouns to imply these meanings. Instead, the meanings of nouns restrain the methods that they can be reasonably joint. (Gerrig & Murphy, 1992; Murphy, 1990).

How precisely do people chain nouns? One category of models emphases on groupings that are conjunctions of their components, supposing that they receive a subset of components' characteristics (Martin & Billman, in Press; Thagard, 1984). While these representations provide evidence for the way they join together as conjunctive combinations, most combinations are not conjunctive. For instance, in dog sleds combination we intend sleds not dogs, and in apartment turtles we mean turtles not apartments, etc. In its place, these phrases are regularly interpreted by defining reasonable' relationships between the components (Murphy, 1988).

For instance a reasonable meaning for "rabbit turtle" is a "rabbit that lives in an apartment". This meaning apprehend a relationship (i.e., lives in) between the components and does not denote something that is either an apartment or a rabbit.

Subsequently, a second category of models implies noun- noun combinations meaning as connecting a relationship between the two nouns. One method has been to develop a categorization scheme of relationships. A small set of nonconcrete relationships shape familiar, lexicalized groupings by the help of a diversity of linguistic interpretations of nominal compounds. (Kay & Zimmer, 1976; Gleitman & Gleitman,1970; Levi, 1978). For instance, Levi (1978) recognized16 abstract relationships that can be used to categorize the implications of numerous familiar groupings, containing the IN, CAUSE, and MAKE relation combinations like, mountain stream, electric shock, and honey bee. Newly, the psychological rationality of these abstract relationships have been scrutinized by researchers (Coolen, van Jaarsveld,
For instance, Gagne and Shoben (1993) advocate a significant, first phase in the clarification of a noun-noun phrase is the initiation of these nonconcrete relationships. This conclusion was descended from studies including new combinations that were categorized along with Levi's taxonomy (Wilkenfeld & Ward, 2001).

A second technique in this classification interprets conceptual combination as a sort of slot filling. In this method, nouns are characterized as structures with slots and fillers (Wisniewski & Gentner, 1991). A structure is a knowledge organization that signifies a conception of a conventional state or entity (Minsky, 1975; Rumelhart, 1986). Slots and fillers are proportions of the state or entity accompanied by their representative standards. For instance, a structure for elephant might consist of the slots SIZE, COLOR, and LOCATION with the representative standards large, gray, and zoo, correspondingly. Relations might also be stated in the middle of slots and fillers (Brachman, 1978; Murphy, 1988; Barsalou & Hale, 1992). For instance, the slot SHAPE, in" elephant" might stipulate how the numerous parts of the elephant (themselves denoted as slots) are formed to provide an elephant its typical shape (Wisniewski, 1996).

In line with these representations, one understands an arrangement by filling one of the openings of the head perception with the converter conception. For instance, one could infer basement dog by filling a slot in dog (e.g., a slot like HABITAT) with the converter perception basement. Consequently, the filled slots apprehends a relationship between the objects represented by the converter and head perceptions. Numerous models apprehend such relationships through slot filling (Brachman, 1979; Finin, 1980; Cohen & Murphy, 1984; Murphy, 1988).

**Schema Modification Theory (Murphy, 1988, 1990)**
The head noun in this theory is signified via a fundamental set of slots that denote numerous aspects or proportions. Through conceptual combination, the modifier is located in the appropriate slot in the head noun. For instance, apartment dog is understood through filling the slot of HABITAT for dog in the schema with the modifier apartment. If no suitable slot is establish in the head noun, the expression is irrational. When the slot-filling procedure has been accomplished, amplification may happen wherein the joint conception is improved by concluding supplementary features that are not unswervingly designated by the modifier (Murphy, 1988, 1990).

**The CARIN Theory**
The CARIN theory (Gagne & Shoben 1997) accepts that the conceptual combination includes the collection of thematic relationship that designates the way modifier and head noun are associated. This assumption started at least in 1892: "In the English language, it is very common to name a thing, or express an attribute or assert an action or manner of action by ignoring insignificant or connecting parts of a full expression, and using only the principle elements in more or less subjective association and frequently in inverted order" (Teall, 1892, p. 5). For instance, we utilized clock box in place of 'box for clocks', or table cover instead of 'cover of a table'. Kay and Zimmer (1976, p.79) and several others approved this view (e.g., Lees, 1963; Gleitman & Gleitman, 1970; Downing, 1977; Levi, 1978; Warren, 1978).
In line with Levi's (1978) approach, the CARIN theory approves thematic relationships as overall rather than specific entity. The choice of the relationship "head noun LOCATED modifier" formulates the source for comprehending the combination mountain laurel.

The modifier does not turn into a filler inside the head noun conception, contrasting the schema-modification theory. To be precise, the combination apartment dog is understood by first choosing the relationship noun LOCATED converter, instead of filling a slot representing HABITAT. Accordingly, the combined conception is not a reproduction of head noun schema with several slots modified. In its place, the combined conception is a recently shaped illustration that is related to the novel modifier and head noun conceptions. A significant hypothesis of the CARIN theory is that individuals practice understanding about the relationships with which the modifier is normally used and, thus, the modifier's former convention in numerous combinations powerfully effects the simplicity with which a relationship can be chosen. Definite relationships are more frequently used with specific modifiers than are further relationships. For instance, when garden is used as a modifier. The relationship utilized to understand the combination is most frequently the relation noun LOCATED modifier (for example, garden flower). Garden is rarely used with the relation noun ABOUT modifier (e.g., garden magazine). Gagne and Shoben (1997) revealed that inset upper the occurrence of a relation for a specific modifier, the simpler it was to utilize that relation to understand a combination. Alternatively, the occurrence of a relationship for the head noun had no consequence. Correspondingly, Gagne (1999) stated that new contact to a combination with the similar head noun and similar relationship as the objective combination did not produce any longer instructing than did current contact to a combination with the similar head noun and a dissimilar relationship.

When the relationship has been chosen, characteristics of the recently shaped conception can be understood. The relationship shows a crucial part in recognizing how the recently shaped conception varies from other parts of the head noun set. For instance, if adolescent surgeon is understood as "a doctor who is an adolescent" then characteristic e.g. "young" is added to the joined concept. Yet, if the same phrase is understood such as "a doctor for adolescents", then a unlike set of characteristics will develop obtainable. In both combinations, the structures that are firstly obtainable are those that recognized the modified conception for other parts of the head noun classification (see Gagne & Murphy, 1996; Springer & Murphy, 1992).

The Dual-Process Theory

The Dual-process theory (Wisniewski, 1996) is theoretically close to the schema-modification theory since the head noun is characterized as slots and fillers. Yet, dissimilar the schema-modification theory, the dual-process theory theorizes that a combination is combined through one of two distinct procedures: relationship connecting and property representing. Since the theory does not shape expectations about how these two procedures work, it is not flawless whether merely one of processing is tried or whether both happen simultaneously (Wisniewski, & Love, 1998).

The relationship connecting procedure is close to the schema-modification theory as it includes "a slot to be filled in the head noun concept with the modifier concept" (Wisniewski, 1996, pp.
Therefore, this procedure is reasonably dissimilar to the procedure defined in the CARIN theory. Though there has been indication for the use of relationships through theoretical combinations (Gagne, 1999; Gagne, & Shoben, 1997; Gerrig & Murphy, 1992), problems are existed to associate with the relationship-connecting procedure as it is offered in the dual-process theory. Since the relationship-connecting procedure catches a lot of its representative expectations from schema-modification theory, it receives the difficulties related with this former theory (Gagne, 1999; Gagne & Shoben, 1997).

**Interpretation of Conceptual N-N Combinations**

Conceptual N-N combinations may yield one or more of the following interpretations: Relationship-Linking in which the constituent concepts play complementary roles in some thematic relations. For example, shoe store which means a "store for selling shoes". Property Interpretation in which a property is projected from one concept or the other. For example whale boat which means "a very large boat". Hybridization in which the combination is seen as a cross blend between the constituents. The new concept involves the combination of several features of both parent concepts. For example, female student which means "someone who is both a female and a student" (Wisniewsky, 1997b).

There are two important reasons for studying how concepts connect to each other first, it provision of the method for exploring characteristics of concepts (Hampton, 1987; Medin & Shoben, 1988; Murphy, 1988; Markman & Wisniewski, 1997). For instance, conceptual combination studies have recognized methods in which standard theories need to be prolonged (Medin & Shoben, 1988) along with modifications between the arrangement of super-ordinates and rudimentary level conceptions (Markman & Wisniewski, 1997).

Second, new combinations naturally happen in expansive settings and work as a selection of functions (Wisniewski, 1997). They are utilized to entitle meaningfully novel classifications, such as in the instance concerning ostrich meat. These phrases and fresh arrangements of old expressions are utilized to capture modifications which may come to be common. Combinations similarly deliver information in a brief and well-organized way. For instance, district chooses for parking one's car while joining a football game is known as football parking. Although this expression is elliptical, person who reads mostly realize what it meant (Wisniewski & Love, 1998). Convinced to end thinking in terms of individual words. ELT has always recognized two kinds of collocations where the forms have been phrasal and verbs clear-idioms. All falling outside those two classifications used to be suitably but incomprehensibly considered "idiomatic" (Hill, 1999).

**Collocational Competence**

We understand the conception of communicative competence. Nevertheless possibly we had better enhance the conception of collocational competence to our rational. Loss of competence in this part leads the students toward structural mistakes since they generate extended statements for the reason that they do not distinguish the collocations which convey exactly what they want to express (Hill, 1999).
RESEARCH QUESTION

The question posed in this study is as follow: "What is the effect of the development of collocational knowledge on the interpretation of conceptual noun-noun combinations?"

Regarding the above-mentioned research question, the following null hypothesis was proposed to be tested in this study.

H0: The development of collocational knowledge has no effect on the interpretation of conceptual noun–noun combinations.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects and materials

Sixty subjects, 30 male and 30 female, advanced EFL senior students of the Faculty of Literature of Sistan and Baluchestan University, aged between 21 and 24 were selected randomly from among 130 students and assigned to two groups through administering the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (Allen, 1992). A collocation test was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of their collocational knowledge. The two groups were then named experimental and control groups.

The materials and tools of the study consisted of instructional materials and measurement tools. The instructional materials were chosen from the book The Words You Need by Rudzka, Channell, Putsey and Ostyn. Also 30 simple concepts and composite concepts were chosen and taught to the experimental group (EG). The measurement tools were an Oxford Placement Test, a collocation test, and a conceptual combination test. The Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (Allen, 1992) was employed as a pretest to ensure the subjects' linguistic homogeneity. The test has proved to be highly effective initial placement instrument and was checked against Kuder-Richardson coefficient (KR-21) as an estimate of reliability.

The Collocation test included two sections: a) fill-in-the-blank items. This section included 20 items and the subjects were required to supply an appropriate collocate which best completed each item. b) Multiple-choice items. This section included 20 multiple-choice items. Each item consisted of an incomplete sentence. This incomplete sentence was followed by four options. The subjects were asked to mark the correct option on the answer. This test was administered to check the subjects' knowledge of the English collocations. This test was developed by the researcher. The split-half technique was used in order to determine the internal consistency of the collocation test, and its overall reliability was \( r = 0.85 \). Conceptual N-N Combination Test included 25 multiple-choice items. The subjects received one mark for each correct answer. It should be mentioned that the collocation test had 40 items. And the conceptual combination had 25 items. There was no penalty for wrong answers.

Procedure

The experimental group received the treatment, but the control group received no treatment. The treatment involved five 90-minute sessions held in five successive weeks. In each session, one unit of the book The Words You Need was taught. The subjects' background knowledge, both
linguistic and conceptual, was activated. One technique employed to do this was asking the subjects some questions. Also, some concepts were selected from the reading passages in each unit. Then by using different techniques, the researcher sought to get across the meaning of concepts. The concepts were divided into four principal parts: things, events, attributes, and relations.

The Conceptual Noun-Noun Combination Test was developed by the researcher and consisted of 25 multiple-choice items. This test was given to all subjects, both experimental group and control group, as the posttest. Four possible interpretations which were given for each conceptual combination included: relation interpretation, property interpretation, ambiguous interpretation (property or relation), and hybrid. The subjects were required to decide the appropriate interpretations. The split-half method was used in order to determine the internal consistency of the conceptual combination test and its overall reliability was $r = .75$.

Data Analysis
The following data analysis procedures, both descriptive and inferential, were employed to analyze the findings of the study. The subjects' performance on the pretest was compared with several measures. Tables are provided to report the basic descriptive data for the scores of the subjects on these measures, i.e., measures of central tendency and dispersion. A t-test was run to determine the possible significant differences in the performance of the subjects on the conceptual combination test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
The basic statistics and the t-test are reported, and finally, the details of results and findings are discussed and elaborated on through descriptive and inferential statistics.

Descriptive Statistics
Tables 1 and 2 display the descriptive statistics for the subjects' scores on the pretest and posttest and the overall performance of the two groups including measures of central tendency and dispersion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.47</td>
<td>4.041</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.40</td>
<td>5.062</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.80</td>
<td>3.458</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.93</td>
<td>4.034</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to determine the distribution of the differences between the means of the two groups and whether or not there was any significant difference between the performance of the subjects on the pretest and posttest, the following inferential statistics were obtained.

**T-test Results**

In order for the researcher to make sure that both groups were homogeneous, a t-test was run to check whether there was any significant difference between the means of the two groups on the pretest (see Table 1). Table 3 displays the result of this t-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>tobs.</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>0.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The t-value results indicated that the difference between the means of the two groups was not significant on the pretest ($t$-observed = .056, $P$ = .955). Therefore, it was inferred that the two groups were homogeneous in the initial state.

In another attempt to compare the performance of the two groups (experimental and control) on conceptual N-N combination test, another t-test was run to find the mean difference between the performances of the two groups. Table 4 displays the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>tobs.</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>2.955</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The t-value results demonstrated that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group on the posttest ($t$-observed = 2.955, $P$ = .005).

**Discussion**

Considering the results of the study, we can see that the subjects in the experimental group, who were exposed to EST significantly outperformed the control group who received no treatment. The overall results of the study, the t-test run, seems to reject the hypothesis of the study and it seems that special attention to development of collocational knowledge and interpretation of conceptual noun-noun combinations will lead to better performance of the subjects.

Because conceptual combinations are especially common, it is essential to understand how they are interpreted. Additionally, by investigating such combination, it is possible to define the amount to which the form of the understanding and the subjects' collocational knowledge are interrelated. This study provides evidence to suggest that there is a direct relationship between
the interpretation of conceptual noun-noun combinations and the development of collocational knowledge.

Those subjects who had a stronger command of the English collocations were more likely to find the right interpretation(s) between the constituents of conceptual noun-noun combinations.

The findings also suggest that there is a strong bias toward the use of relation connecting through the clarification of modifier-noun combinations. Relation interpretations are easier than property interpretations. These statistics are beneficial for assessing the dual-process theory (Wisniewski, 1996; Wisniewski & Love, 1998) and the CARIN theory (Gagne & Shoben, 1997; Gagne, 1999).

The results of this study showed that most subjects in both control and experimental groups had a strong bias to find a thematic relation between the constituents of conceptual noun-noun combinations. More than 60% of the interpretations derived by the subjects in both groups involved relation interpretation. In those cases which more than one kind of interpretation could be derived, the subjects found only relation interpretation. This finding is in line with Wisniewski and Gentner (1991) who propose that interpreting combinations by relation is a normal approach for understanding conceptual combinations and individuals desire this approach. Relation interpretations are preferred to property interpretations and challenge the dual-process theory's assertion that property mapping is a ordinarily utilized approach.

One of the strategies which people use in understanding conceptual combinations is property mapping in which people attribute to the head. The results of this study contradict the dual-process theory's claim that property interpretation is more common than relation interpretation.

The results of the study showed that most of the subjects in control group were not able to derive the appropriate interpretation. In the case of ambiguous interpretations, the subjects in the control group could only find the relation interpretation even though there were two possible interpretations. But the subjects in the experimental group could derive both kinds of interpretations. Gagne (2000) asserts that it is not essential to postulate that interpretation of relation and property interpretation originate from two sets of procedures.

CONCLUSION
This study offers a new insight and sheds light on the nature of conceptual combination and different interpretations of conceptual noun-noun combinations both for theoretical and practical purposes. Any language includes simple and composite concepts. The need for the learners' awareness of different relations between the concepts and the way they are combined seems to be very crucial in learning a second/foreign language, i.e., the study of the conceptual combinations will help learners extend their knowledge of these combinations.

The findings of this study have demonstrated that the experimental group which received treatment on conceptual combinations and use of collocations showed a better performance.
than the control group which received no treatment. The more the subjects were involved in learning meaning components and relations between concepts and the way concepts were combined, the better they performed on the test.

Cook (1991, p. 4) has asserted that, "L2 learning research is a scientific discipline that tries to describe how people learn language. It cannot decide issues that are outside its domain. While it may contribute to the understanding of teaching goals, it is itself neutral between them".

Study on conceptual combination is at a comparatively early phase of improvement. Yet, significant improvement has been made in recent years towards comprehending how perceptions as stimulated through words meanings interact when located together in phrases. It is obvious that no simple set of conformational instructions will be sufficient to explain the meaning of complex concepts. However by explicating the strategies that can be employed in combining concepts, we can explain how the meanings of combinations relate to their constituent parts.

To sum up, this study set out to shed some light on the process of conceptual combination and the development of collocational knowledge, nevertheless, it does not claim to be comprehensive. More detailed and controlled studies are essentially needed to be conducted.

Limitations of the study
Like any other study, some inevitable limitations, which may raise new questions for further researches in the field in the future, were imposed on this study. Several limitations are present in this study like short duration and failure to consider personal variables. All data in this study have been collected from selected advanced English learners studying at Sistan Baluchestan University, Iran. So the result obtained by studying this population may not be generalizable to others who differ significantly in terms of factors such as levels of general proficiency or vocabulary size.

REFERENCES


TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT IN COMPUTER SCIENCE TEXTS FROM ENGLISH IN TO PERSIAN ON THE BASIS OF HOUSE'S TAXONOMY OF FIELD

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ABSTRACT
A major amount of translation work all over the world is not poetry or novel translation but technical, scientific, and specialized translation. The reason is the fast paced growth of science and technology and the growing need of all nations for information. However, from Lexical, syntactic and textual perspective, sometimes great difficulties in translations quality are seen. The present study was conducted to investigate translation quality of two Persian translations of computer textbooks, through the comparison of Lexical, syntactic and textual features of field. The researchers have used House's (1997) model of translation quality assessment to evaluate the quality of field for each one of translations. The results of the research showed that the computer engineering professor has translated the texts, significantly with more lexical, textual and syntactic Errors than the computer engineer with translation training. Obviously, there is more semantic, syntactic and cohesive failures on translation A, based on the Frequency of Errors. It was also found over 50 percent of two technical translation Errors on the three cases of mistranslations, Lose of cohesion and syntactic interference in the target text.

KEYWORDS: translation, translation quality assessment, technical translation, computer science.

INTRODUCTION
Throughout history written and spoken translation have played a crucial role in inter human communication. (Munday,2001) a lot of people feel that they can translate just because they may have a basic knowledge of language. This type of misconception is found especially, among the educated groups such as doctors and Engineers.

Hence, different researchers have tried to find a way for assessing the quality of products, and this has led to the need for defining standards for assessment. For this, linguists like many other scientists, philosophers and theorists have developed models to answer the human needs for
assessment by inventing new methods, tools and models. Since different genres and registers have different characteristics, linguists have developed different models respectively. The House (1997) model of translation quality assessment is the methodology of analysis chosen here to compare the quality of two translations of technical texts and more specifically computer science texts. The nature of computer texts demands transfer of information in the specific sense. the incentive for this the great pitfalls seen regarding Lexical, syntactic and textual features of field, that need to be analyzed separately.

The present study tried to: concentrate on the translation knowledge of two technical translators with different levels of knowledge on translation and computer science, to compare their translation quality based on the frequency of errors related to field.

The main purpose of this study is to show failure or success of two different Persian technical translators by accounting and comparison of different Errors of Field taxonomy (No Explanation of technical terms, Transfer Errors of specific English names and terms, Use of Foreign loan words for general words, Omission of Word, phrase and paragraphs, Addition of lexical items, sentences and paragraphs, Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations, No split of long lengthy Persian sentences to shorter ones, source text syntactic interference in to the target text, Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text). The significance of this study is to show the potential problems in technical translation in order to provide information about these issues to both translators and computer Engineers.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Technical translation covers the translation of many kinds of specialized texts in science and technology, and also in other disciplines such as economics and medicine (Williams and Chesterman, 2002). It is believed, as stated by Williams and Chesterman (2002), that the translation of these texts needs a high level of subject knowledge, and a mastery of the relevant terminology. There are other scholars, however, who believe that additional types of mastery are needed for a technical translator (Bédard 1986, Kastberg 2009, Stolze, 2009). Bédard (cited in Hatim and Mason, 1996) explores the myth of technical translation being a matter of one for one exchange of technically precise vocabulary tokens. Hatim and Mason imply that in different areas of translation the common thread is communication (Hatim & Mason, 1996) and for this reason there is similarity between these areas. This means that in their view there exist similarities between literary translation and technical translation. Translating technical texts in the professional environment or in scientific communication is more than handling terminology (Stolze, 2009). For instance, a non-technical collocational term such as "license plate" which indicates a specific number that is marked on each American cars or trucks to verify the legitimacy of driving in the country (According to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005) has got a false equivalent "شماره صفحه"/(shomareh-safhe/) in the second target text by "Jafarnejade ghomi" so the acceptable equivalent based on the target text is: "شماره پلاک خودرو"/(shomareh-pelake-khodro/).

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Understanding the source text is the first step in the process of translating and this step could only be taken by mastery in the source language and mastery in the subject domain, for instance, in the first target text "مهندسی نرم افزار" has been translated for "staff" by "Dr salkhordeh-haghighi". Unfortunately, it was simply a bad mistake for a technical translator to do it. The only appropriate translation seem to be "کارمندان".

Having studied two international American textbooks, firstly "Software Engineering: a practitioner's approach", and secondly "Network security essential: applications and standards", and also their Persian corresponding translations by two educated and semi educated translators; the researcher has faced serious problems in Persian translations. Textbooks are important sources of information for university students but unfortunately majority of technical students are unable to use original textbooks because lack of English language knowledge. On the other hand, huge amounts of Persian translations has the low quality and the students cannot make use of them and, therefore, they are only dependent on the knowledge of the instructor of the course. Through this, the researcher has decided to focus on the translation quality assessment of field taxonomy of house (1997).

Translation evaluation has long been carried on mainly as a subjective activity, and the criteria used for evaluation have been vague. Outside the academic world subjective approaches are still used, but in recent decades academic translation evaluation has evolved towards increasingly objective approaches. (Hurtado Albirand, Martínez Melis, 2001). Several proposals for translation quality analysis have been put forward, but few of them have been developed into a practical model of translation analysis and evaluation.

House’s (1997) model was chosen as the means of analysis for two reasons. Firstly, it seemed to be one of the few models for translation quality assessment which present both the criteria for translation assessment and the way the model can be used in practice. Secondly, it does not analyze the target text in isolation, but takes the source text into consideration as well. House’s (1997) model divides text into three register categories: field, tenor and mode. In addition, genre and function are also considered in the overall analysis. The present researcher has focused his attention on evaluation of the field taxonomy of house (1997) as a most important category of house(1997) that highlight the informative aspect of each technical translation.

**Research Questions**

1. Which one of the computer engineering professor or the computer engineer with translation training, is able to translate the texts with less lexical, textual and syntactic Errors on the Basis of House's Taxonomy of Field?

2. What are the most frequently Errors of two technical translators in the taxonomy of field?
METHODOLOGY

This study is a qualitative research using interpretive approaches. All the data were selected and collected under lexical, syntactic and textual dimensions of field referring to the authorized situational dimensions of field based on House model (1997) translation quality assessment.

The Corpus and Data Collection Procedures

All number of translation Errors for the different dimensions of field taxonomy were collected specifically from two Persian and also English samples. Each sample was selected randomly on 20 pages to analyze and evaluate translation quality of field based on house model (1997).

It is considerable to say that English computer textbook samples were chosen randomly from pages 55 to 75 for "Software Engineering: a practitioner's approach", and from pages 305 to 325 for "Network security essential: applications and standards". The Persian corresponding translations of the above mentioned textbooks are pages 542-560 for "mohandesi-e-narmafzar" and pages 335-355 for "mobani-e-amniet-e-shabakeh(karbordhavaestandardha)".

Since the study is descriptive-quantitative-analytical one, the original text with its translation was comparatively analyzed as in the following steps:
1. Reading translation and the original text on 20 pages for two samples.
2. Marking and accounting all the Field taxonomy Errors for each one of the related features as described in table (2), with source text-target text examples.
3. Inserting the total number of Errors for each one of features in the table in accordance with lexical, syntactic and textual dimensions of field based on house model (1997).

Data Analysis Procedures

Data were analyzed according to the source text-target text comparison of lexical, syntactic and textual features of field for two English computer textbooks and their corresponding translations based on house model of translation quality assessment (1997).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The researcher has identified nine Errors, according to the source text-target text comparison of lexical, syntactic and textual features of field based on house model of translation quality assessment (1997). These Errors are included below with the source text-target text examples:

1- No Explanation of technical terms

The usage of technical terms seems slightly arbitrary in the translation 1 and 2 and need some explanation to increase comprehension of target text. On the translation A, some terms which are not explained in the source text, are not explained or paraphrased in the translation, as can be seen in example (1) for people management capability maturity model. This long term need more explanation to increase clarity of context but it seems missing in both source and target texts .

(1) ST: In fact, the “people factor” is so important that the Software Engineering Institute has developed a people management capability maturity model, “to...
(pressman, 2001: 56)
(A) TT :
Also on the translation B, some abbreviations which are not explained in the source text, are not explained in the translation, as can be seen for technical term "DES". This abbreviation need more explanation to increase clarity of target text.

2- Transfer Errors of specific English names and terms

Most specific English names and terms has been transferred by English alphabet instead of following Persian alphabet in the target text.

As an example consider John Reel in examples below for translation A. the suggested appropriate translation is "جان ریل".

1) ST: In an excellent paper on software projects, John Reel defines ten signs that indicate that an information systems project is in jeopardy.
   (pressman, 2001: 71)
   (A) TT:
   در یک مقاله در مورد پروژه‌های نرم افزاری
   جان ریل، ده علامتی را تعريف مي كنند که نشان دهنده پروژه‌های سیستم‌های اطلاعاتی در معرض خطر می باشند.
   (salkhordeh,2013:557)

On the translation B, some foreign loan words have been transferred to the target text through English alphabet, too. as an example: "misfeasor", "CERT" and "base-rate fallacy".

3- Use of Foreign loan words for general words

The use of foreign loan word makes the text seem rather formal. A Persian word is always easier to understand than a foreign loan word. It's not intended to say that foreign loan words should be ignored in technical texts. Obviously, they only need to be used in translation, if there is no equivalent Persian term available.

As an example consider instances below in which the translator has chosen to use the foreign loan word ريسک instead of the suggested equivalent Persian word خطر in translation A:

1) ST: A manager who fails to encourage comprehensive customer communication early in the evolution of a project risks building an elegant solution for the wrong problem.
   (pressman, 2001: 71)
   (A) TT:
   مدير که قادر به ایجاد رغبت در مشتری برای برقراری ارتباط در اولین دوره تکامل پروژه نباشد ريسک بزرگی را برای ایجاد یک راه حل مناسب برای مسئله نادرستی پذیرفته است.
   (salkhordeh,2013:557)

On the translation B, some of general English words have been transferred to the target text instead of using the Persian equivalent. As an example consider instances below for ST word "collection" and TT word "کلکسیون". the appropriate suggested translation is "مجموعه".

2) ST: Clandestine user: An individual who seizes supervisory control of the system … to suppress audit collection (Stallings, 2007:307)
   (B) TT:
   کاربر مخفی: شخصی که کنترل سربرستی سیستم را به سرقت می‌برد … متوقف کردن کلکسیون نظارت استفاده می‌کند.
4- Omission of Word, phrase and paragraph

Word, phrase and paragraph omissions diminish informative content of the technical text translation. Most of these omissions in the translation is related to translator's ignorance and cannot be substantiated by the Persian writing conventions. As an example consider instances below in which the translator has omitted the underlined words totally in translation A:

(1) ST: In every case, the CPF discussed earlier in this chapter—customer communication, planning, risk analysis, engineering, construction and release, customer evaluation—can be fitted to the paradigm.

( pressman, 2001: 70)

(A) TT:

در هر حالت، جهادچوب فعالیت عمومی بحث شده در بخش های قبلی این فصل قابل استفاده است.

(salkhordeh,2013:556)

On the translation B, the translator has ignored to translate the word "default" and the phrase "do not bother":

(2)ST: 1. Try default passwords used with standard accounts that are shipped with the system. Many administrators do not bother to change these defaults.

(Stallings, 2001:311)

(B) TT:

1. کلمه های عبور استفاده شده برای حساب های استانداردی که توسط سیستم ایجاد می‌شود پرسنی می‌شود و در این اندازه استفاده می‌شود.

(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:338)

5- Addition of lexical items, sentences and paragraphs

Addition is a wrong operation where by new meaningful elements which cannot be found in the SL text appear in the TL text. As an example consider instances below in which the translator has added the underlined words in translation A:

(1) ST: Although the success rate for software projects has improved somewhat, our project failure rate remains higher than it should be.

( pressman, 2001: 57-58)

(A) TT:

حدود ۵۰ درصد تاکری یا زیر ۳۵ درصد دوباره کاری داشتن‌دادهای ۱۷۵مورد از تاکری‌ها و دوباره کاری‌ها شدید دو عضوی دو بی‌درد کلیم حالت خاتمه‌یافت این گرجه نزخ موفقیت بر رویها یا نرم افزارهای تا حد زیادی مرتفع ارتفاع یافته است و نزخ شکست بر رویها به وسیله تا حد انتظار می‌باشد.

(salkhordeh,2013:545)

On the translation B, the translator has added the underlined words below that obviously the accuracy of added-out of source text- information is under question:

(2)ST: One of the results of the growing awareness of the intruder problem has been the establishment of a number of computer emergency response teams … Hackers also routinely read CERT reports.

(Stallings, 2001:309)

(B) TT:

یکی از نتایج آنلاین بیشتر با مسئله نفوذگر تاسیس تعدیلی تم پاسخ اضطراری است. هکرها می‌توانند به گزارش‌های تم پاسخ اضطراری استیماتیک داشته باشند در حادثه تکراری تجربه‌ای بعیدی نشان داد که هکرها برای همه هر زمان تا...
6- Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations
Correctness or accuracy of information is really crucial in the technical text, therefore there is no room for mistranslations. Unfortunately there were many cases of lexical mistranslations in the translation A and B. As an example consider instances below in which the translator A has mistranslated the underlined words. The appropriate suggested translation is "منطقی و معقولانه " نیستند.

(1) ST: Deadlines are unrealistic. (pressman, 2001: 72)
(A) TT: مهلت ها مشخص نیستند. (salkhordeh,2013:557)

On the translation B, the translator has mistranslated the underlined words below that missed even the gist of text. The appropriate suggested translations are "به موقع " for timely and "بهتر " for more quickly.

(2) ST: Even if the detection is not sufficiently timely to preempt the intruder, the sooner that the intrusion is detected, the less the amount of damage and the more quickly that recovery can be achieved .
(Stallings, 2007:312)
(B) TT: حتی اگر فردی در زمان شروع تشخیص داده شود هرچه زودتر تشخیص داده شود میزان خرابی کمتر خواهد بودو ترمیم سیستم بهتر صورت می گیرد.
(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:340)

7- No split of long lengthy Persian sentences to shorter ones
The long length of sentences lessen the readability of Persian expository texts and may make the text unclear. Since readability and clarity are important issues in technical translation, it is better to split the long English sentences to short ones in Persian language. As an example consider instances below in which the translator A has translated the long source text sentence to two shorter sentences in the target text to enhance readability of the text.

(1) ST: The people management maturity model defines the following key practice areas for software people: recruiting, selection, performance management, training, compensation, career development, organization and work design, and team/culture development. (pressman, 2001: 56)
(A) TT: مدل تکامل توانایی افراد این زمینه های کلیدی تجربه را برای افراد نرم افزاری تعیین می کند. (1)
سریوستی،ارتباط و هماهنگی،محیط کاری،مدیریت کاری،امورش،خانی سازی،تحلیل رقابت و توسعه توسعه شغلی،توسعه گروه کاری،توسعه فرهنگ تیمی و موارد دیگر [می باشند]. (2)
(salkhordeh,2013:544)

On the translation B, the translator has been split the long English sentence to two shorter ones in the target text.

(2) ST: A simple example of the type of rules that can be used is found in NIDX, an early system that used heuristic rules that can be used to assign degrees of suspicion to activities. (Stallings, 2007:318)
(B) TT: مثال ساده ای از نوع قوانینی که می توانند مورد استفاده قرار گیرند،در اندازیکس یافته می شود. (1)
اندازیکس سیستم اولیه ای است که از قوانین اکتشافی استفاده کرده می تواند در جه هایی از نگاه راهی فعالیت ها نسبت دهد. (2)
(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:347)
8- source text syntactic interference in to the target text
Interference refer to using English grammar in to the Persian translation. obviously it diminish the reader comprehension and need to be avoided in translation. Unfortunately, it is find much cases of source text interferences to the target text that lower clarity of technical translation for Persian readers. As an example consider the underlined clause below in which the translator attained the word for word translation that resulted to source language interference in the target text. The appropriate suggested translation is "وقت به قدری تناگ است".
(1) ST: If the deadline is so tight that full functionality cannot reasonably be delivered, an incremental strategy might be best. (pressman, 2001: 70)
(A) TT: اگر مهلت ها انگنجان ثابت هستند که عملکرد و وظایف کامل قابل ارائه نمی باشد؛ استراتژی افزایش بهترین است.
(salkhordeh,2013:556)
Below, On the translation B, the translator missed to find the appropriate Equivalent. The appropriate suggested translation is "اداره":
(2) ST: With a centralized architecture, there is a single central point of collection and analysis of all audit data. (Stallings, 2007:320)
(B) TT: با معماری متمرکز، یک نقطه مرکزی از کلکسیون و تحلیل تمام داده‌های حسابرسی وجود دارد.
(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:350)
9- Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text
Strong textual cohesion is demanded in translation, contributing to the readability of the source text. The source text wide used cohesive devices included: repetition, anaphoric and cataphoric reference, enumeration, iconic linkage, transitions, synonymy. As an example consider instances below in which the translator couldn't retain the same kind of Repetition in translation A:
(1) ST Effective software project management focuses on the four P’s: people, product, process, and project. (pressman, 2001: 56)
(A) TT: مدیریت موثر پروژه نرم افزاری بر جهاد مولفه تاکید دارد؛ افراد، محصول، فرآیند و پروژه.
(salkhordeh,2013:543)
Below, On the translation B, the translator has slightly reduced the Repetition of some compounds. The three noun compounds, "typical behavior", "intruder behavior" and" false positives", has repeated for two times. Observations show that in the target text, comparatively there is two times repetitions for the noun compounds رفتار تقلبی و رفتار نرمال اما البته نسبت مثبت تا مریخ ندارد. So it seems that the translator has used slightly less repetition in the target text.
(2) ST: Although the typical behavior of an intruder differs from the typical behavior of an authorized user, there is an overlap in these behaviors. Thus, a loose interpretation of intruder behavior, which will catch more intruders, will also lead to a number of “false positives,” or authorized users identified as intruders. On the other hand, an attempt to limit false positives by a tight interpretation of intruder behavior will lead to an increase in false negatives, or intruders not identified as intruders. (Stallings, 2007:312)
(B) TT:
Frequency of the nine Errors according to the Field taxonomy Errors for each one of the related features are included below, in Table (2), according to source language-target language excerpts analysis:

Comparison of the translator A Field Errors by translator B, are included below, in chart (1), according to source language-target language excerpts analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field number</th>
<th>Details of Errors</th>
<th>Errors of Translator (A)</th>
<th>Errors of Translator(B)</th>
<th>amount of difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>No Explanation of technical terms</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Transfer Errors of specific English names and terms</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Use of Foreign loan words for general words</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Omission of Word, phrase and paragraph</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Addition of lexical items, sentences and paragraphs</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>No split of long lengthy Persian sentences to shorter ones.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>source text syntactic interference in to the target text</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:340)
Considerably, to answer the research question, table (1) observation reveal that translator A recorded more number of Errors than translator B, on all the lexical, syntactic and textual features of field. it is considerable to say that, according to table (1), in the first hand, translator A Error failures sits orderly on: 1- Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations(31%), 2- Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text(20%), 3- source text syntactic interference in to the target text(15%), 4- Omission of Word, phrase and paragraph(14%) 5- Transfer Errors of specific English names and terms(6%), 6- No split of long lengthy Persian sentences to shorter ones(5%), 7- Addition of lexical items, sentences and paragraphs(4%), 8- Use of Foreign loan words for general words(3%),9- No Explanation of technical terms(2%). And in the second hand, translator B Error failures lies orderly on: 1- Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations(38%), 2- Omission of Word, phrase and paragraph(22%) 3- Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text(12%), 4- source text syntactic interference in to the target text(11%), 5- No split of long lengthy Persian sentences to shorter ones(5%), 6- Addition of lexical items, sentences and paragraphs(4%), 7- No Explanation of technical terms(3%), 8- Transfer Errors of specific English names and terms(2%), 9- Use of Foreign loan words for general words(1%). Through this, based on the number 1 Errors of translation A and B, Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations compose over 30% of failures that is really disappointing for technical translators. Obviously technical translators need to improve their English knowledge to increase the comprehension and consequently diminish mistranslation of the target text.

Chart 1: Comparison of Field Errors

Considerably, to answer the research question, table (1) observation reveal that translator A recorded more number of Errors than translator B, on all the lexical, syntactic and textual features of field. it is considerable to say that, according to table (1), in the first hand, translator A Error failures sits orderly on: 1- Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations(31%), 2- Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text(20%), 3- source text syntactic interference in to the target text(15%), 4- Omission of Word, phrase and paragraph(14%) 5- Transfer Errors of specific English names and terms(6%), 6- No split of long lengthy Persian sentences to shorter ones(5%), 7- Addition of lexical items, sentences and paragraphs(4%), 8- Use of Foreign loan words for general words(3%),9- No Explanation of technical terms(2%). And in the second hand, translator B Error failures lies orderly on: 1- Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations(38%), 2- Omission of Word, phrase and paragraph(22%) 3- Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text(12%), 4- source text syntactic interference in to the target text(11%), 5- No split of long lengthy Persian sentences to shorter ones(5%), 6- Addition of lexical items, sentences and paragraphs(4%), 7- No Explanation of technical terms(3%), 8- Transfer Errors of specific English names and terms(2%), 9- Use of Foreign loan words for general words(1%). Through this, based on the number 1 Errors of translation A and B, Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations compose over 30% of failures that is really disappointing for technical translators. Obviously technical translators need to improve their English knowledge to increase the comprehension and consequently diminish mistranslation of the target text.
According to the number 2 Error of translation A and number 3 Error of translation B, Loss of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text contain 20 and 12 percent of failures. Cohesion of the text increase readability and connect sentences and paragraphs in to the linked network of content. After that, source text syntactic interference in to the target text, place number 3 Error of translation A by 15% and number 4 Error of translation B by 11%. Source text syntactic interference need to be diminished in the target text through Persian syntactic consideration in the target text. Shortly it is needed more concentration on mistranslation Errors, textual cohesion and Source Text syntactic interference, if any technical translator has decided to remove over 50% of translation Errors frequency, based on the above mentioned analysis.

CONCLUSION
To answer the first question, according to the results of the analysis in table (1) and chart (1), the Computer Engineering professor has translated the texts, significantly with more lexical, textual and syntactic Errors than the computer engineer with translation training. Considerably according to table (1) analysis, there are more lexical, syntactic and textual failures on translation A, on the base of field Error Frequency numbers. Consequently, the B translation has fewer number of field Errors than A.

As the results of table (1) show the educated and experienced translator B had fewer errors in each one of the 9 items than translator A. The B translator tries to have the accurate translation on the basis of translation science and art while the A translator starts translating a text without any attention to the translation science and art. He also had lots of Errors according to table (1) related to much mistranslation, poor textual cohesion and huge amount of Source Text syntactic interferences due to the high self-confidence to its professionality in Computer knowledge more than translation.

Moreover according to table (1), the translator B try to deliver a coherent translation with less syntactic Errors so he is to follow the strong translation with well grammatical agreement that join Persian writing system to be acceptable for Persian native readers. on the other hand translator A deliver a literal translation that is so vague and doesn't meet Persian writing system and consequently Persian technical readers, because of much mistranslation, Omission of Word, phrase and paragraphs and week target text cohesion. Through this translation A is not acceptable for Persian readers at all.

According to the above mentioned results we certify that each computer engineer with translation training is certainly more successful in technical translation than any computer engineering professor with no translation training. The educated translator B, tries to use and apply more lexical, syntactic and textual points of field, based on the house model (1997) translation quality assessment while the semi-translator A tries to do something which is called translation in her opinion and thoughts.

Moreover to answer the second question based on the results of the analysis," Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations", "Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text" and "source text
syntactic interference in to the target text" composed the most frequently translation Errors by estimating over 50 percent of the two mentioned translation Errors.

Limitation of the study
The two English computer science textbooks selected for this research were "Software Engineering: a practitioner's approach", written by R. S. Pressman and " Network security essential: applications and standards" written by w. Stallings. On the other hand, the corresponding Persian selected translations for the above mentioned textbooks were selected on "mohandesi-e-narmafzar" by M. M. Salkhordeh Haghighi and "mobani-e-amniet-e-shabakeh(karbordhavaestandardha) by E.Jafarnejad-e-Ghomii.". Furthermore, the study was only focused on English to Persian translation so Persian to English translation was out of task. It is considerable to say that our research was based on the case study so obviously just 20 pages of each book were selected that seem good enough to reach the aim of study. Finally, the source text and target text quoted sentences were selected based on the House's Taxonomy of Field and consequently other House (1997) taxonomies were ignored.

REFERENCES

A SURVEY OF HIGH SCHOOL AND LANGUAGE INSTITUTE EFL TEACHERS’ PERCEPTION OF THEIR INTERPERSONAL STYLE AND BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT
The aim of the present study was to compare interpersonal behavior and communication style of Iranian EFL teachers teaching at private language institute with those teaching at high schools. To this end, 140 teachers (73 high school and 67 language institute teachers) in Tehran, Iran participated in the study. Data were collected through a Likert-scale questionnaire on teacher interaction containing 64 items. Pilot testing was conducted to ensure the validity of the questionnaire. Chronbach’s Alpha indicated that the reliability of the questionnaire was satisfactory. The results of chi square tests indicated that there was a significant difference between interpersonal behavior of high school teachers and those of language institute teachers. It was revealed that institute teachers perceived their own interpersonal behavior in a more positive light and they were more satisfied with their classes. High school teachers perceived their own interpersonal style as Directive whereas institute teachers perceived themselves as Authoritative. The outcomes of the study may be beneficial in creating more constructive teacher-student interactions through teacher reflection. It can be used by the Ministry of Education to compare the learning environments of high schools and institutes.

KEYWORDS: teachers’ interpersonal behavior, teachers’ perception, teachers’ interpersonal style

INTRODUCTION
The teacher-student relationship is an important issue in teaching and it influences student learning, attitudes towards the subject and students’ profession inclinations afterward (Wubbels, Brekelmans, den Brok, & van Tartwijk, 2006). It relates to order in the classroom, which is among common problem areas in education for teachers (Veenman, 1984). Also, healthy interpersonal relationships between teachers and students are related to teachers’ satisfaction with their profession and prevention of teachers’ burn-out (Ben-Chaim & Zoller, 2001). The role of teachers’ perceptions of the classroom environment in influencing affective and cognitive outcomes has been widely verified in a number of studies (Wubbels et al., 2006). The teacher–student relationship is observed as one of the most important factors in teaching and it strongly relates to classroom management (Doyle, 1986). Students’ perceptions of teacher–student interpersonal behavior have been reported to be strongly related to student accomplishment and attitudes in all subject areas (Wubbels et al., 2006) and healthy teacher-student interpersonal
relationships are essential for engaging students in learning activities (Brekelmans, Sleen, & Fraser, 2000). Teachers’ interpersonal behavior has been a popular research topic in teacher education. Though, little research within this area has been done within the context of high schools and language institutes in Iran.

This study focused on the role of teachers in classroom environment. It examined the EFL teachers’ interpersonal behavior and communication style in private language institutes and high schools.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) measures teachers’ and students’ perceptions of teachers’ interpersonal behavior. It was developed from Leary’s Interpersonal Adjective Checklist (ICL) in the early 1980s. He developed the Model of Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality which defines interpersonal behaviors along the two dimensions of proximity and influence. Interpersonal communication is plotted based on how dominant or affective the participant is. Leary’s model to education was adapted by Wubbles. He created the Model for Interpersonal Teacher Behavior (MITB) which uses the same axes as Leary’s model and describes interpersonal behaviors displayed by teachers (see Figure 1). The MITB uses the Proximity dimension (Opposition, O; Cooperation, C) to measure the degree of teachers’ cooperation and the Influence dimension (Submission, S; Dominance, D) to measure the degree of teachers’ dominance in the communication process. Wubbels and his colleagues developed the QTI in 1985 in their native language, Dutch. (Wubbels et al., 1985). Different sets of items were used in four rounds of testing. Teachers, students, teacher educators and researchers were interviewed to evaluate the face validity of items. Teacher interpersonal behavior as measured with the QTI, studies eight behavior subdivisions, parallel to the behavior segments of the MITB: Leadership (DC), Understanding (CS), Helpful/Friendly (CD), Student Freedom (SC), Uncertain (SO), Admonishing (OD), Dissatisfied (OS) and Strict behavior (DO) (Wubbels et al., 2006).

![Fig1: Model for Interpersonal Teacher Behavior (MITB) (Wubbels & Levy, 1993)](image-url)
The American version of the QTI was created by translating the 77-item Dutch version. Several items were added and adjusted by three rounds of testing. (Wubbels & Levy, 1991). The QTI has been translated and used in several countries, such as the USA (Wubbels & Levy, 1993), Australia (Fisher et al., 2005), Korea (Lee et al., 2003), India (den Brok et al., 2005), The Netherlands (den Brok et al., 2004), Turkey (Telli et al., 2007), Singapore (Goh & Fraser, 1998) and Thailand (Wei & Onsawad, 2007). The 64-item American version of QTI was used in this study. The studies in all countries indicated that students perceive more cooperation than opposition and more dominance than submissiveness in their classes. Naturally, there were interesting differences between studies and countries. Dutch teachers were perceived lowest on both dimensions, Singaporean teachers were perceived highest on Proximity and Bruneian teachers were perceived highest on the Influence dimension (Telli et al., 2007).

With cluster analyses, eight different interpersonal styles have been recognized with the QTI in Dutch and American education samples (Brekelmans et al., 1993). These styles have also been established for Turkish (Telli et al., 2007) and Australian samples. The styles were categorized as Repressive, Drudging, Uncertain-Aggressive, Uncertain-Tolerant, Tolerant, Tolerant-Authoritative, Authoritative and Directive (Brekelmans, 1989). The Tolerant, the Tolerant-Authoritative and the Authoritative types are ranked comparatively high on the Proximity dimension and the Tolerant type is the lowest on the Influence dimension. (Wei et al., 2009). The Drudging, the Uncertain-Tolerant and Directive types are less cooperative than the three preceding types and the Uncertain- Tolerant type is lowest on the Dominance dimension (Wei et al., 2009). The Repressive and Uncertain-Aggressive are the least cooperative patterns of interpersonal relationships. Repressive teachers are the most dominant of all types (Brekelmans et al., 1993).

Fig 2: Graphic representations of the eight types of patterns of interpersonal relationships (Rickards, Den Brok, & Fisher, 2005)
These eight interpersonal types have been related to student outcomes. Highest achievement was found in classes of Repressive teachers, after that Tolerant and Directive teachers. Uncertain-Tolerant and Uncertain-Aggressive teachers’ classes realized the lowest achievement (Wei et al., 2009). The students of Authoritative, Tolerant-Authoritative and Directive teachers were highly motivated whereas lowest motivation happened in Drudging and Uncertain-Aggressive teachers’ classes (Brekelmans et al., 1993).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES
1. What are high school teachers’ perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior and style?
2. What are institute teachers’ perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior and style?
3. Is there any difference in high school teachers’ perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior with those of institute teachers?

Null hypothesis 1: There is no difference in high school teachers’ perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior with those of institute teachers?

METHODOLGY
Sample
The study was conducted in EFL language institutes and high schools in Tehran and contained 73 high school teachers and 67 institute teachers’ (both males and females) perceptions on their interpersonal behavior and communication style in EFL classroom. All the teachers held BA or MA degrees in TEFL, English literature, or linguistics. Convenience sampling was used as the method of sampling.

Instrumentation
The five point Likert scale Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction: In the present study, first a pilot study with the 64 items Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction American version was carried out. This first pilot study with 25 EFL teachers was conducted to decide to what extent the questionnaire needed to be revised. The participants answered the questionnaire and their responses were assessed. Statistical results of the piloting and comments made by the experts showed the need to modify two items. Cronbach’s alpha of inter item correlation was below 0.4. Therefore, the two items were modified.

The modified items were used and showed appropriate correlation in the second pilot study (see Table 1). The main study was conducted with this ultimate version of the questionnaire. The following table reports the internal consistency (alpha reliability coefficient) for the 64-item of QTI. It proposes that each scale of the QTI has acceptable internal consistency in all cases.
Table 1: Internal consistency reliability (alpha coefficient) for the second pilot study of the questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Alpha reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful/Friendly</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Freedom</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admonishing</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strict</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Analysis
The data collected using the questionnaire of the study were quantified to make comparisons among the groups of subjects possible. For this purpose, the options of “0” and “1” were merged and coded 1, “2” received the code 2, and “3” and “4” were merged and given code 3. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16 for Windows was then used for both descriptive and inferential statistics of the study. For each item of the questionnaire, percentages, means and chi-square tests were calculated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
High school teachers’ perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior
Table 2 represents means for each scale of the QTI rated by high school teachers:

Table 2: Scale means for the QTI scales rated by high school teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QTI scales</th>
<th>High school teachers N</th>
<th>High school teachers’ Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful/friendly</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student freedom</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admonishing</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strict</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
High school teachers mostly believed that they displayed cooperative behaviors (Leadership, Helpful/Friendly, Understanding) rather than opposition behaviors (Uncertain, Dissatisfied, Admonishing). The mean scores for scales at the class level were found as follows:

The Leadership scale was rated on average as 3.12, and the mean values for Helpful/Friendly and Understanding were 2.6 and 2.09. These scores correspond to “sometimes” to ‘always’. The Strict scale also received a high rating with 2.01. This means that high school teachers perceived themselves cooperative with strictness. Conversely, the Uncertain and Admonishing scales were rated with scores lower than 2 on average, which means that teachers displayed these behaviors ‘sometimes’ to ‘never’. The lowest rating on cooperative behaviors belonged to student freedom indicating that high school teachers did not allow their students decide on something, fool around in the class, influence the teacher and choose their assignments. The Student Freedom scale obtained a rating below 1.65. The lowest rating in opposition behaviors belonged to the Uncertain scale, indicating that the teachers seldom hesitate in the class.

In terms of the two dimensions, it appeared that high school teachers perceived themselves as somewhat dominant and cooperative.

**Institute teachers’ perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior**

Table 3 represents means for each scale of the QTI rated by institute teachers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QTI scales</th>
<th>Institute teachers N</th>
<th>Institute teachers’ Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful/friendly</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student freedom</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admonishing</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strict</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Institute teachers largely believed that they displayed cooperative behaviors (Leadership, Helpful/Friendly, Understanding), rather than opposition behaviors (Uncertain, Dissatisfied, Admonishing). The mean scores for scales at the class level were found as follows:

The Leadership scale was rated on average as 3.16 and the mean values for Helpful/Friendly and Understanding were 2.8 and 3.09, respectively. Institute teachers perceived themselves as highly helpful and friendly meaning that they helped students with their work, took a personal interest in
students, had a sense of humor and were concerned when the student did not understand the teacher.

The Strict scale received rating with 1.99. The Uncertain, Dissatisfied and Admonishing scales were rated with scores lower than 2 on average, which means that teachers displayed these behaviors ‘sometimes’ to ‘hardly’. The Student Freedom scale obtained a rating 1.76. The lowest rating belonged to the Uncertain scale which indicates that like high school teachers, institute teachers seldom hesitate in their classes.

In terms of the two dimensions, it appeared that high school teachers perceived themselves as somewhat dominant and highly cooperative.

**The Typology of Teacher Interpersonal Behavior Styles in the Classroom**

A typology of teacher interpersonal behavior styles has been developed by using the data gathered through the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI). To create such a typology, researchers conducted cluster analyses and found a typology with eight styles or types (Everitt, 1980), which were named Drudging, Repressive, Uncertain/Aggressive, Uncertain/Tolerant, Tolerant, Tolerant/Authoritative, Authoritative and Directive, (Brekelmans, 1989).

To obtain sector profiles like those in Figure 2, scale scores of students are combined to a mean. An average sector score can be easily calculated by adding the scores of all the items in a sector and dividing them into the number of items that belong to this sector for each class. These sector scores can be plotted on a graph to represent a teacher profile. Within each profile, the sector scores are represented by shaded figures.

![Graphical profile of the average interpersonal style of EFL teachers](image)

**Interpersonal profile of high school teachers based on their perception of their own interpersonal behavior**

The interpersonal profile of high school teachers (see Figure 3. A) was Directive. The learning environment in a class with a teacher with a Directive profile is well-structured and task-oriented.
The Directive teacher is organized efficiently and completes all lessons on time. S/he dominates class discussion, but generally holds students' interest. The teacher usually is not really close to the students, though s/he is occasionally friendly and understanding. S/he has high standards and is seen as demanding. S/he gets angry at times and has to remind the class that they are there to work. S/he likes to call on students who misbehave and are inattentive. This normally straightens them up quickly (Brekelmans, et al., 1993).

**Interpersonal profile of institute teachers based on their perception of their own interpersonal behavior**

The outcomes of Table 3 and Figure 3. B represent the profile of an Authoritative teacher. The institute teachers perceived themselves as authoritative. The Authoritative teachers establish a more reality and activity-based learning atmosphere and succeed best in motivating their students for learning and participation in their classrooms. The Authoritative teacher’s class atmosphere is well structured, pleasant and task-oriented. Rules and procedures are clear and students do not need to be reminded. The teacher is open to students' needs. S/he takes a personal interest in them and this comes through in the lessons. While his/her favorite method is the lecture, the teacher frequently uses other techniques. The lessons are well planned and logically structured (Brekelmans, et al., 1993).

**Differences between high school teachers’ and institute teachers’ perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior**

Results of statistical analyses comparing perceptions between teachers in institutes and high schools for scale scores are provided in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>High school teachers</th>
<th>Institute teachers</th>
<th>(Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1        2    3</td>
<td>1        2    3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>16.1     29.0   54.8</td>
<td>16.7     27.8   55.6</td>
<td>.993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful / friendly</td>
<td>25.0     40.3   34.7</td>
<td>26.5     36.8   36.8</td>
<td>.012*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>22.3     32.1   45.5</td>
<td>17.2     32.3   50.5</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Freedom</td>
<td>37.3     35.1   27.6</td>
<td>34.5     36.0   29.5</td>
<td>.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>56.0     23.1   20.9</td>
<td>56.8     28.4   14.8</td>
<td>.518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>41.8     27.9   30.3</td>
<td>47.2     35.8   17.0</td>
<td>.002*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admonishing</td>
<td>43.6     39.3   17.1</td>
<td>48.1     26.9   25.0</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strict</td>
<td>30.0     35.0   35.0</td>
<td>35.3     35.3   29.5</td>
<td>.006*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in the table the differences between the two groups were significant for Helpful friendly, Understanding, Dissatisfied, Admonishing, and Strict. High school teachers’ ratings
were higher for Dissatisfied and Strict, and lower for Helpful friendly, Understanding and Admonishing. The differences between the two groups were not significant for Leadership, Student freedom, and Uncertain. High school teachers were more dissatisfied with their classes than institute teachers. The most similar scale rating between the two groups was for leadership. Both groups’ ratings for their leadership were relatively high. The result of the analyses indicated that institute teachers perceived their own interpersonal behavior in a more positive light and they were more satisfied with their classes. Thus, there were significant differences between high school teachers’ perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior with those of institute teachers. High school teachers perceived their teaching style as Directive whereas institute teachers perceived themselves as Authoritative. Thus, the null hypothesis of this research question was rejected.

Discussion
The study provided information on institute and high school EFL classes. Institute teachers perceived themselves as authoritative and were more satisfied with their classes than high school teachers. The results of the study showed that high school teachers were dissatisfied with their classes but they perceived their teaching style in a positive light. According to the results of the study, positive teacher–student relationships seemed to be more important in institutes than in high schools.

The following issues may be the possible causes of high school teachers’ interpersonal behavior and communication style. The number of students in high school classes is comparatively high and discipline problem is one of the main problems of the classes. The teachers cannot interact individually with all students in large classes and need more classroom management skills and dominance behaviors. Teachers manage their classroom in a way that decreases disorder. The syllabus, the book and the examinations are also imposed on teachers. The teachers are supposed prepare the students for final examinations. Student’s score on final examination is a criterion for teacher evaluation. Consequently, the teachers’ aim is to prepare students for final exams and they allocate all the class time to practice exam exercises. They do not have enough time to concentrate on learning environment and develop the classroom environment.

Studies with the QTI from different points of view and with more representative samples of teachers and students would result in valuable outcomes and feedback to teacher education programs. The information can be used as feedback for teachers for their professional development by comparing their own scores with the perceptions of their students. The outcomes of the study may be useful in constructing more constructive teacher-student interactions by teacher reflection. Also it can be used by the Ministry of Education to compare the learning environments of high schools and institutes. It can also be used for Teacher evaluation purposes. The teachers, schools and institutes can be provided with standards and asked to revise their objectives and strategies according to criterion.
Combining the QTI with other instruments aimed at exploring learners’ attitude toward learning English, learners’ anxiety in EFL classes, and learners’ motivation could also provide more information about the effects of teacher’s interpersonal behavior.

EFL teacher ideals could be studied as a specific type of teacher awareness. These ideals describe how teachers would like to behave ideally. Since ideals describe desired behavior it seems plausible that differences will be found with actual behavior. (Wubbels & Levy, 1993). Studies on this topic will provide awareness about communication problems inside classrooms and may provide resolutions to resolve the problems of EFL learning environment.

CONCLUSION

The teacher-student relationship is an important issue in teaching and it has strong effects on student learning, attitudes towards the subject and students’ profession preferences afterward (Wubbels, Brekelmans, den Brok, & van Tartwijk, 2006) and the role of teachers’ perceptions of the classroom environment in influencing affective and cognitive outcomes has been widely verified in number of studies (Wubbels et al., 2006). This study was conducted to investigate Iranian high school and institute teachers’ perceptions of EFL teachers’ interpersonal behavior and teaching style profiles. Also, differences in perceptions between high school and institute teachers were examined. Data were collected from 73 high school teachers, and 67 institute teachers in Tehran. The instrument used to collect the data was the American version of Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction. Descriptive statistics and chi-squares were conducted and teachers’ teaching styles were examined. Significant differences were found between high school and institute teachers in terms of their perceptions of teachers’ interpersonal behaviors. High school teachers perceived themselves as Directive whereas institute teachers perceived themselves as Authoritative with cooperative behaviors.

The present study was subject to sample limitations. The sampling procedure in the study was convenient because of the lack of cooperation by some schools and institutes. The plan of the study was to administer the questionnaire to randomly selected schools and institutes.

Also, Data were collected through teacher version of QTI and teacher knowledge and thoughts were not included.

REFERENCES


A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF RHETORICAL TROPES IN NEWSPAPER EDITORIALS

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ABSTRACT
Studying newspaper editorials, as a discourse genre, is of special importance in contrastive rhetoric and English as a foreign language (EFL) studies. The main reason is that editorials are written in an effort to influence the cognition of their readers by making use of particular strategies and devices of persuasion and argumentation. It is believed that various genres may differ across different cultures and languages. Therefore, this study aimed at comparing the rhetorical devices employed in the editorials of Persian newspaper, Ettelaat, and the American newspaper, The New York Times, according to Richardson’s (2007) framework of rhetorical tropes focusing on Metaphor and Metonymy. To achieve this, 30 editorials were selected from two newspapers (15 from each) written by native writers and published in different socio-cultural environments. The results of text analysis indicated that editorials of the two newspapers employed the same rhetorical device categories. However, the distribution and frequency of the categories were different across editorials. Despite all this, there was no statistically significant difference between editorials produced in dissimilar socio-cultural and socio-linguistic contexts. From a pedagogical viewpoint, the findings of the present research can be used in English for Specific Purpose (ESP) courses by helping students to produce writings that are informative and persuasive for their readers.

KEYWORDS: Contrastive Rhetorical Analysis, Newspaper Genre, Newspaper Editorial, Rhetorical Devices.

INTRODUCTION
Different speech communities vary in the ways of organizing ideas in their writing which in turn reflects their specific cultural thought patterns. Contrastive Rhetoric (CR), a branch of applied linguistics, argues that language and writing are cultural phenomena. This statement validates the strong ties between language and culture. Put like this, language plays a vital role in shaping the conventions of writing. Editorials as a sub-genre of newspapers are a particular type of writing.
which are believed to reflect specific sociocultural practices. Since editorials represent the voice and opinion of a newspaper, they make use of certain rhetorical patterns and strategies to present ideologies towards news events. These rhetorical strategies are socially constructed and might differ among languages and cultures. To put another way, it is assumed that the way the editorials try to persuade their readers and the strategies they employ to do so might not be same among languages and cultures despite all editorials being the member of the same discourse domain. Considering the use of particular strategies for persuasion and argumentation in a genre like newspaper editorial one should not underestimate the role of socio-cultural factors that might influence it. The important point is, to what extent language might have an effect on a particular piece of writing. To this end, this study aimed to explore the cross-cultural realization of persuasion strategies in a Persian and an English newspaper. It is hoped that focusing on editorials written by native writers in different languages and cultures would contribute to the field.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Contrastive rhetoric (CR) which started 30 years ago by Robert Kaplan conceptualizes on the role of transfer from native language to the target language. Contrastive rhetoric has mostly focused on the discourse patterns in L1 and L2 writing. The common belief is that different cultures organize their discourse differently by using diverse strategies. In other words, L1 writing strategies are transferable to L2 writing and students tend to employ the strategies learned in their L1 to their L2 writing. Therefore, an ineffective and incoherent text is likely to result due to different language conventions. Kaplan (1966) analyzed texts written by non-native writers in English to see how these texts were organized by different writers. He asserted that if students become aware of the way they organize their native language text and the way typical English texts are organized, then they could better apply the text conventions of English in their writings. Thus, it could be understood that rhetorical conventions of each language is different from that of the other language.

Kaplan’s study in 1966 was the first serious attempt by applied linguists to explain the second language writing of English as Second Language (ESL) students. He attempted to claim the interference of the first language and its manifestation in the writer’s choice of rhetorical strategies and content. Considering Kaplan’s finding, it could be possible to assume that different cultures or different discourse communities would shape their discourse differently.

Contrastive rhetoric initially aimed at identifying ESL students’ problems in their compositions by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language (Connor, 1998). Contrastive rhetoric then expanded its focus from writing products of schools, colleges, and professional workplaces to other modes of writing such as research reports, abstracts, journal articles, grant proposals and business letters (Connor, 1999). In addition, there also has been a focus on studying L1 texts from different cultures written for native speakers. In this approach, researchers focus on specific features of discourse and then analyze different L1 texts from different cultural backgrounds based on the appearance and frequency of these discourse features. Along the same lines, a new
direction of research emerged conceptualizing on newspaper editorials as a kind of professional and distinct genre.

Nowadays, Newspapers provide the basis of most of our political and social knowledge and play a huge role in our daily life. As Bell (1991) puts it, the newspaper text includes three major categories: service information, opinion and news. The service information category includes lists such as sport results, television programs, share prices and weather forecasts. News or news reports give information about the latest news events and are considered as the predominant text type in newspaper discourse. Opinions are texts presenting the newspaper’s own views on an issue.

According to Van Dijk (1995), opinion is a type of belief that based on social and cultural grounds, has an evaluative dimension. In other words, opinions imply that something is good or bad, right or wrong.

An important part of newspaper is its editorial. Sinclair (1995) asserts that, an editorial is considered a kind of newspaper discourse that gives the opinion of the editor or publisher on a topic or item of news (as cited in Banyadi, 2011).

Van Dijk (1995) points out that, editorials are public types of opinion discourse which play a definitive role in the formations and altering of public opinion. Their main aim is to persuade readers to undertake a certain type of action, and direct them toward the intended ideology of the newspaper. O’Keefe (2002) maintains that “Persuasion involves changing persons’ mental states usually as precursors to behavioral change. It is has often been conceived of as fundamentally involving attitude change either in the valence or in the extremity of evaluation” (p.32).

Therefore, studying editorials as a sub-genre of newspapers have become of special value in language learning. As Bhatia contends, “a genre-based flexible language curriculum can facilitate language learning within, across and beyond the confines of a curriculum, which will allow more freedom to the participants in the teaching and learning process. This can be effectively realized by using a daily newspaper, which is easily available and also contains a wide variety of genres and sub-genres that can enrich the linguistics repertoire of any language learner” (1993, p. 157).

Within this context, many cross-cultural studies have been carried out regarding the rhetorical patterns as well as the persuasive strategies preferred and employed in different languages and across different sub-genres especially editorials.

In a study, a comparative study of newspaper editorials from The New York Times and Tehran Times was implemented by Babaece (2010). He analyzed the editorials in search for persuasive rhetorical structures and devices. Through analysis he identified the rhetorical structures that editorial writers had employed to persuade their readers such as Metonymy, Simile, Irony, and Metaphor to name a few. He concluded that despite similar structures and devices been used in the editorials of criticism, no consistency was seen in the frequency of the devices.
In a similar vein, Afzal and Harun (2013) made a comparative analysis of editorial contents taken from The News International (NI) and the Arab News (AN). The main focus of the research was the rhetorical strategies and persuasive type of language employed by editors in their texts. The findings of this cross-cultural analysis revealed that the two newspapers are identical in their use of rhetorical strategies. However, some devices were more preferred over others by editors of different backgrounds. As an example, the editor of NI used hyperbole, simile and metonymy more than the AN editor.

**Purpose of the study**

As a sub-genre of newspaper, Editorials are considered to be a special type of writing in terms of sociocultural practices and representing the voice and opinion of a newspaper. Therefore, editorials are a rich source of persuasive rhetorical patterns and strategies. These rhetorical structures and strategies are socio-culturally and socio-linguistically constructed and might diversify from one language to another and accordingly from one culture to another. Despite the importance of these rhetorical conventions, very few studies have conducted a cross-cultural analysis of these rhetorical devices. In order to fill this gap, this study aims to investigate the rhetorical devices the native editorial writers of *Ettelaat* and *The New York Times* have employed to express their preferred opinions and ideologies towards news events.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

1. Are there any differences between the editorials of *Ettelaat* and *The New York Times* in terms of the frequency of using Rhetorical Devices?
2. Is there any possible relationship between the socio-linguistic background of the editorial writers and their use of Rhetorical Devices?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Categories of Textual Analysis**

Rhetorical devices can be said to be an integral part of making a persuasive and influential Editorial. In order to have the desired influence on the readers different devices are implemented. Richardson (2007) identified a framework for analyzing newspaper editorials in terms of rhetorical devices or better to say rhetorical tropes. Corbett (1990) defines a trope as a deviation from the ordinary and principle signification of a word (as cited in Richardson, 2007). Thus, the textual analysis in this study was carried out based on Richardson’s (2007) framework in terms of Metaphor and Metonymy.

**Data collection and analysis**

This research capitalized on a total corpus of 30 editorials of criticism selected randomly from Iranian daily newspaper *Ettelaat* and American daily newspaper *New York Times*, 15 from each newspaper. The important criterion taken into account through-out the selection process was the common events referred to in both editorials. Furthermore, editorials published from January 2013 up to July 2014 were collected as the sample of the study. The aim of this study was to figure out the rhetorical devices employed in the editorials as a part of strategies of persuasion.
These devices direct attention to specific aspects of text meaning, and hence are in line with each newspaper’s agenda toward each event. At first, the type and frequency of the Rhetorical Devices in the editorials were identified. Next, to normalize the data the frequency of each RD in the whole text was converted to per one hundred words. Then, the total frequency of RDs used in each newspaper was achieved by summing the frequencies of every single RD in the respective newspaper. Finally, newspapers of *Ettelaat* and *The New York Times* were compared according to the distribution of Metaphor and Metonymy in each. To further our analysis, chi-square test was applied to the data to investigate their statistical significance.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

*Metaphor*

In the most general sense, metaphor involves perceiving one thing in terms of another (Richardson, 2007, p.66). In other words, it is a comparison between two dissimilar notions where one notion is to be understood in terms of the other notion (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 313). The instances below show some of the metaphorical expressions in each newspaper editorial.

1) In Ukraine, the oligarchs have been far more closely involved in politics, often changing sides as *political winds shifted*. (Ref. *New York Times* 14)

2) Mr. Mandela’s enormous strength of character *steeled him* for his long struggle and ultimate victory over apartheid. (Ref. *New York Times* 5)

3) It is crucial that talks on the next phase begin very soon since *the next six months will fly by*. (Ref. *New York Times* 3)

4) Investing in authoritarian rulers is not a *recipe* for long-term stability in Egypt. (Ref. *New York Times* 7)

5) *جراغ سبزی* چه امواجا به نتایجی در صبحیت تلفنی داده ایست.

   Obama showed a *green light* to Netanyahu on the telephone conversation. (English translation)

6) *سیسی حمله جمیل سرکوب را دوام داشت*. (Ref. *Ettelaat* 8)

   Sisi uses his *suppress bat* to establish security in Egypt. (English translation)

7) *صدور گاز روسیه به اوکراین و اروپا شاهد حیاتی و بهتر تر است.* (Ref. *Ettelaat* 14)

   The export of Russian gas to Ukraine and Europe has become a *vital lifeline*. (English translation)

8) *گذشتی را جراغ بیشتر بهتر سازیم.* (Ref. *Ettelaat* 6)

   We can use the past to *light the way* for better future. (English translation)
Table 1: Analyses of Metaphors in Editorials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Vehicle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unstable political situations</td>
<td>Shifting political winds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Made him strong and unbreakable</td>
<td>Steeled him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passage of time</td>
<td>Months flying by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trying to Invest in authoritarian rulers</td>
<td>Recipe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give permission</td>
<td>جَرَاح سِيْز دَانِنْ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppression of the government</td>
<td>جَمَاق (Suppress bat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia’s gas supply</td>
<td>شَاهِرَگُ حِیَاتی (Vital lifeline)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Past</td>
<td>جَرَاح رَاه (Light the way)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Metonymy

Metonymy as an example of figurative language is defined as a figure of speech in which one word or phrase is substituted for another with which it is closely associated. Metonymy is different from metaphor in the sense that metaphor operates through transferring similar characteristics on the other hand metonymy operates through more direct forms of association (Richardson, 2007, p.67). The following examples point to some of the metonymic concepts in editorials:

9) Ukraine’s tycoons have become aware that coming under Kremlin control is not good for their export-dependent operations. (Ref. New York Times 14)

10) South Africa today faces many challenging problems. (Ref. New York Times 5)

11) America and its allies have offered “limited and reversible” sanctions relief. (Ref. New York Times 3)

12) Boko Haram’s claim that it follows Islamic teachings is nonsense. (Ref. New York Times 2)

The White House has announced to help Maliki’s government in eradicating ISIS from Iraq. (English translation)

13) كَانَ سَفِيد هَرْگْوُنَه كَمِكِ بِدْوْلَت مَالْکِي بَرَای پَالَمَاسَزِی عرَاق از گرَوْه تَروُرِیسِتی دَاعَش رَا اعَلَا مَكرده است. (Ref. Ettelaat 4)

14) مصر نَمایشی از زَنَال سِیْسِی رَئِسِ جَمُهْور جَدی وَارد مَاجْراَ گَرَدید. (Ref. Ettelaat 12)

The UN Security Council held an emergency meeting. (English translation)

15) شورَای امِنیت سَازِمَان مَلل نَشَشت اضطراری بر۰گزار کَرد. (Ref. Ettelaat 1)
If Turkey decides to enter the phase of finding a political solution to end war in Syria. (English translation)

The metonymic use of words is showed below:

9) Kremlin ─ Institution (Russian Government)
10) South Africa ─ Institution (Government)
11) America ─ Institution (Government)
12) Boko Haram ─ Army of militiamen
13) اکاخ سفید (The white house) ─ Institution (Government)
14) مصر (Egypt) ─ Institution (Government)
15) شورای امنیت سازمان ملل (The UN) ─ Members of the UN security council
16) ترکیه (Turkey) ─ Institution (Government)

As the examples on metonymy suggested, the metonymic concepts not only served as a referential device but also tried to make the editorial readers focus on certain aspects of the issue being discussed. The metonymic expression شورای امنیت سازمان ملل (The UN) has been used to refer to the members of the UN council. Moreover, the name of places like Kremlin and Egypt has been used to refer to the governments in Russia and Egypt.

### Table 2: Entire Distribution of Metaphor and Metonymy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rhetorical Device</th>
<th>Ettelaat</th>
<th>The New York Times</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency (F)</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
<td>Frequency (F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td>41.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>9.68</td>
<td>58.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16.41</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3: Test Statistics for Ettelaat and The New York Times

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ettelaat vs. NYT</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.063</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant at $p < .05$

As can be seen in the Table 3 the $p$-value is more than 0.05. Therefore, there is not a significant difference between the two newspapers. It can be concluded that there was not a significant
difference between the Metaphor and Metonymy use of newspaper editorials written and published in different socio-cultural and socio-linguistic contexts.

**Discussion**

A comparative analysis of the editorials’ main text in the two newspapers revealed their rhetorical characteristics. In order to persuade their readers, editorial writers in both English-language and Persian papers made use of Metaphor and Metonymy in their individual texts.

The first research question concerned the frequency of Rhetorical Devices in two newspapers. As we can see in Table 2, the number of metaphor in *Ettelaat* is 6.73 per 100 words and the corresponding number for *The New York Times* is 4.97. These numbers suggest that the articles in *Ettelaat* make use of metaphor slightly more than those in *The New York Times*. Moreover, the frequency of metonymy in *Ettelaat* is 9.68 and the corresponding number for *The New York Times* is 12.78 with *The New York Times* making use of metonymy more than *Ettelaat*.

As it is seen, the editorial writers in the two newspapers showed greater tendency towards using Metonymy in their main texts in comparison to Metaphor. One of the possible reasons might have been to conjure away the responsible actors of the events or try to make them as unknown as possible to the reader.

Our second research question queried about the existence of a relationship between socio-linguistic background and rhetorical strategy use in editorials. It was speculated that the language the editors speak might have direct influence on the thought pattern and cognition of the community members. By inference, differences would be seen in the written persuasion conventions of each individual language and culture. Quite to the contrary, the data provided by the Chi-square revealed that although the frequencies of Metaphor and Metonymy differed between the two newspapers, these differences were not statistically significant.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

This study was based on the analysis of thirty editorials, fifteen from *Ettelaat* and fifteen from *The New York Times*. All the editorials were analyzed according to Richardson’s (2007) framework of Rhetorical Devices of newspaper discourse, focusing on Metaphor and Metonymy. The results achieved from the analysis of the editorials showed that the newspapers, *Ettelaat* and *The New York Times*, were similar in their use of rhetorical device categories. In addition, they had similarities regarding the use of Metonymy as their most employed device. However, it was found that the categorical distribution of rhetorical devices was the factor making the two newspapers different but not to the extent of being significant. In sum, both editors tended to use Metaphor and Metonymy to formulate opinions and enhance the persuasiveness of their composition. This common way of approaching the issue implies that editorial writers behave in similar way no matter which society and culture they come from. So, socio-cultural and socio-linguistic backgrounds seem to be unlikely to affect the established conventions of editorials of criticism.
The findings of this research are in line with that of Babaee (2010) and Afzal and Harun (2013) in terms of being both comparative and reaching the conclusion that cultural and linguistic background do not seem to be highly affective. Newspapers may differ in the length and frequency of using rhetorical devices and structures but tend to be faithful to the specific genre conventions.

From a pedagogical point of view, the findings of the present study can equip EFL teachers and students with the required knowledge about the discourse conventions in a certain sub-genre, namely newspaper editorials. Editorials as a kind of public discourse can be used as a teaching material for the advancement of writing skills. So, the students can use editorials as a resource for writing argumentative and persuasive essays.

Furthermore, as editorials perhaps more than any other types of writing reflect national styles regarding moods of persuasion (Connor, 1999), they set the standard for written persuasion conventions in a particular language and culture. The findings of the present research can be used as a guide for creative reading and writing in journalism classes and ESP courses. Thus, helping students of journalism to produce a kind of writing that is really informative and persuasive in the eyes of readers and also consistent with the background cultural context. Obviously, no research study seems to be perfect and without any limitations, and this study is not an exception and it has its own limitations that need to be acknowledged. The present study is undoubtedly limited in scope as it has focused only on the textual analysis of editorials of criticism. The findings of this study cannot then be generalized to the other newspaper sub-genres. Editorials of criticism are just one type of newspaper editorials. Thus, the other promising areas for future studies might include comparative studies of the other kinds of editorials such as editorials of praise, defense, endorsement, appeal and entertainment in different settings.

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AN OVERVIEW ON THE IMPLICATION OF COMPUTERS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING/TEACHING

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ABSTRACT
The fast development in various audiovisual technologies in the last few years has shown itself in the application of computers and various audiovisual technologies in language learning which has apparently gone beyond the limited repetition and drills since the 1980s. Considering the fact that computers and various audiovisual technologies such as smart mobile phones have the potential to enhance language learning/teaching, the present paper focus on reviewing related literature supporting the implication of computers as desktop technologies and smart mobile phones as non-desktop technologies in language teaching. Moreover, the focus of the present research is on the application of computers and related technologies in language learning in informal settings. The conclusion drawn highlights the pedagogical values of implementing various desktop and non-desktop technologies particularly in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts which lack social interactions as an authentic source of language learning.

KEYWORDS: implication, computers, and language teaching/learning

INTRODUCTION
Computers as a type of desktop technology have systematically been used in teaching and learning of foreign/second languages since the 1960s. The early use of computers in language learning both in informal and formal language environments constituted an extension and development of the work done in the audiovisual language labs. The pedagogical effectiveness of computer-assisted language learning in formal and informal settings also began with the development of the capacities of computers. In fact, the remarkable developments in audiovisual and computer-mediated communication programs provided many possibilities for teachers to construct activities for second language learning.

Considering the fact that in the last few years audiovisual technology has dominated the world by showing different programs both to instruct and entertain various audiences, many studies have focused on the incorporation of computers as an audiovisual technology that can provide authentic language input for SLA in formal as well as in informal language learning settings in ESL/EFL contexts.

Regarding the use of computers in informal settings of language learning, Adams, Morrison, and Reedy (1968) noted that computers have the potential not only to supervise language learners’ performance in informal settings but also to monitor, record, analyze, and summarize data about their learning. Decker (1976) also argued that most significantly, computers provide instant feedback through correcting exercises and tests. This application of computers for language
learning has been based on the behaviorist approach that emphasizes stimulus and response for habit formation. In other words, language learners use the computers to learn the language in both formal and informal learning settings through a number of repetition and drills which are believed by the behaviorist theory of learning to boost language learning.

Although, the application of computers in language learning has apparently gone beyond limited repetition and drills since the 1980s, it still reflected the behaviorist viewpoint. In this regard, Keller (1987) highlighted the pedagogical values of the use of computers by focusing on the speed of electronic dictionaries compared to the conventional ones. According to Keller, computer dictionaries offer a multidimensional presentation of English translations and further explanatory information.

**COMPUTER SOFTWARE PROGRAMS TO ENHANCE LANGUAGE LEARNING**

With the advance development of computer technology, many scholars developed many computer programs to help develop second/foreign language learning. In the same line, Egan (1999) developed a computer-based software program requiring the language learners to get engaged in language learning through doing some exercises such as filling the blanks, choosing the correct answers, practicing in reading and listening to authentic written and spoken language, producing language by repeating words or sentences, recording their responses and comparing them to native models (Egan, 1999).

Although Egan’s software leads language learners to produce speeches through interaction with the computer, the interaction is based on stimulus and response which reflect the behaviorist approach. Language learners seem to be in charge of their learning but the authentic language input which is offered to them and what they can gain is limited to what the software offers. This limitation may break the interaction when the software lacks the necessary stored data for a particular stimulus or response. In other words, the critical point is that this type of interaction with machines rather than human beings can be limited at times. If one stimulus is not recognized by the software, the interaction may fail or may be directed to something rather than what the language learner intends. The reason behind this is that computers may not be able to negotiate for meaning to facilitate comprehension in a way which is done in real communication.

The acquisition of communicative language skills through computers makes it necessary to develop computer programs that engage the language learners in real interactive speaking activities with native or proficient non-native speakers or language learners in both formal and informal settings. In fact, the use of any technologies including computers to provide the necessary input for language learning in informal setting should not reflect the behaviorist view to language learning (Pemberton et al., 2004).

**COMPUTERS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING IN INFORMAL SETTINGS**

The term informal learning was drawn from informal education that was first introduced and popularized in the field of education by Knowles (1950). In focusing on the concept of informal
education, Knowles highlighted the informal environment in many learning situations, the flexibility of the process, and the use of experience. Although Knowles did not explicitly define informal education, he utilized the term to refer to the use of informal programs and, to some extent, the learning obtained from interaction in society. Following the concepts of informal and formal learning, informal and formal language learning were also introduced and studied by some researchers (Lightbown & Spada, 2001; Marsick & Watkins, 1990; Rogers, 2004). In this regard, similar to Coombs and Ahmed, Rogers (2004) noted that informal language learning is unstructured and unpurposeful but is the most extensive and essential part of all the learning that all of us do every day of our lives. On the contrary, formal language learning is structured, purposeful, and school-based.

In view of the above, the point to be underscored is that in informal language learning setting compared to formal language learning setting, language learners are not supposed to get involved in a sort of activity which requires them to do repetitions and drills similar to that of the classroom settings. In fact, if different technological tools are to be utilized in informal settings for language learning, it should be unstructured, unconscious or unpurposeful (Rogers, 2004). As a result, informal language learning cannot be based on the behaviorist approach because it requires repetition and drills in informal settings similar to that of the formal settings.

Bray (2005) claimed that the integration of computers for language learning in both formal and informal settings should not be based on the behaviorist theory. According to Bray, in informal language learning setting, adults like to have fun and have little desire to solve a problem. When it comes to learning the language in informal settings, language learners do not like to get involved in the same scenario which exists in most of the formal language learning settings. Informal language learning is in contrast to the behaviorist approach which requires language learners to do some repetitions and drills even in informal settings. In learning the languages in informal setting through, for example, the Internet as a computer based technology, language learners are self-directed, self-motivated, and have the ability to interact with other language learners using computer-mediated communication (Bray, 2005). In fact, the Internet can provide the language learners with a huge amount of authentic language input for SLA without requiring them to do any repetition and drills exercises.

To sum up, the important point to be underlined in relation to the application of computers as a desktop technology for language learning is that in most of the cases computers have been employed in informal language learning setting based on the behaviorist theories of language learning which does not comply with some of the criteria for informal language learning such as unstructured, unconscious or unpurposeful learning.

NON-DESKTOP TECHNOLOGIES AND LANGUAGE LEARNING
In recent years, however, the use of non-desktop technologies such as audiovisual devices, for example, television is also attracting increasing interest among many researchers in informal learning and SLA (Milton, 2002; Pemberton et al., 2004).
According to Milton (2002), mass media technologies can give the teachers as well as the learners a pool of activities and experiences that can reinforce language learning in informal settings as well as the formal settings of the school. Watching different programs, for example, on TV is a sort of activity in informal settings which can lead to language learning regardless of the fact that the focus is not on learning (Milton, 2002). In other words, language learners learn the language without directly getting involved in any sort of explicit language learning activities. However, in highlighting the pedagogical value of exposure to mass media technology, Milton did not further specify what type of mass media technology can boost language learning in informal language settings. Also, he did not provide any details on the amount of exposure to a specific type of mass media which may lead to language improvement. More importantly, in his study, language learners were required to do some exercises in informal settings which does not comply with informal language learning criteria.

Another study concerning the use of non-desktop technology such as interactive television to provide authentic language input for language learning in informal setting was conducted by Pemberton et al. (2004). The foremost rationale of the study was to focus on the learning potential of interactive television in informal settings, currently available in the UK and some other countries via cable and satellite technologies. According to Pemberton et al., unlike conventional television, interactive TV allows the users to interact with each other and also provides new facilities for information retrieval and communication.

In order to support the great potentiality of interactive TV for language learning in informal settings, Pemberton et al. (2004) based their claim on a sound pedagogical framework that was derived from language learners’ interests, motivations, and learning styles. Furthermore, the study considered the possibility of using interactive TV in informal setting based on different language learning theories such as constructionist and constructivist.

According to the constructionist view, the acquisition of language can occur through exposure to authentic language input in informal settings (Pemberton et al., 2004). In this regard, various audiovisual programs from different non-desktop technologies such as TV have the potential to be utilized as authentic sources of language input in informal settings. The study of Pemberton et al. (2004) supported the constructionist approach through the use of subtitle which provided comprehensible input. The participants of the study were given a language learning version of subtitles that provided extra language support, which could help language learners to understand more from their viewing.

The study also supports the self-directed language learning approach which reflects one of the characteristics of informal language learning. The constructivist approach can be supported by enabling language learners to create their own learning space that can be accessed anytime or anywhere. Accordingly, language learners are in charge of selecting their preferred type of language learning material through interactive TV which enables them to be in charge of their own learning experience. In fact, in learning the language through interactive TV in informal language learning setting, language learners want to sit back and relax while being immersed in
pedagogically valuable authentic audiovisual programs and to be able to get extensive support to help them gain more from their foreign language viewing (Pemberton et al., 2004).

In short, the above-discussed study anecdotally considered the pedagogical value of interactive TV as a type of non-desktop technology in informal settings for language learning and its application based on different language learning approaches. It also focused on introducing a framework to support the use of interactive TV as a source of authentic language input in informal settings. However, the study lacks empirical evidence of the effect of exposure to TV on SLA. Furthermore, it focused on interactive TV rather than conventional TV or satellite TV which is readily available around the globe.

The development of emerging technologies such as mobile phones and other wireless technologies has opened up a huge array of possibilities for the domain of language learning (Joseph & Uther, 2006). In recent years, there have been many studies and projects using the relevant mobile technologies such as mobile phones or ipods for both formal and informal language learning (Chinnery, 2006; Kadyte, 2003; Kiernan & Aizawa, 2004; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; Norbrook & Scott, 2003; Paredes et al., 2005; Thornton & House, 2005; Ogata & Yano, 2004).

According to the most of the above researches, current use of mobile devices in language learning ranges from vocabulary or grammar learning to story reading and pronunciation practices. Accordingly, this can be achieved through developing some programs which require repetition and drills. Emerging technologies such as mobile phones need to be fully interpreted and applied according to the environment in which they will operate, being well aware of its limitations and challenges, bearing in mind their potential impact on transforming current cultures and practices (Cobcroft et al. 2006).

Mobile learning solutions cannot be formulated according to pre-existing learning design principles without considering the practical problems specific to the location and situation of the language learners. Murphy (2006) also emphasizes the need to consider cultural and social factors when designing mobile learning activities.

Accordingly, learning should be fun, satisfying, and rewarding to be effective. These factors are considered to be essential in developing any technology based. Moreover, the content for mobile phone language learning requires repetitive testing to check what scheme would maximize readability while maintaining appealing aesthetics of the content. In short, no matter how sophisticated and appealing a mobile learning device or its content may be, the learner uses mobile learning only if it meets his/her individual learning needs.

In a nutshell, mobile phone-based language learning technology, thanks to its portability, low production cost, versatile features, and significant memory space has the outstanding potential to provide everybody with authentic audio/visual language learning materials that could possibly teach them to speak and read.
CONCLUSION
In this digitally dominated age characterized by the rapid and extensive development of information and communication technologies, the present review paper aimed at considering the effectiveness of the application of computers as a type of desktop technology and various audiovisual technologies such as interactive televisions as non-desktop technologies in language teaching. The present research highlights the point that various technologies can enhance language learning particularly in contexts which lack social interactions as an authentic source of language learning.

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INTEGRATION OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE WITH COMPUTER-BASED GLOSSES AND IRANIAN SECOND LANGUAGE VOCABULARY LEARNING

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ABSTRACT
This study tried to examine the effects of combination spatial intelligence and computer-based glosses on vocabulary learning. To this end, 38 second language learners from an institution in Sarab were assigned to 2 groups: low and high levels of spatial intelligence. Groups were homogeneous in respect of their vocabulary knowledge. During the treatment period low and high level spatial intelligence in 2 groups received computer based glosses. The result of t-test showed statistically significant difference between low and high level groups in understanding the meaning of vocabularies. The results suggest that learners with higher levels of spatial intelligence can benefit from computer-based glosses.

KEYWORDS: spatial intelligence, computer-based glosses, vocabulary learning

INTRODUCTION
Vocabulary has a crucial role in learning a foreign language, in enhancing reading and listening comprehension and in communication. Harley (1996) said that vocabulary knowledge is basic to the development of second language proficiency. Tozcui & Coady (2004) show that vocabulary knowledge is closely linked to reading proficiency, and additionally it leads to greater success in school. The more practicable way that recently has come under closer examination in the area of L2 or FL acquisition is glossing. Hong (2010) states that researchers generally agreed that the use of vocabulary glosses in L2 reading materials is a common practice and glosses, facilitate reading comprehension and vocabulary learning in both printed materials and electronic materials.

Glosses are appealing for students with a high level of active role and interesting in the field of teaching (Zoi, Bellou & Mikropoulos, 2011). Glosses act as a mediator between text and the learner by supplying extra information about difficult words and facilitate both reading comprehension and vocabulary learning (Ko, 2005). At the present time, glosses are integrated with multimedia forms such as pictures and text (Yoshii, 2006). Brett (1995) explains multimedia as the computer based program of video, audio, written text, graphics and combining of these media for second language learning. "Multimedia is the use of text, graphics, animation, pictures, video, and sound to present information" (Najjar, 1996, p.129). Gardner (1999) claims that unlike traditional view of intelligence as a single capacity, each individual has eight types of intelligences: verbal-linguistic , the musical-rhythmic, the visual-spatial (the ability to perceive, modify, transform, and create visual and/or spatial images), the logical-mathematical, the bodily-
kinesthetic, the interpersonal, the intrapersonal, and the naturalist intelligence. Gardner (1993) argued that every individual is born with a cluster of different intelligences which can be increased under appropriate training conditions.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

Does learning computer-based glosses by high level spatial intelligence lead to better result than learning them by low level spatial intelligence?

**Alternative Hypothesis**

\( H_1: \) There are significant differences between high level spatial intelligence learning and low level spatial intelligence learning in computer based glosses learning of second language learners’ vocabulary.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Independent and dependent variables**

Independent variable was the spatial intelligence level (high and low) and dependent variable was students’ scores measured by post test in vocabulary learning.

**Participants**

At first this study was conducted with 45 female students studying at Institution in Sarab. To homogenize the students the longman placement test was administered (Dawson, 2005). Based on their performance on the placement test, from among the 45 participants, 38 students were homogenous.

**Materials**

A standardized classroom multiple intelligence test adopted from the book Multiple Intelligences in the Classroom (Armstrong, 2000) was administered in order to collect data about students’ intelligence and to select the students with developed visual/spatial intelligences. The pre-test included 60 multiple-choice items that adapted from their textbooks. The posttest was a parallel to the pretest and included 40 multiple-choice items which were from among the vocabularies worked on during treatment period.

**Procedure**

After administrating standardized classroom multiple intelligence test, the participants divided into two groups: The high spatial intelligence individuals were those who scored 7–10 on the spatial intelligence questionnaire and those whose spatial intelligence scores ranged from 0 to 3 were grouped as the low spatial individuals. One class was selected as the low level group and the other acted as the high level groups in terms of spatial intelligence. The range of their age was between 13-16. Then the pre-test was conducted. The pre-test included 60 multiple-choice items. 40 new words were unfamiliar to all of the students that adapted from their text books. The result of pre-test determined the target words were unfamiliar to the participants. The treatment lasted for 2 months, 1 session a week. In each session, almost 10 vocabularies were presented. The
selected passages were computerized, and 10 words in each passage were glossed by a computer program called Power Point. The unfamiliar words were glossed in textual-pictorial glosses. At the end of the treatment, the posttest was administered to two groups. The posttest was a parallel to the pretest and included 40 multiple-choice items which were from among the vocabularies worked on during treatment period. The scores obtained from the posttest were put into SPSS to be analyzed statistically.

**Data analyses**

In order to answer the research questions and in order to compare the scores obtained from the posttest of the two groups with low and high spatial intelligence, t-test was conducted to investigate the difference between the two groups (high and low level spatial intelligence groups). Descriptive statistics for the two groups showed that the high level group had higher mean (M = 17.11) in comparison to the low level group (M = 14.16) on the posttest. The results obtained from the t-test run indicated that there was a significant difference between the high and the low level groups in their performance on the posttest, t(74) = -6.22, p < .001. And this result supported research hypothesis: There are significant differences between high level spatial intelligence learning and low level spatial intelligence learning in computer based glosses learning of second language learners’ vocabulary.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The study was set up to explore the effect of two types of particular glosses i.e., textual and pictorial and one types of certain intelligence i.e., visual-spatial as leading factors to improve EFL vocabulary knowledge. The results of study supported research hypothesis and showed that particular types of intelligences have a significant and different effect on students’ performance when integrate with computer based glosses, such as textual and pictorial glosses.

By analyzing the effect of intelligence types on vocabulary learning, it is reasonable to argue that, the result is in line with findings of Gardner (1999) that supports the fact that each activity demands specific intelligence and integrating the intelligence type with specific activity is a prerequisite for learning. These findings can be explained with considering of spatial intelligence of Gardner’s (1993) Multiple intelligence theory. The result of this study is in line with Armstrong (2009) who states that pictures are likely to engage learners with high level of spatial intelligence more than those who has low level of this kind of intelligence. The findings of the present study was that multimedia glosses and computer-based instruction have positive effects on vocabulary production. There was a significant difference among high level group and the low level group (naming group was on the basis of spatial intelligence level). Also, the result of this study is in line with Tabatabaei and Shams (2011), who showed that the multimedia gloss groups learn the target words better than the control group. But the findings of this study was in contrast with Yanguas (2009) who found no significant differences between glossed groups and control group in vocabulary production.
CONCLUSION

The research question which was prepared for this study addressed: Does learning computer-based glosses by high level spatial intelligence lead to better result than learning them by low level spatial intelligence? The results of t-test showed that the high level spatial intelligence group which received the computer based glosses enhanced their vocabulary knowledge significantly more than the low level spatial intelligence group which received the same set of vocabulary with the same method. In this study those who had high level of spatial intelligence could enjoy from receiving English vocabularies more than those groups who had the low levels of spatial intelligence. Therefore there is no doubt about the efficacy of computer based glossing.

Implications of the study

To help students with high level spatial intelligence, the teacher can support their lessons through accompanying multimedia technique. An implication of Gardner's multiple intelligence model in language classroom environment is that syllabi should be prepared and assignments should be given in terms of individual cognitivedifferences. Such a concern with individual differences is more likely to attract students to the activities which are in line with their intelligences.

Gardner (1993) says if a language learner appears to have a high index of any of the intelligences, he/she will benefit from the activities consistent with the intelligences at stake. To take part learners in learning process, the learning material has to be organized on the basis of their intelligences at which the learners are strong. Also Gardner (1993) believes that weak intelligences can be enhanced to a significant extent through proper training and enough exercise. MI theory suggests "that teachers need to expand their repertoire of techniques, tools, and strategies beyond the typical linguistic and logical one" (Armstrong, 2009, p. 54).

Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

This study just was set up to examin the effect of two types of particular glosses i.e., textual and pictorial and one types of certain intelligence i.e., visual-spatial as a factors to improve EFL vocabulary knowledge.

Considering the fact that this study measured the impacts of glosses just for two months. Consequently, it is suggested that other studies make use of appropriate vocabulary tests to measure the immediate and long-term effects of glosses on vocabulary acquisition and retention. The current study just takes the quantitative aspects of the learners into consideration. It is suggested that some qualitative aspects to be examined. For example, subjects’ interviews can be researched in the course of their evaluation of computer-based glosses and activity types. There is a hope that the further studies will take the effects of the other intelligences into consideration in vocabulary and other fields of second language acquisition.

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