



The Socioeconomic Status of Parents and Parental Involvement in Post-Pandemic Era: A Longitudinal TEFL Study in Iran

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Abstract

There exists a scarcity of studies examining the intersection of neoliberalism discourse, parental involvement, beliefs, and Socioeconomic Status (SES) regarding speaking proficiency of young English learners in the post-pandemic era. To this end, 28 children were selected along with their parents and were taught with the same syllabus, and tuition was waived for children with low SES. Two questionnaires were designed and validated to examine the effect of socioeconomic factors on parents' beliefs and involvement. The findings showed that SES has a significant effect on parental beliefs and involvement. The results also indicated that young learners' parental factors could affect the success of these learners in the post-pandemic era. This research study can encourage more studies on intersectionality in educational research.

Keywords: TEFL, Young learners, Socio-economic status, Educational psychology, Parental behavior

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1. Introduction

As English language has progressively come to be seen as a lingua franca and a means towards success in the globalizing world, a substantial amount of time, effort, and resources are being invested in teaching and learning English around the world. In recent years, this zeal for learning English appears to have spread among even young learners of the language (Butler, 2014). Therefore, in recent years, researchers have become increasingly interested in the factors that influence L2 acquisition by young learners. Among these influencing factors, the child's socioeconomic context, including parental factors, may influence early language development (Hoff, 2013). The post-pandemic era necessitates increased parental involvement in education to support the instruction of young learners and to address the forthcoming challenges faced by humanity in different societies. Recent studies, such as Murshidi et al. (2023), have also explored the role of parents and their involvement in education during this period.

In recent times, the concepts of Socioeconomic Status (SES) of parents and their involvement have become one of the most crucial issues in the education of young learners. Socio-economic status is a combination of an individual's work experience based on income, education level, and occupational status, as well as the economic and social dimensions of an individual or family (Bhat et al., 2016). It indicates one's place in society and strongly influences the individuals' experiences from childhood to adulthood (Hackman et al., 2015). In addition, SES is more important for the child's growth in the early years, as it limits access to activities that trigger cognitive growth and materials and conditions for stimulation (Forns et al., 2012). In particular, the parental SES affects the performance of some neuropsychiatric systems more than others, especially memory (anecdotes, events, and meanings), written and oral language age, and executive functions (Hackman et al., 2010; Piccolo et al., 2014). Therefore, SES is generally classified into three categories of high SES, middle SES, and low SES. Children who come from families with a lower level of parental SES are more likely to have less academic success compared to those who belong to a middle level of parental SES. The SES can also affect the quality and quantity of paternal involvement in the education of their children (Bellibas & Gumus, 2013). Thus, the SES and parental involvement warrant further investigation. The present study strove to fill this gap by exploring the intersection of

neoliberalism discourse in education, parental involvement, beliefs, and SES, with regards to the speaking proficiency of young English learners in the post-pandemic era.

Particularly, among the parental factors considered in the study, the parents' beliefs about their child's ability to succeed in learning English were the strongest predictors of English language learning outcomes at all three grade levels (Poon, 2020). According to Wigfield et al. (2006), the parental factors that affect children's school achievement and socialization of motivation are classified into four major influencing factors:

- (a) Parents, family members, and neighbors;
- (b) The general beliefs and behavior of the parents;
- (c) The specific beliefs of the parent's child; and
- (d) Parental behavior.

However, there is evidence that preschool education (5 years after birth) is very important in the transfer of SES from parents to children, in general (Duncan et al., 1994; Farkas & Beron, 2004; Hart & Risley, 1995; Lee & Burkham, 2002). Parents' beliefs, in particular, are also strongly correlated with children's self-assessment ability and confidence while learning English (Butler, 2014). Such involvement includes the time parents spend with their children, teaching strategies, providing toys, and equipment as well as providing educational guidance for them.

With respect to L1 development, socioeconomic status has been found to impact vocabulary learning and language processing at a very early stage. In addition, the child's socioeconomic context, including parental factors, may influence early language development in terms of vocabulary diversity, syntactic complexity, conversational and literacy development, and general processing ability (Hoff, 2013). Apparently, education is becoming more and more a means of reproducing a social class, even if it is not yet perceived as such. For this reason, there is growing concern about performance gaps in English that correlate with the socio-economic status of learners. That is, during the past decades, scholars have been successful in documenting the effect of family SES on school-age young learners' achievement

in academic contexts in various sociocultural settings (e.g., Sirin, 2005; Liu et al., 2020). In recent years, studies on learners' socioeconomic status and parents' beliefs about their young learners' academic success as two significant factors have gained prominence in educational settings.

A growing body of research has investigated the role of socioeconomic status on young learners' language skills (Abel et al., 2017). However, not enough research has been conducted in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) investigating the relationship between young learners' SES and the extent to which they develop English. Few studies have been carried out in this area up to now. Additionally, regardless of the increasing inclination to lower the starting age of learning English as a Second, Foreign, Local or Global language, a few studies have focused on the way parents' socioeconomic status and their beliefs and involvement regarding learning English affect young learners' L2 learning. Much research has been done in areas where English is used as a second language (e.g., Butler, 2014). Moreover, participants were selected from students in two different regions, where the quality of their English education may differ. The current study aims to explore the intersection of the socioeconomic status of parents with their direct and indirect involvement in their education after the pandemic and advocates for funneling high-quality education exclusively to children from affluent families. Rubin et al. (2020) discussed how neoliberal reforms promote parents as individual consumers in education, favoring individual parental consumerism over collective parental engagement for policies that benefit many. This contrasts with the traditional understanding of education as a public good. Thus, this study emphasizes the need to consider these factors when conducting educational research on parental factors in the case of young learners. For the purposes of this study, the following research questions are addressed:

1. What are the relationships between high versus low parental SES and the indirect involvement of parents in their children's English language learning in the post-pandemic era?
2. What are the relationships between high versus low parental SES and the direct involvement of parents in their children's English language learning?

3. What are the relationships between high versus low parental SES and the beliefs of parents about their children's English language learning?

2. Review of literature

Although socio-economic conditions have a decisive effect on academic performance, few studies have studied them thoroughly in the post-pandemic era, much less in the field of language learning. However, the indispensable role of socio-economic status in language learning has recently attracted considerable attention among Second Language Acquisition (SLA) scholars. Some studies have shown that parents' involvement has no impact on student development or adaptation, while in some other studies it has surprising and positive effects. In some cases, parental involvement has reduced student achievement.

Evidently put, children have unique abilities, tendencies, and personalities that play a vital and dominant role in shaping and reshaping their involvement, achievements, and objectives. On the other hand, family structure, size, income, work patterns, education, and characteristics of a community, also affect academic performance and personal adaptation (Alexander et al., 1988; Corwyn & Bradley, 2002; Yeung, et al., 2002).

Davis (1988) investigated the relationship between school achievement and family demographics as well as other variables and academic differences between these two groups of students in single-parent families. The final results of the statistical analysis of this study did not show any correlation between SES and success, but the results support the hypothesis that individuals adapt over time and compensate for any deficiencies arising from the growth of low-income single-parent families.

Khayyer (1994) also examined the effect of SES on academic performance. In his survey, six public elementary schools in the Illawarra region of New South Wales were selected by random selection of content. A demographic and family background questionnaire was used to determine the students' SES. A reading comprehension test (TORCH) and a Mathematics test (PATMATHS) served as instruments to determine the students' academic performance. The results showed that socioeconomic status had a significant direct impact on determining the academic performance in this study. Likewise, Aikens and Barbarin (2008) found that

children with low ESS acquired slower language, delayed character recognition, and phonological recognition and they were at the risk of learning difficulties.

Hamid (2011) also investigated the possible correlation between socioeconomic characteristics and academic performance in English of high school families in rural Bangladesh. Accordingly, the "academic achievement in English" of rural students was low and there was a pattern correlation between family income, parents' educational background and English academic performance at this generally low level of performance. As a result, students with higher levels of parental education and higher family incomes were more likely to score high on the aptitude test and on the English test of the high school qualifying test.

Learners' socioeconomic status with their English scores on the most recent public exam have been examined by Shamim (2011). He stated that learners in the upper-income group are always better than learners in the lower-income group. He suggested that the positive correlation between high family income and students' higher English proficiency could be due to their prior education in English-language private schools compared to the students in the low-income group.

However, some researchers have focused on rural-urban inequalities of English education in different countries (Hu, 2007). Based on a study, Zhang and Adamson, (2007) compared learners' socioeconomic status with their English scores on the most recent public exam. He said learners in the upper-income group are always better than learners in the lower-income group. He suggested that the positive correlation between high family income and students' higher English proficiency could be due to their prior education in English-language private schools compared to the students in the low-income group.

Furthermore, the relationship between a student's socio-economic status and English proficiency level has not been studied effectively in an EFL context. Studies in some European countries (e.g., Croatia, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain, and Sweden) have found that parents' level of education is significantly related to their primary school understanding of foreign languages like English (Butle, 2014). In addition, the degree of influence on the target language outside regular schools and the use of artworks by parents in the language of instruction have also been shown to be reliable (Enever, 2011).

Similarly, a positive correlation between the students' economic status and their overall language learning outcomes was found by Ariani and Ghafournia (2015). Their results showed a significant relationship between the participants' learning outcomes and their attitudes towards language learning. Additionally, the effect of parents' socioeconomic status, their involvement and opinions about learning English on their children's English learning has been studied. Based on their research study, a comprehensive survey of parents found that while parents' views on teaching English and their children's success in learning English did not differ between different SES groups, their direct and indirect involvement differed significantly. In combination with the student learning outcomes data, it was reported that while the parents' SES did not have much effect on their children's listening and reading/writing performance during their primary school years, it did show an effect on their ability to speak in school.

Accordingly, children who come from families with a low level of SES are more likely to have lower academic success compared to those who belong to a middle level of SES family (Poon, 2020). Such differences can be explained in terms of several factors related to parents. As a result, the study focused on the extent to which young learners' academic success in the three core categories is different in children with low and middle class. They also studied the differences in the expectations of parents, their involvement, and the children's engagement in two levels. Finally, they analyzed the role of the parents' expectations, involvement and the children's engagement and explained how socioeconomic status impacts children's success. Their participants were 184 primary students from a low SES and 165 primary students from middle SES in Hong Kong. The results indicated significant differences in all the four variables.

Looking from a different perspective, SES plays an important role in cultural growth of children, particularly in the case of offering them the opportunity to learn a new language. Such language learning within translanguaging paradigm in language education can enhance the multiculturalism competence of children that is emphasized in recent studies such as Ghajarieh and Safiyar (2023) and Ghajarieh et al. (2024).

Besides, SES is more important for the child's growth in early years, as it limits access to activities that trigger cognitive growth and materials and the conditions for stimulation

(Forns et al., 2012). In fact, poverty is believed to affect the parents' ability to address the diverse needs of their children as they grow up, and economic hardships reduce communication between parents and children. Loss of income, unemployment, and other problems will also reduce parental custody and love for their children and will even increase the severity of punishment behaviors. In fact, parents are the first teachers of their children. Therefore, parental education affects learners' academic achievement. For instance, Ahmad et al. (2013) argue that children who are from families with less educated parents tend to do worse in school in comparison with students with more educated parents. For him, parents receive an education that supports their children intellectually, economically, psychologically, and emotionally, thereby helping them to be more comfortable and adapt to their academic growth, which brings them more comfort and higher learning outcomes.

According to this literature review, few studies have investigated the relationship between SES and language learning in the context of FL education. While studies focusing on the effect of SES and parental factors on young learners' oral language proficiency are scarce, almost no studies have examined the effect of these factors when the quality of instruction is controlled. Therefore, the current study attempted to examine the effects of parents' SES as well as their beliefs and level of involvement, on the education of English to Iranian children over a period of time in the post-pandemic era. With this focus, this study is aligned with recent scholarship on the intersection of parental beliefs and involvement, neoliberal discourse in the post-pandemic era, and the socioeconomic status of parents (e.g., Murshidi et al., 2023; Rubin, et al., 2020).

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The target population was the Iranian EFL learners enrolled in *Mahestan* English Language Institute kindergarten, Tehran, Iran. To accomplish the objectives of the study, 28 out of 184 female and male EFL learners within the age range of 4 to 6, were selected through convenience sampling to take part in the present study. Later, they were categorized into two groups of high and low socioeconomic status based on the socioeconomic questionnaire.

3.2. Instruments

The following questionnaires were given to the participants to complete.

Survey of Parents' SES: Information regarding the parents' education and monthly family income was collected through a simple demographic form. The high and low SES levels were determined by calculating the income-to-needs ratio, i.e. dividing the family's total income by the poverty line announced by the Iranian government. Those families who fell below the poverty threshold were classified as low income and those who had 80 percent of the maximum income announced the National Welfare Organization in Iran were classified as high-income households.

Survey of Parental Involvement in Post-pandemic Era: This questionnaire – devised by the authors – comprised items that covered the following elements: (1) characteristics of parents such as their SES; (2) the indirect involvement of parents such as language environment and their English proficiency; (3) the direct involvement of parents such as assisting their children to learn English, helping them do their homework, and providing private classes; (4) their overall views of English; and (5) their views and expectations about their children's capabilities in learning English. To assess the internal validity of the questionnaire, factor analysis was run for each query in the questionnaire. The calculated coefficient of all factors indicates the number of questions with a high internal validity. The highest coefficient was related to the factors on mother's and father's language skills with a coefficient of 0.94 and the lowest value was related to the learning factors of learning and parental support and cooperation with a coefficient of 0.76. Based on the pilot results, some items of the original questionnaire were changed.

3.3. Procedures

This research study was a longitudinal study collecting quantitative data through surveys. The parental involvement questionnaire was piloted in several English institutes in different regions of Tehran during a one-year period before the beginning of the study's practical phase. Two female English language teachers were selected from among experienced teachers in the

institute to hold the English classes in this research study, and 2 classes were selected (each class included 14 students; 7 boys and 7 girls). The morning class was selected for the high SE group with fourteen students (seven boys and seven girls) and the afternoon class was selected for the low SE group with the same number and genders of students. Both classes met five times per week, 4 hours a day. The crucial point here is that for both groups an experienced instructor was chosen who worked in the institute for three years. One of the researchers prepared a syllabus which the instructors reviewed and modified without changing its content. The instruction paralleled with the topics included in the course syllabus and the only resources used were videos and audio files prepared for this study. All class meetings were held in an ordinary classroom equipped with computers, video projectors, and smart boards.

The parental factors include the parents' beliefs on and involvement in their children's English learning. The questionnaires were developed based on the literature and previous samples. Cronbach's alpha reliability for the developed questionnaire was 0.8. Then, their responses were correlated with English grades of their children.

Prior to the data collection, ethical approval was obtained from one of the researchers' institutes. Parents' consent was obtained for all the learners. During the study, the *Mahestan* syllabus was taught to the learners by the trained teachers. Parents were also given a demographic questionnaire including items related to their educational level and income. Participants who had a high-SES and low-SES were only invited to participate in the study. In the evaluation phase, all the parents were asked to fill out a questionnaire about their direct, and indirect involvement, and their opinions. The teachers were also asked to report their learners' academic success and involvement.

4. Results

4.1. High SES Families and Indirect Involvement in the Post-pandemic Era

As displayed in Table 1, the correlation between high SES families and their indirect involvement was significant. All the variables of family income and parents' education were provided below, respectively.

Table 1

Correlation among High SES Variables and Parents' Indirect Involvement

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>SES</i>							
(1) Income							
(2) Father's Education	.75**						
(3) Mother's Education	.77**	.68**					
<i>INDIRECT involvement</i>							
(4) Books In Persian	.37**	.27**	.29**				
(5) Books In English	.38**	.32**	.35**	.41**			
(6) Father's English	.35**	.33**	.41**	.42**	.45**		
(7) Mother's English	.39**	.29**	.25**	.41**	.44**	.39**	

4.2. Low SES Families and Indirect Involvement

In Table 2, the SES variables were significantly and meaningfully correlated with each other. With respect to indirect involvement, their data analysis showed that parents are rather similar with no significant differences in terms of "languages spoken at home, fathers and mothers use of English at work".

Table 2

Correlation among Low SES Variables and Parents' Indirect Involvement

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>SES</i>							
(1) INCOME							
(2) FATHER'S EDUCATION	.73**						
(3) MOTHER'S EDUCATION	.78**	.72**					
<i>INDIRECT INVOLVEMENT</i>							
(4) BOOKS IN	.35**	.26**	.25**				

PERSIAN									
(5) BOOKS IN ENGLISH	.32**	.35**	.35**	.43**					
(6) FATHER'S ENGLISH	.37**	.33**	.42**	.4**	.45**				
(7) MOTHER'S ENGLISH	.37**	.29**	.26**	.41**	.45**	.39**			

4.3. High SES Families and Direct Involvement

Concerning the relation between parents' socioeconomic status and their direct involvement, Table 3 indicated that high SES parents and their direct involvement/beliefs are highly correlated with each other. Besides, the data interpretation revealed that parents' SES is highly correlated with their perceptions in terms of providing educational aids for their children ($r = .83$).

Table 3

Correlation among High SES Variables and Parents' Direct Involvement

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
SES									
(1) Income									
(2) Father's education	.75*								
(3) Mother's education	.77*	.68*							
(4) Mother's English	.39*	.29*	.25*	.41*	.44*	.39*			
Direct involvement									
(1) Study involvement	.34*	.35*	.29*	.42*	.41*	.38*	.36*		
Private classes	.36*	.34*	.22*	.39*	.44*	.39*	.38*	.37*	

Although there are some similarities, the low SES families bear a great number of differences with high SES ones. More detailed information can be found in Table 4. As the data analysis showed, the parents with low SES have a positive correlation with their involvement and beliefs in class activity observation (72%), preparation of educational aids (79%), and the private courses (71%). Regarding private lessons, most parents have not firmly believed in considering more private lessons for the kids and having free time for doing the exercises. The high cost of such classes was their main reason.

Table 4
Correlation among Low SES Variables and Parents' Direct Involvement

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
SES									
(1) Income									
(2) Father's education	.73**								
(3) Mother's education	.78**	.72**							
Direct involvement									
(4) Study involvement	.33**	.35**	.25**	.43**	.41**	.36**	.36**		
(5) Private classes	.33**	.37**	.25**	.37**	.44**	.38**	.37**	.39**	

4.4. High SES Families and Beliefs

Considering the findings shown in Table 5, analyzing the data based on the distinctive criterion of high vs. low families using the questionnaire, the parents' beliefs namely beliefs about English language learning and child's success/abilities were significantly and positively correlated with the families' socioeconomic status. The responses to the questionnaire indicated

that almost all parents believe in the critical role of English as a strategic language in the world. The findings also showed a positive and meaningful association between the parents' beliefs about the child's success or abilities and their SES.

Table 5
Correlation among High SES Variable and Parents' Beliefs

	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
(1) Income										
(2) Father's Education	.75 **									
(3) Mother's Education	.77 **	.68 **								
Beliefs About English Ed.										
(4) Role Of English	.25 **	.29 **	.33 **	.35 **	.28 **	.27 **				
(5) Parents Responsibility	.32 **	.35 **	.39 **	.29 **	.25 **	.26 **	.33 **			
(6) Efforts	.42 **	.43 **	.45 **	.39 **	.38 **	.37 **	.32 **	.31 **		
(7) Beliefs About Success	.41 **	.43 **	.29 **	.39 **	.37 **	.36 **	.35 **	.29 **	.32 **	

5. Discussion

As per the quantitative analysis, the results indicated that the SES played a vital role in shaping the parents' views towards different aspects of language learning. The findings have revealed that the relation between families' income and educational levels, and their SES was meaningfully significant. In terms of educational level, there was a significant difference between both groups in that the high SES families firmly believe in the strategic role of English in forming the ultimate achievement of their kids. They also considered that English plays a crucial role in having a brilliant and successful future both in jobs as well as private lives.

This attitude can be attributed to the parent's level of education and the challenges they have had during their study or work. Those of low SES families do not see such importance in learning English and mostly consider it like other subjects or even consider it less important than them. Meanwhile, some of the parents, however, believe that family income and parents' educational level cannot guarantee the kids' success. Children's efforts and attempts serve as their driving motor to success. Furthermore, high vs. low SES families, expectedly, were different in other aspects of indirect involvement. It can be claimed that reading more books, either in Persian or English, raises the parents' expectations for their children's academic achievement. When they have read a number of books, parents are more sensitive to children's learning, in particular learning a foreign language (Enever, 2011).

Accordingly, English-related home/environments and parental expectations are noticeably correlated with the students' English performance. Such a difference between high and low SES families can be well-justified by Hampton et al.'s (1995) cultural conflict theories which say that the low SES families lack cultural capital such as certain types of expected involvement in school activities and education at home. On the other hand, the high SES families are often matched with what is often expected from them by schools and mainstream societies.

In terms of the effects of direct involvement, the findings showed a significant relationship between the parents' SES and their direct involvement concerning reading English books for their kids. Almost two-thirds of those of high SES families responded that they may spend 2 hours a day reading English books for kids and only 20 percent 3 hours daily. That is,

in contrast with low SES families who, mostly, pointed out that reading a L2 book is a usual experience in their home. Considering Hampton et al.'s (1995) institutional deficiency, it can be argued that low SES families relate home-oriented extra activities to the deficiency of institutes that do not take responsibility for what they are expected to do and try to engage families in particular functions to perform parts of their duties. As the findings revealed, it can be claimed that high SES families care more about their children's learning process, do their best to provide the best educational aids, monitor their learning process using different means and strategies, and enroll their kids in even more private classes. According to the results, the high SES parents maintain that academic achievement cannot fulfill opportunities for education attainment, namely effective schooling and equality in education. This is supported by Miura (2010) who referred to the role of families' SES background in influencing the educational attainment and career choices (Zou & Zhang, 2011). Additionally, the results of the study can be discussed regarding the discourse of neoliberalism which focuses on the idea that money plays a pivotal role in providing better opportunities for students to be educated in different school subjects, including English. The SES of parents can also be explored and identified narrative stories of young learners in education (e.g., see Alt et al., 2016). The involvement of parents in the education of their children in the post-pandemic era (Murshidi et al., 2023) also added a new dimension to parental involvement and most of the parents who participated in this study highlighted this in their interviews. Thus, in the Iranian context, the convergence of neoliberalism discourse and the post-pandemic era has the potential to increase discrimination experienced by young learners in education. This is particularly observable in online classes, wherein parents assume a central role in ensuring their children comprehend and complete assigned tasks and lessons during each session. The findings revealed the intersection of parental beliefs, involvement, and socioeconomic status with the discourse of neoliberalism in the post-pandemic era. It is evident that young learners in education systems across various countries may experience varying levels of discrimination. Therefore, policymakers in education, as well as scholars engaged in educational research, should consider the existence of intersectionality in education when setting policies or undertaking academic investigations.

6. Conclusion

The current study aimed to investigate the extent to which there can be any relationships between the parents' socioeconomic status and their direct/indirect involvement regarding English language learning of their children. Moreover, the study sought to examine the links between the parents' socioeconomic status and their views on English language learning of their children. As the present study has focused on a limited number of parents in an affluent district in Tehran, which would make it difficult to extrapolate the findings to other contexts, therefore, future researchers are recommended to replicate the studies in other areas of the country and involve different groups of individuals with different SES backgrounds. Also, the study used a self-reported questionnaire, thus, further studies can be concentrated on drawing upon other means for data collection. While the SES is under the radar in many educational settings, the impact of such factors is detrimental for learners having low SES parents.

In addition, the role of other agencies in education, especially in the case of young learners who are greatly affected by their parents' financial status as well as their schools' resources should be regarded as vital. The failure to include children with low SES parents in education policies and language learning and teaching approaches increases the vulnerability of these children and lowers their outlook for a better future. The findings substantiated the findings of previous investigations concerning the effects of parents' direct/indirect involvement and their beliefs on their kids' L2 learning. The differences between high versus low SES families can be explored in the sociopolitical/economic conditions of Iran. The results of this study are beneficial to teachers working with young learners, teacher educators, and policy makers in different ways. Also, teachers and teacher educators could discuss the SES of parents and their interconnectedness with learning outcomes in pre- and in-service courses. Moreover, the study could also raise the awareness of policymakers and curriculum designers regarding low SES learners in education as high-stake agencies whose abilities in learning a new language can be affected. This, in turn, encourages the implementation of more policies to support the children of such families. It is hoped that this study encourages more related research on language education research in Iran and other countries with a focus on the intersectionality of different factors and discourses on a certain variable in education. After all, equality in education cannot be achieved without raising the awareness of agencies involved in

training our children regarding the existent inequality and the interaction of different factors and discourses on existent educational issues.

Conflict of interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper.

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The Investigation of Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Teaching Styles among Iraqi EFL Teachers

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Abstract

This study set out to determine whether teachers' emotional intelligence predicted their teaching styles or not. Moreover, it aimed at investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and the aspects of EFL teachers' teaching styles. The participants selected were 50 Iraqi EFL teachers from high schools in Kerkuk, Iraq. The study utilized the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) and the Grasha's Teaching Styles Inventory (TSI) questionnaire as the tools for data collection. The results of the study disclosed that a significant and positive relationship exists between the emotional intelligence of Iraqi EFL teachers and the aspects of their teaching styles. Furthermore, emotional intelligence predicted 47.5% of expert style. The regression analysis yielded another outcome, wherein emotional intelligence emerged as a predictor for teaching styles such as "formal authority", "personal model", "facilitator", and "delegator". The findings imply that emotional intelligence plays a substantial role in influencing the teaching styles employed by the teachers. Consequently, the emotional intelligence can probably contribute to the enhancement of educational standards.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, Teaching styles, EFL teaching, Iraqi EFL teachers

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1. Introduction

Using emotional intelligence (EI), besides having some advantages, can have some disadvantages too. Another topic to consider is education, as a critical issue in our lives which necessitates taking a strategic approach. In this strategic process, people must be involved: the people who should be able to take charge of becoming actual "shapers" (teachers or professors), as well as the people who should grow over time by being shaped in a setting where they feel like they belong (students). The interaction between students and professors is significant (Radu, 2014). On the other side of the coin, we face the main concern of educators (including teachers, professors, trainees, mentors, etc.), which is motivating the students. By increasing students' motivation, the use of emotional intelligence also begins to increase at both conceptual and pragmatic levels (Radu, 2014). In this regard, many parties must realize how students' emotional intelligence or EQ can help them learn more effectively and perform better in language learning (Goleman, 1995). According to the research studies, having emotional intelligence can help people succeed when they move from school to college and in workforce (Mohzan et al., 2013).

Some of the fundamental abilities in teaching profession include understanding what triggers emotions and being able to express one's own and others' feelings. For teachers to be able to create their emotional states as well as those of others, the capacity to use emotions is crucial. Teachers can increase motivation, dynamism, interest, and attentiveness in the classroom by feeling the correct emotions at right times. In managing other relationships with school administrators and parents, it is likewise crucial to manage emotions appropriately (Brackett & Katulak, 2013).

Regarding the preliminaries, the majority of the study to date focused on the practices, processes, and effects of student-centered learning and teaching methods. As a consequence, a smaller amount of research has investigated the motivators, facilitators, and constraints of the implementation of such methods (Nghiem-Phú & Nguyễn, 2020). So, this study makes an attempt to investigate the relationship between teaching styles and emotional intelligence among Iraqi EFL teachers.

Choosing the right teaching strategy is essential for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction to be successful. To succeed, EFL teachers must master a range of teaching methods (Joyce & Weil, 1986). Choosing instructional strategies can be informed by the research on learning and teaching styles (Canfield, 1976). Joyce and Weil (1986) claim that learners exhibit varying responses to distinct teaching techniques and styles. Therefore, the identification of appropriate teaching methods and styles is crucial for the development learners' learning styles. Based on the given objectives, the following questions can be addressed:

- 1) Is there any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and teaching styles among Iraqi EFL teachers?
- 2) Based on EI, what are Iraqi EFL teachers' most important teaching styles?

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Emotional Intelligence (EI)

The concept of social intelligence marked the beginning of the field of EI. Thorndike, in 1920, viewed emotional intelligence (EI) through the prism of social intelligence, stating that social intelligence is the capacity for empathy and prudent behavior in interpersonal interactions (as cited in Goleman, 1998), but his ideas were not taken seriously until the later decades. Emotional thought was regarded as falling under the umbrella of intellect in 1948. No significant efforts were made in this area until the middle of the 1980s when Howard Gardner's writings gave a new life to Thorndike's perspective (Goleman, 1998). Eight different categories of intelligence were proposed by Gardner (1983), and one of them (i.e., personal intelligence) paved the way for the extensive development of EI. Finally, Mayer and Salovey developed their comprehensive model of EI and completely described it in 1990, building on Gardner's perspective and emphasis on individual variations (Bar-On, 1997).

The connection between emotions, reasoning, and academic success has been made clearer by the concept of emotional intelligence. According to some researchers (e.g., Hassan et al., 2015; McCown et al., 2007), teachers' EI competencies are very important for their ability to be effective educators. EI consists of three crucial emotional factors: (a) the

capacity to recognize and understand emotions; (b) the capacity to compare emotions and feelings; and (c) the capacity to regulate one's own emotions as well as those of others (Salovey et al., 2004). The original EI model developed by Goleman (1995) contains five domains: handling relationships, motivating oneself, motivating others, and knowing one's own emotions. Understanding one's emotions is one of several intrapersonal abilities people have and employ while controlling their emotions and actions. Managing emotions is another name for interpersonal skills, which people employ when interacting with others.

2.2. Teaching Styles

The concept of "teaching style" encompasses all of the approaches, activities, strategies, tactics, and methods that an educator uses when instructing a particular subject in a classroom. The personalities, material knowledge, classroom conduct, classroom monitoring, and even the teaching atmosphere of the teachers all influence how they instruct in the classroom. The teaching styles utilized in educational settings impact all previously listed events and activities. How the teaching is carried out in a classroom affects the learners' personalities, the setting in which they study, and the learning process itself (Cooper, 2001).

Teaching style is one of the most crucial topics debated in educational profession. According to Snow, Corno, and Jackson (1996) in the *Handbook of Educational Psychology* (p. 281, as cited in Dörnyei, 2005), no topic we have reviewed contains more voluminous, complex, and contentious literature than that of personal styles. Regarding teaching style, there are numerous theories, models, and definitions. It was described as "a ubiquitous style of approaching the learners that might be congruent with numerous techniques of instructor" (Fischer & Fischer, 1979, p. 246). According to Kaplan and Kies (1995), a teacher's "teaching style comprises of personal behavior and the medium utilized to convey or receive information from the learner" (p. 2). According to Grasha's point of view (2002), teaching style involves teachers' interactions with students continuously and consistently throughout the teaching-learning process. According to Jarvis (2004), a teacher's approach to instruction "includes the application of philosophy; it involves evidence of beliefs about, values about, and attitudes toward all the components of the teaching-learning interaction" (p. 40). So, a

teacher's approach, activity, and method repertoire throughout class is referred to as their teaching style (Cooper, 2001). The teaching style has been categorized in many ways.

2.3. Different Types of Teaching Styles

Grasha (1996) identified five fundamental teaching ideologies that are connected to different results for kids:

- ***Expert***

A teacher with an expert style seeks to maintain his status as an authority among pupils by delivering in-depth knowledge. Teachers still hold the job of specialist to deliver information to students. It aims to uphold his position as a source of authority among students by showcasing in-depth knowledge and encouraging learners to advance their skills (Iqbal et al., 2020). The teacher challenges students to increase knowledge sharing. The teacher gives the students the skills and knowledge they needed to deal with everyday problems.

- ***Formal Authority***

A teacher who uses the formal authority method of instruction frequently concentrates on the material and keeps a close eye on the students. The involvement needs and emotional factors of the student are not given priority in this teaching approach. This strategy is teacher-centered, meaning that the teacher is in charge of educating the students. They are respected by the pupils because of their expertise and commitment as instructors.

- ***Personal Model***

When a teacher adopts a personal model approach, learners are expected to emulate the instructor's behavior in the classroom by adopting similar attitudes and practices. In the "Personal Model cluster", teachers are viewed as role models. Students are urged to see their professors' behavior and then model that behavior to think and act practically. Students who experience this teaching approach excessively may feel inadequate due to stress and failure to achieve teachers' expectations or standards (Grasha, 1996, 2002).

- ***Facilitator***

A facilitator teacher places a strong emphasis on self-learning and self-discovery in the classroom. Students who are taught using a facilitator's method turn out to be independent and responsible adults.

▪ **Delegator**

A delegator teacher fosters the students' confidence and increases their autonomy. He or she emphasizes the importance of working in teams. The primary goals of this style are peer-to-peer learning and collaboration. If teachers overuse this type of instruction, they run the risk of underestimating the student's aptitude for independent work. Students may feel anxious when assigned individual assignments (Grasha, 1994a, 1994b, 2000).

Additionally, how one modifies his/her teaching method depends on previous teaching and learning experiences, as well as one's educational and cultural upbringing (Faruji, 2012; Nouraey & Karimnia, 2016; Tavakoli & Karimnia, 2017). This classification in terms of student- and teacher-centered learning is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Classification of Grasha's Teaching Styles: Student-Centered vs. Teacher-Centered Styles (Kazemi & Soleimani, 2013, p.194)

“Teacher-Centered Styles”	“Student-Centered Styles”
“The Expert Style”	“The Facilitator Style”
“The Personal Model Style”	“The Delegator Style”
“The Formal Authority Style”	

2.4. Empirical Studies

A study by Shatalebi et al. (2012) also looked at the connection between emotional intelligence traits and learning styles. 320 B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. students participated in this study. According to the study's findings, just three of the 15 elements of emotional intelligence - intrapersonal connections, impulse control, and happiness - are compatible with the learning styles.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher effectiveness was examined by Koçoğlu (2011). Ninety pre-service university teachers of English participated in the study. The findings showed that teachers valued efficiency in managing the class over having a good time. The teachers scored highest in helping skills and anxiety tolerance but lowest in emotional intelligence autonomy and self-reflection. The findings indicated a significant positive relationship between EI and teacher effectiveness.

A research study was conducted by Mousapour and Khorram (2015). This study aimed to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and teaching styles among Iranian EFL teachers. Another purpose of the study was to identify the emotional intelligence components that could predict the teaching styles of Iranian EFL teachers. The study included a population of 90 Iranian EFL teachers from *Sistan-Baluchestan* province high schools and language institutes. The study utilized the Emotional Quotient Questionnaire by Bar-On and Grasha's Teaching Styles Inventory Questionnaire as research instruments. The findings revealed a strong positive correlation between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their teaching styles. Additionally, five components of emotional intelligence were found to predict the teachers' teaching styles. The investigator of the study explored these components and determined that four of them (interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability, and stress management) could act as predictors of teachers' teaching styles.

In a research study by Öznacar et al. (2017), the relationship between teaching styles and emotional intelligence of teachers was explored. The study was attended by 355 elementary school teachers, 177 male and 178 female, who were randomly selected from 18 schools in Konya in 2015. Both the Grasha-Reichmann Teaching Style Inventory and the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire - Short Form (TEIQue - SF) were employed as data collection tools. The study's findings showed a substantial positive link between teachers' emotional intelligence and their teaching styles across all subscales, including expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator. According to the findings, emotional intelligence is highly likely to aid teachers in raising the standard of education because it has a big impact on how they choose to educate.

Another study was conducted by Heidarnejad et al. (2017) with the main purpose of investigating EFL teachers' preferred teaching styles and the emotions that they experienced in their classes. Grasha's Teaching Style Inventory and Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers questionnaires were used to investigate teaching style preferences and teachers' emotions.

In a recent study, Habeb Al-Obaydi et al. (2022) investigated the emotional intelligence in EFL learning and teaching in Iraq and the Czech Republic. Despite the cultural differences between Iraq and the Czech Republic, English is considered as a foreign language in both countries.

3. Method

3.1. Design of the Study

The present investigation employed a correlational design of the QUAN nature, employing quantitative research methods to explore the connections between emotional intelligence and teaching styles among Iraqi EFL teachers. To measure these constructs, a specialized questionnaire was devised and implemented. Furthermore, this study adopted a survey approach to identify the most significant teaching styles practiced by Iraqi EFL teachers as influenced by their emotional intelligence.

3.2. Participants

A total number of 50 Iraqi EFL teachers participated in this study. The ages of EFL teachers were 20 and 40 years old and they were B.A. and M.A. holders. They were selected randomly from high schools in Kerkuk, Iraq.

Table 2

Demographic Information of the Participants

Age	Gender	Years of teaching English
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Participants	20-30 years	31-40 years		Male	Female	1-7 years	8-15 years	16+years
Iraqi EFL Teachers	31	19		31	19	28	17	5
Total	50			50			50	

Table 2 indicates the demographic information of the participants. 50 Iraqi EFL teachers were the total study sample. According to Table 3, 62 % of participants were male, and 38% of teachers were female. 62% of the participants were in the age range of 20-30 years old, and 38% of the teachers were in the range of 31-40 years old. 56% of them were in the range of 1-7 years of teaching English, 34% of teachers were in the range of 8-15 years of teaching English, and 10% of them were in the range of 16+ years of teaching English. The participants' gender, age, teaching experience, and the level that they taught were not examined in this study.

3.3. Instruments

To quantify the variables of the study, the following scales were utilized.

Teaching Styles Inventory (TSI)

The participants were presented with the Teaching Styles Inventory (TSI), which is a comprehensive questionnaire consisting of 40 multiple-choice questions. Each response was meticulously evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale, whereby the participants indicated their level of agreement or disagreement on a scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Every set of items about different teaching styles underwent careful analysis to determine the range of mean scores. Table 3 provides an overview of the dimensions associated with each teaching style within the TSI framework based on Grasha's concept. These mean scores were then categorized as either low, moderate, or high according to Grasha's guidelines established in 1996. Additionally, Table 4 presents the strength levels categorized as low, moderate, or high across all five teaching style categories while also including Grasha's TSI score norms for reference purposes

Table 3

Categorization of Various Teaching Style Inventory (TSI) Items by Grasha

Teaching Style	Items
“Expert”	“1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36”
“Formal Authority”	“2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37”
“Personal Model”	“3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38”
“Facilitator”	“4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39”
“Delegator”	“5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40”

Table 4

Grasha's TSI Score Norms

Delegator	Facilitator	Personal model	Formal authority	Expert	Preference
1.0-2.6	1.0-3.7	1.0-4.3	1.0-4.0	1.0-3.2	Low
2.7-4.2	3.8-5.3	4.4-5.7	4.1-5.4	3.3-4.8	Moderate
4.3-7.0	5.4-7.0	5.8-7.0	5.5-7.0	4.9-7.0	High

Table 5

Reliability Statistics of TSI

N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
40	0.914

Grasha's study concluded that this instrument displayed satisfactory levels of validity and reliability (see Table 5). The Cronbach's alpha test findings for the teaching styles variable demonstrate that the dependability value obtained is at a high level because the value is 0.91 which is higher than 0.7.

Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)

The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) is taken from the work of Schutte et al. (1998) and serves as a tool to evaluate the emotional intelligence of teachers. It is a self-report instrument that comprises two sections. The first section pertains to demographic information, such as university, college, and stage of study. The second section consists of thirty-five items, rated on a seven-point Likert scale. Participants are required to indicate their level of agreement with each item, using a scale that ranges from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Notably, three of these items (5, 28, and 33) are scored in reverse. The scale is rooted in the conceptual framework of emotional intelligence developed by Mayer and Salovey (1997). All responses ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree, with higher scores indicating stronger agreement. These selected responses were summed and averaged to obtain this score.

Table 6

Reliability Statistics of EIQ

N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
35	0.915

According to Table 6, Cronbach's alpha test for the teaching styles variable demonstrates that the dependability value obtained is at a high level because the value is 0.915 which is higher than 0.7.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

To carry out this study, various instruments were meticulously prepared and employed. The researcher gained access to a total of 50 participants residing in Iraq. Once the samples had been carefully chosen, they were requested to complete the questionnaires over a period of one month. The emotional intelligence (EI) scale involved the implementation of 35 distinct items, utilizing a Likert scale consisting of seven points.

Additionally, Grasha's Teaching Styles Questionnaire was implemented which aimed at ascertaining the predominant EFL teaching style amongst the respondents. This questionnaire encompassed forty items measured by a Likert scale response format ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Subsequent calculations generated mean score ranges for each subset about the individual teaching styles; these averages were subsequently categorized as low, moderate, or high based on some predetermined standards established by Grasha in 1996. The data obtained from the surveys was inputted by the authors into a software known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25. This was done to carry out both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. Descriptive statistics were employed to provide a summary of various aspects of the variables, such as the number of participants, mean values, and standard deviations. Additionally, a Pearson-product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression were utilized to explore whether there existed any significant relationship between the emotional intelligence levels of Iraqi EFL teachers and their respective teaching styles.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

In the initial set of analyses, the relationship between EI and teaching styles among EFL Iraqi teachers was described. This study represented mean and standard deviation, including a frequency analysis of the descriptive data, gathered from the questionnaires. The aspects of teaching style and EI among Iraqi EFL teachers are shown in Table 8 along with their respective means and standard deviations and standard error. According to this table, the expert (M=3.91, SD=1.17), delegator (M=3.74, SD=1.19), and facilitator (M=3.89, SD=1.23) in Iraqi teaching style had a moderate level. The personal model (M=3.82, SD= 1.29) and formal authority (M=3.63, SD= 0.97) had a lower level than other aspects of teaching style among Iraqi EFL teachers. In general, the mean value of teaching styles was M=3.77, SD=1.05. The emotional intelligence among Iraqi EFL teachers had a Mean of 3.51 and Standard Deviation of 1.03.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of Aspects of Teaching Style and EI among Iraqi EFL Teachers

Variables	N	M	SD	SE
Expert	50	3.91	1.17	0.166
Personal model	50	3.82	1.29	0.183
Delegator	50	3.74	1.19	0.169
Facilitator	50	3.89	1.23	0.175
Formal authority	50	3.63	0.97	0.137
Teaching Style	50	3.77	1.05	0.148
Emotional Intelligence (EI)	50	3.51	1.03	0.146

4.2. Inferential Statistics

The Pearson-product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression have been utilized to investigate the relationship between teaching styles and EI and prioritize the dimensions of teaching styles among Iraqi EFL teachers based on their emotional intelligence.

Based on the data obtained in Table 8, the Pearson correlation between two variables in this study in the general sample was 0.63 and the significance level was 0.00 which was less than 0.05 ($r = 0.63$, $\rho = 0.00 < 0.05$). It can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between EFL teachers' EI and their expert style in the overall sample. Because the value of the correlation coefficient was positive; therefore, there was a direct relationship between EI and expert style among Iraqi EFL teachers.

Table 8

Pearson Correlation Test between EFL Teachers' EI and Expert Style

Test Statistics	Value
Pearson coefficient	0.634
significance	0.000

As shown in Table 9, there was a statistically significant relationship between EI and formal authority of Grasha's teaching style among Iraqi EFL teachers ($r=0.53$, $\rho=0.00<0.05$). Thus, it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between EFL teachers' EI and their formal authority style. Because the value of the correlation coefficient was positive; therefore, there was a direct relationship between EI and formal authority style among Iraqi EFL teachers.

Table 9

Pearson Correlation Test between EFL Teachers' EI and Formal Authority Style

Test Statistics	Value
Pearson coefficient	0.530
significance	0.000

Based on the presented data in Table 10, a statistically significant correlation was observed between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and personal model of Grasha's teaching style

among Iraqi EFL teachers ($r=0.548$, $\rho=0.00<0.05$). This indicated a significant relationship between EI and personal model. Additionally, the positive value of the correlation coefficient suggested a direct relationship between EI and personal teaching style among Iraqi EFL teachers.

Table 10

Pearson Correlation Test between EFL Teachers' EI and Personal Model Style

Test Statistics	Value
Pearson coefficient	0.548
significance	0.000

Thus, it can be concluded that there was a significant correlation between EFL teachers' EI and their facilitator style across the entire sample ($r=0.53$, $\rho=0.00<0.05$). Due to the positive correlation coefficient value, a consistent relationship was observed between EI and facilitator style among Iraqi EFL teachers.

Table 11

Pearson Correlation Test between EFL Teachers' EI and Facilitator Style

Test Statistics	Value
Pearson coefficient	0.538
significance	0.000

According to Table12, there was a statistically significant relationship between EI and delegator of Grasha's teaching style among Iraqi EFL teachers ($r=0.481$, $\rho=0.00<0.05$). It can be concluded that there was a significant relationship between EFL teachers' EI and their delegator style. Because the value of the correlation coefficient was positive; therefore, there was a direct relationship between EI and delegator style among Iraqi EFL teachers.

Table 12

Pearson Correlation Test between EFL Teachers' EI and Delegator Style

Test Statistics	Value
Pearson coefficient	0.481
significance	0.000

To answer the second research question and examine the relationship between one continuous dependent variable and some independent variables or predictors, Multiple Regression was used in this study.

The results obtained from Table13 indicated that the regression coefficient which was calculated with a significance level of $\rho=0.00$ was equal to $r=0.63$. Since this significance level was smaller than the desired significance level $\alpha=0.05$, it can be concluded that there was enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis, as a result, the null hypothesis was rejected and the main hypothesis was confirmed. The constant variance of residuals was studied using a scatterplot of residuals in fitted regression. As shown in Figure 1, the points of expert style were located on or around the line which represents a normal distribution.

Table13

Multiple Regression Analysis with EI Predicting the “Expert” Teaching Style

Independent Variable	ANOVA			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	R ²	F	Sig.	Estimated coefficient(B)	Std. Error			
	Beta							
Constant	-	-	-	1.335	0.400	0.634	3.340	0.002
EI	0.475	32.22	0.000	0.556	0.098		5.676	0.000

Dependent variable: expert teaching style

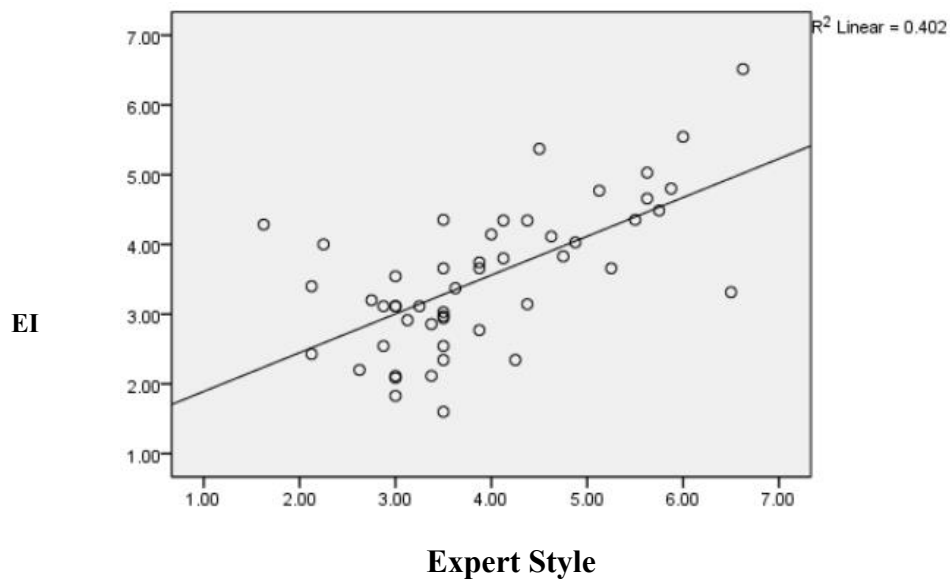


Figure1

Scatterplot of EI with Expert Style

Table 14 indicated that the regression coefficient which was calculated with a significance level of $\rho=0.00$ was equal to $R=0.53$. Since this significance level was smaller

than the desired significance level $\rho=0.05$, there was enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. As shown in Figure 2, the points of formal authority style were located on or around the line which represents a normal distribution.

Table 14

Multiple Regression Analysis with EI Predicting the “Formal Authority” Teaching Style

Independent Variable	ANOVA			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	R ²	F	Sig.	Estimated coefficient(B)	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	-	-		1.879	0.422	0.530	4.455	0.000
EI	0.281	18.75	0.000	0.499	0.115		4.331	0.000

Dependent variable: Formal Authority Style

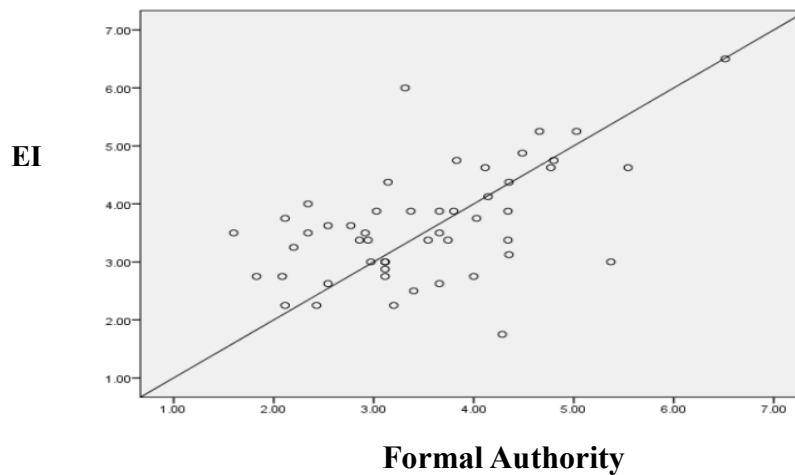


Figure 2

Scatterplot of EI with Formal Authority Style

Table 15 illustrates that the regression coefficient was computed at a significance level of $\rho = 0.00$, which is $r = 0.54$. Given that this significance level is less than the desired significance level of 0.05, there is substantial evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected while the main hypothesis was confirmed. Figure 3 demonstrated that the data points for the personal model style were situated on or near the line representing a normal distribution.

Table 15

Multiple Regression Analysis with EI Predicting the “Personal Model” Teaching Style

Independent Variable	ANOVA			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	R ²	F	Sig.	Estimated	Std.	Beta		
				coefficient(B)	Error			
Constant	-	-		1.404	0.554	0.548	2.533	0.015
EI	0.300	20.60	0.000	0.688	0.152		4.539	0.000

Dependent variable: Personal Model Style

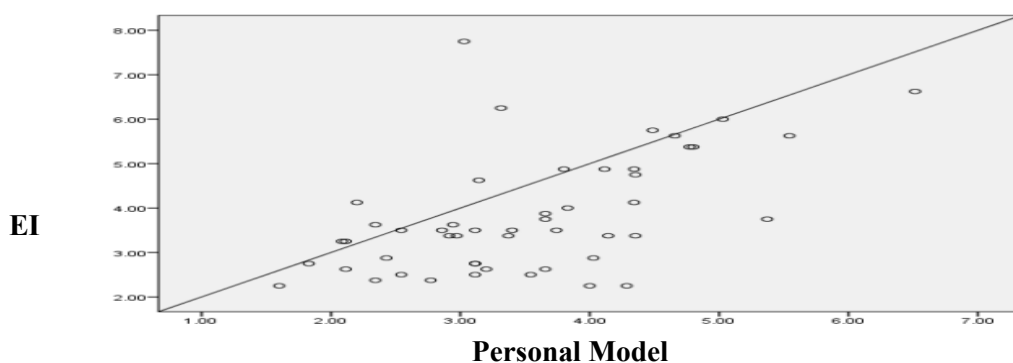


Figure 3

Scatterplot of EI with Personal Model Style

The results obtained from Table 16, indicated that the regression coefficient which was calculated with a significance level of $\rho=0.00$ was equal to $r=0.53$. Since this significance level was smaller than the desired significance level $\rho=0.05$, there was enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. The constant variance of residuals was studied with using a scatterplot of residuals in fitted regression. As shown in Figure 4, the points of the facilitator style were located on or around the line which represents a normal distribution.

Table16

Multiple Regression Analysis with EI Predicting the “Facilitator” Teaching Style

Independent Variable	ANOVA			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	R ²	F	Sig.	Estimated	Std.	Beta		
				coefficient(B)	Error			
Constant	-	-	-	1.627	0.533	0.538	3.050	0.004
EI	0.289	19.54	0.000	0.645	0.146		4.421	0.000

Dependent variable: Facilitator Style

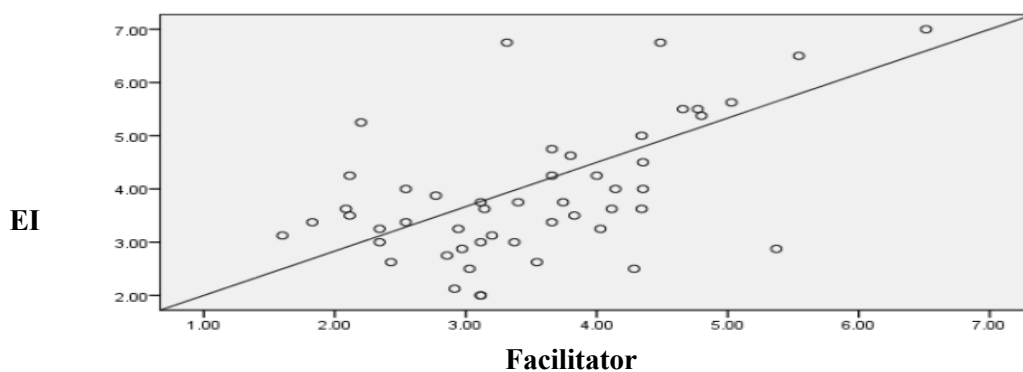


Figure 4

Scatterplot of EI with Facilitator Style

The results obtained from Table 17, indicated that the regression coefficient which was calculated with a significance level of $\rho=0.00$ was equal to $r=0.48$. Since this significance level was smaller than the desired significance level $\rho=0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected. The constant variance of residuals was studied using a scatterplot of residuals in fitted regression. As shown in Figure 5, the points of delegator style were located on or around the line which represents a normal distribution.

Table 17

Multiple Regression Analysis with EI Predicting the “Delegator” Teaching Style

Independent Variable	ANOVA			Unstandardized Coefficients			Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	R ²	F	Sig.		Estimated coefficient(B)	Std. Error	Beta			
Constant	-	-	-	-	1.776	0.537	0.481	3.329	0.002	
EI	0.231	14.42	0.000	0.000	0.557	0.147		3.798	0.000	

Dependent variable: Delegator Style

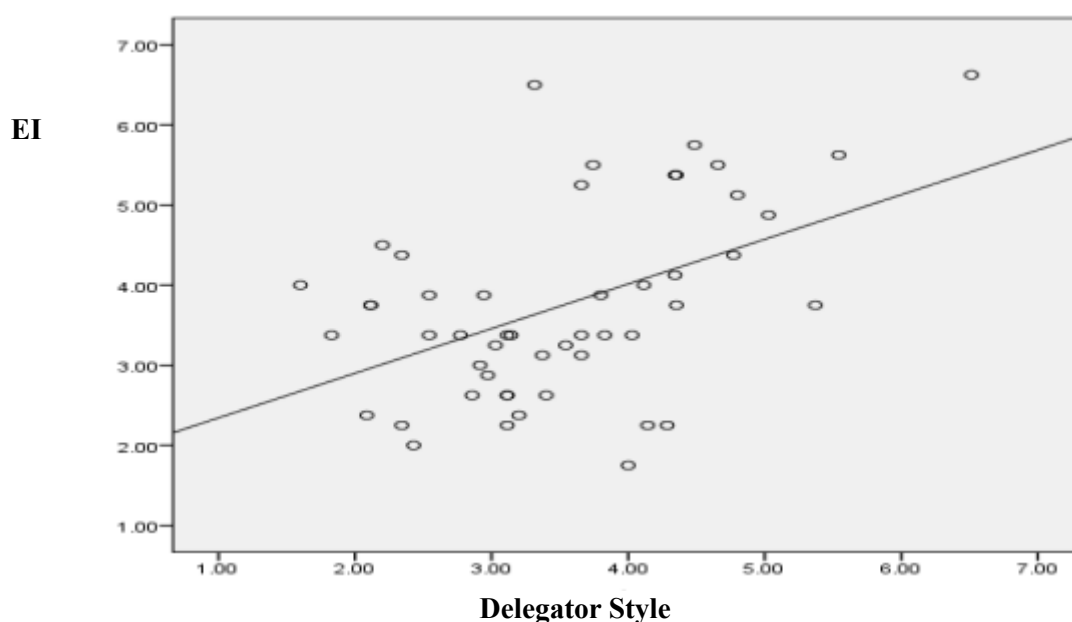


Figure 5

Scatterplot of EI with Delegator Style

5. Discussion

The findings of this study are supported by Akbari and Tavassoli (2011), Mousapour and Khorram (2015), and Öznacar et al. (2017) who also discovered a relationship between the teachers' emotional intelligence and their teaching styles. Goetz et al. (2013) and Heydarnejad et al. (2017) also corroborated the correlation between the EI of teachers and their teaching styles. Shatalebi et al. (2012) likewise documented similar findings, as they scrutinized the interconnection between emotional intelligence components and learning styles. Their analysis unearthed a correlation between specific components of emotional intelligence and various learning styles, as well as individual preferences.

Given the results obtained from the regression analysis, emotional intelligence predicted 47.5% of expert style. Teachers with an "expert" teaching style typically possess characteristics of traditional teachers. They are equipped with the essential knowledge and skills, and they work to communicate effectively in a controlled setting using precise information (Evin Gencel, 2013). From the results of the investigation, one could contend that teachers who possess an "expert" teaching style may require a heightened degree of

motivation, exertion, and skillfulness, potentially associated with dimensions of well-being and sensitivity within emotional intelligence. This discovery is corroborated by comparable investigations (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2008), which ascertained that the teachers' emotional intelligence foretold their self-efficacy.

Hence, it can be contended that there exists a correlation between all these aspects of teaching style and emotional intelligence. A sub-dimension of emotional intelligence known as "well-being" focuses on the positive evaluation of oneself and satisfaction with one's life (Deniz et al., 2013), which may be associated with self-efficacy of teachers. Numerous studies have provided support for this discovery (Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2008; Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Vesely et al., 2013).

It was mentioned above that EI predicted "formal authority", "personal model", "facilitator", and "delegator" from 23% to 30%. According to Öznacar et al. (2017), the "sociability" dimension of EI predicts the "formal authority", "personal model", "facilitator" and "delegator" sub-scales of teaching styles. "Sociability" as another dimension of EI is related to the ability to impress and convince people, maintain healthy contact with them, and recognize their emotions (Deniz et al., 2013). Teachers who possess proficient communication abilities can enhance their teaching aptitude to an elevated degree using cultivating favorable social connections with their students. Scholarly research has demonstrated a strong correlation between teacher efficacy and student accomplishment and contentment (Şen & Erişen, 2002).

As can be seen clearly, teachers who have effective communication skills can improve their teaching skills up to higher levels through positive social relations they build with their students. Studies have shown that teacher efficacy is closely related to student achievement and gratification (Şen & Erişen, 2002). It has been discovered that there exists a noteworthy and constructive correlation between the emotional intelligence possessed by teachers and their aptitude for communication (Öznacar et al., 2017). This finding is further reinforced by several studies that have also uncovered a positive and substantial relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their proficiency in communication, as

demonstrated by Gürşimşek, Vural, and Demirsöz (2008) as well as Sigmar, Hynes, and Hill (2012).

Most teaching styles are associated with qualifications of teachers, including their level of creativity, job productivity, problem-solving abilities, and critical thinking skills, all of which can be considered as indicators of teaching proficiency. The literature presented a multitude of studies that have demonstrated a relationship between the emotional intelligence of teachers and their level of creativity and originality (Murphy & Janeke, 2009; Bender, 2006). Additionally, these studies have also revealed a connection between teachers' problem-solving skills (Güler, 2006) and their job performance (Yoke & Panatik, 2016).

6. Conclusion

EI plays a significant role in all aspects of teachers' lives. The development of emotional intelligence (EI) among teachers is of paramount importance as it promotes the establishment of harmonious and reliable relationships, enhances their understanding of others, and facilitates a more accurate interpretation of others' behaviors (Sharma et al., 2012). EI is essential to English language teaching. EI and success in teaching and learning English have a highly positive link, which can be used to explain this role (Zarezadeh, 2013). EI grants educators the capacity to manage their emotions, thereby fortifying their resilience in confronting the difficulties inherent in carrying out their professional duties (Puertas Molero et al., 2019). EI develops the level of teachers' work involvement and boosts their confidence in their personal and professional lives. However, the successful development of emotional skills requires motivation, effort, time, support, and sustained practice (Sharma et al., 2012).

Conflict of interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper.

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The Impact of Reading Genre-Specific Texts on EFL Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract

The present study was designed to explore the impact of reading genre-specific texts on intermediate Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' vocabulary learning in intensive reading courses. The vocabulary instruction was provided through three methods: the science fiction genre instruction, the narrative genre instruction and the conventional techniques used by language institutes. The findings showed that the EFL learners' vocabulary learning was improved in science fiction genre group. In addition, this strategy was effective in improving the learners' vocabulary recall and retention. The teacher-led science fiction genre may have raised the learners' motivation that helped them to change. On the other hand, narrative-genre-instruction group showed an improvement in both immediate and delayed post-test. Both narrative and science fiction genres played a role in initial vocabulary recall, as evidenced by the immediate posttest performance. However, the substantial drop in scores between immediate and delayed tests suggests that the learners in both groups did not retain the vocabulary well. This indicates that forgetting occurred regardless of the genre used for instruction.

Keywords: Reading comprehension, Science fiction genre, Narrative genre, Vocabulary learning

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1. Introduction

For Iranian students navigating the competitive landscape of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education, mastering vocabulary remains a crucial hurdle (Laufer & Sim, 2017). Beyond rote memorization, research unveils a profound connection between robust vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension proficiency (Stapleton & Eckerti, 2018). This study delves into this intricate relationship, exploring the impact of targeted vocabulary practice on the reading comprehension abilities of Iranian EFL learners, with a specific focus on the unique demands of science fiction and narrative genres.

Previous studies challenge the traditional perspective that prioritizes grammar over vocabulary in language acquisition. Nation (2013) emphasizes the vocabulary's central role, arguing it forms the bedrock of communication and expression. Lewis (1993) advocates for a "lexical approach", viewing vocabulary not as an appendage to grammar but as the foundation for effective communication (p. 95). This aligns with the growing understanding that effective vocabulary learning strategies empower learners to become autonomous and self-directed language users (Oxford, 1990).

However, the current state of EFL education in Iran often presents challenges for vocabulary acquisition. While acknowledging the four language skills, the current system often relegates vocabulary learning to incidental methods like rote memorization and dictionary dependence (Kafipour et al., 2011). This approach has been linked to inadequate vocabulary knowledge among Iranian university students, hindering their ability to engage with complex texts (Kafipour et al., 2011).

This study seeks to bridge this gap by investigating the efficacy of different vocabulary practice methods on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension within specific genres. We shift the focus beyond generic vocabulary learning and examine how targeted practice within distinct genres can impact comprehension. Science fiction and narrative genres are chosen due to their unique vocabulary demands and potential to trigger learners' interest and motivation (Fang & He, 2018). Science fiction, with its futuristic terminology and imaginative concepts, presents a distinct vocabulary challenge, while narrative genres rely heavily on descriptive language and character development. By exploring the impact of

targeted vocabulary practice within these specific genres, we hope to illuminate effective strategies for empowering Iranian EFL learners to navigate the diverse landscapes of reading in English.

This study contributes to the growing body of knowledge on vocabulary learning and its impact on reading comprehension in the context of Iranian EFL learners. By examining the effectiveness of different practice methods within specific genres, we aim to provide valuable insights for educators and learners alike. Ultimately, this study paves the way for more effective and engaging vocabulary instruction in the Iranian EFL classroom, empowering learners to confidently conquer the complexities of reading in English and unlock their full potential in this crucial language skill.

2. Literature Review

For English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, navigating the intricate landscape of reading comprehension hinges upon a sturdy foundation of vocabulary knowledge. Research consistently underscores this connection, highlighting how robust vocabulary empowers learners to unlock the meaning and nuances of the texts (Laufer & Sim, 2017). This review delves deeper into this crucial link and explores how targeted vocabulary practice impacts the reading comprehension abilities of Iranian EFL learners, with a specific focus on the unique demands of science fiction and narrative genres.

Traditionally, language acquisition pedagogy centered on grammar, often overshadows the significance of vocabulary. However, a paradigm shift is underway, championed by scholars like Nation (2013) who advocate for a "lexical approach". This approach positions vocabulary as the bedrock of language learning and communication and emphasizes its centrality to expressing oneself and comprehending others. This aligns with Lewis' (1993) proposition that "language consists of grammatical lexis, not lexicalized grammar" (p. 95), underlining the need for effective vocabulary learning strategies to truly grasp the essence of language. Such strategies empower learners to become autonomous and self-directed language users, capable of navigating the complexities of English independently (Oxford, 1990).

While Iranian EFL education acknowledges the importance of the four language skills, vocabulary learning often remains an under-addressed aspect. Kafipour et al. (2011) point to the prevalence of rote memorization and dictionary dependence in current practices, highlighting their limitations in fostering deep vocabulary knowledge. This, in turn, hinders Iranian university students' ability to grapple with complex texts, impacting their reading comprehension and overall language development.

This study proposes a shift beyond generic vocabulary learning and advocates for targeted practice within specific genres like science fiction and narratives. These genres present distinct challenges and opportunities. Science fiction, with its futuristic terminology and imaginative concepts, demands a unique set of vocabulary skills (Fang & He, 2018). Narrative genres, on the other hand, rely heavily on descriptive language and nuanced character development, necessitating a different vocabulary repertoire. By investigating the impact of targeted practice within these distinct genres, we aim to identify the effective strategies for empowering Iranian EFL learners to navigate diverse reading materials with confidence.

Previous research offers valuable insights into the effectiveness of genre-specific vocabulary instruction. Fang and He (2018) found that genre-specific vocabulary learning strategies can significantly enhance EFL learners' reading engagement and comprehension in narrative genres. Similarly, Kafipour et al. (2011) explored the link between vocabulary learning strategies and reading comprehension in Iranian EFL learners, underscoring the need for further investigation into effective strategies tailored to specific contexts. However, a gap remains in our understanding of how targeted vocabulary practice within specific genres impacts the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners, particularly within science fiction. This study aims to address the following key questions:

1. Does reading texts with science fiction genre have any significant impact on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning?
2. Does reading texts with narrative genre have any significant impact on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning?

3. Methodology

This study investigates the impact of reading genre-specific texts on intermediate Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning. By comparing the effectiveness of genre-specific and general vocabulary learning approaches, the study aims to identify strategies that can empower Iranian EFL learners to navigate diverse reading materials with confidence. A quasi-experimental design was employed. The Quick Placement Test (QPT) was administered to identify students with similar proficiency levels. The participants were then selected based on a specific criterion: scores falling within one point above or below the mean QPT score. The participants were randomly assigned into three groups; two experimental and one control. The experimental groups were exposed to genre-specific vocabulary practice using three strategies, while the control group followed the regular curriculum without any additional vocabulary intervention.

3.1. Participants

For the purposes of this study, 60 intermediate EFL students were selected non-randomly from a larger sample of 75 students who were learning English in three classes in a language institute in Nahavand. They were intermediate learners based on their performance on QPT. The participants were both male ($n = 27$) and female ($n = 33$) students whose age ranged from 19 to 25, with Persian as their native language. The participants who were in their own classes were male and female learners who had enrolled for the English courses. The selected participants were already put in three classes by the institute manager.

3.2. Instruments

The instruments employed for data collection consisted of a language proficiency test, and pretest and posttest. The detailed description of the instruments is as follows.

3.2.1. Quick Placement Test (QPT)

The first instrument used in this study was the Quick Placement Test (QPT) (Lynda Edwards, 2007). QPT was employed in order to determine the participants' current level of language proficiency. This test enabled the researcher to select those learners who were compatible with the conditions of the study. Oxford placement test has been used to assess the students'

knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. It also enabled the researcher to have a greater understanding of what level their participants were at. This test consists of 70 items, including 10 multiple-choice and true-false reading, 10 writing, and 50 multiple-choice language use items. The time limit for answering the 50 multiple choice questions and the reading task is 45 minutes and the time limit for accomplishing the writing task is approximately 20 minutes.

3.2.2. Pretest and Posttest

A 30-item multiple-choice vocabulary test was given to the learners before and after the treatment of study as their pretest and posttest. This test was syllabus-based and was used to measure the learners' vocabulary knowledge based on the vocabulary-instruction courses they had passed throughout the study. The posttest was the similar version of the pretest.

In order to check the reliability of the pretest and posttest, which was designed by the researcher, the test was pilot tested on 20 learners of the same age and proficiency level. The items with facility index above 0.63 were too easy and below 0.33 were too difficult. Four items (one easy and three difficult) were revised. In order to test the reliability of the tests, Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed, the results of which ($r = 0.77$) indicated that the test was reliable.

Regarding the content validity of the test, the test had a good coverage of both pedagogical and real word instruction. This was checked and confirmed by language teaching and testing experts including one PhD holder in TEFL and two other English language teachers. The posttest was similar to the pretest and was administered immediately and a week after implementing the treatment to test the learners' vocabulary gain. The results of their performance on these tests were compared to find the effectiveness and difference of the treatments.

3.3. Procedures

A Quick Placement Test (QPT) was used in this study in order to choose those students whose proficiency levels were roughly the same. Those students whose scores were between one score below and one score above the mean were selected as the participants. They were

in two different classes and were named experimental and control groups. The experimental group practiced the vocabulary using three strategies and the control group did not have a special type of vocabulary practice. Before the treatment, a 30-item multiple choice vocabulary test was selected from the glossary of science fiction and narrative texts, which was administered to a pilot group. The pilot group had the characteristics of the main participants but did not participate in the main study. Having piloted the test, the researcher used it as a pre-test. The experimental groups received three types of vocabulary learning strategies in the class, one group reading science fiction. The treatment was given to the three groups. Then, a 30-item multiple-choice vocabulary test with four possible answers as an immediate post-test was conducted. Two weeks later, the delayed post-test of 30 multiple-choice items was administered. This test measured the degree of vocabulary retrieval.

The homogenized participants ($n = 60$) were assigned into three equal groups of science fiction genre (SG), narrative genre (NG) and control. At the beginning of the study, the participants of all groups took pretest in order to measure their vocabulary knowledge before receiving the treatments of study.

4. Results

The descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on pretest are provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Scores on Pretest

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest (SG)	20	5	11	6.30	2.542
Pretest (NG)	20	6	10	6.93	2.891
Pretest (Control)	20	5	11	6.65	2.311

In order to ensure that there is no significant difference between the three groups regarding their scores on pretest, a one-way ANOVA was performed. The results are provided in Table 2.

Table 2

ANOVA on Pretest

Pretest					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13.650	2	4.550	.793	.502
Within Groups	436.300	57	5.741		
Total	449.950	59			

According to Table 2, F value is .79 and p value is .50; it was higher than the assumed level of significance. It shows that there is not any significant difference ($F = .79, p > .05$) among the pretest scores of the three groups of the participants. Science Fiction Group (SG) received reading tasks through science fiction genre. Narrative Group (NG) received the same instruction using narrative genre. Control group received vocabulary instruction through the conventional method. In order to investigate the effects of treatment on the learners, each group was given two vocabulary achievement post-tests; one immediately after the treatment called immediate post-test to measure EFL learners' vocabulary recall and, and the other, one week later, called delayed post-test to measure their vocabulary retention. The descriptive statistics of the three groups on immediate post-test are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Performance on Immediate Post-test

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Immediate Posttest (SG)	20	15.00	26.00	19.65	3.24
Immediate Posttest (NG)	20	13.00	23.00	17.85	2.39
Immediate Posttest (Control)	20	9.00	18.00	12.30	3.74

The means of the SG, NG, and control groups on immediate post-test were 19.65, 17.85, and 12.30, respectively. Generally, the performance of the learners in control group on the immediate post-test was weaker than the other groups. One week after the immediate posttest, the same version of the posttest called delayed posttest was administered unexpectedly. The descriptive statistics of the three groups on delayed posttest are compared with each other in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Performance on Delayed Posttest

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Delayed Posttest (SG)	20	15.00	24.00	18.7500	2.95359
Delayed Posttest (NG)	20	15.00	22.00	16.1500	2.30046
Delayed Posttest (Control)	20	8.00	17.00	10.3000	3.74306

In order to verify the first research question, i.e. whether reading science-fiction texts has any significant impact on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning, a one-way ANOVA was performed between the scores of SG group's performance on pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest. The results are provided in Table 5.

Table 5

Repeated Measure ANOVA on Pre-test, Immediate, and Delayed Post-tests of SG Group

Source		Type III SS	MS	df	F	Sig.	Partial η^2
Between Subject	Group	3674.413	3674.413	1	158.412	.000	.715
	Error	1461.300	23.195	58			
Within Subject	Time	19826.508	9913.254	2	1487.270	.000	.959
	Time x Group	1931.369	965.685	2	144.880	.000	.697

Error (Time)	839.841	6.665	116
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The results of the repeated measure ANOVA show the significant main effects of group ($F_{1, 58} = 158.41, p < .00, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.71$). Moreover, there was a main effect for time ($F_{2, 116} = 1487.270, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.959$). There was also a significant interaction between time and group ($F_{2, 116} = 144.88, p < .00, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.69$). This suggests that the science fiction genre instruction may have enhanced the vocabulary retention. The difference could also be due to an effect on reading comprehension specific to the science fiction genre. Therefore, the first research question of the study was answered. Scheffe post-hoc multiple range test, as shown in Table 6, was performed in order to detect the location of the differences. There is a significant difference.

Table 6

Scheffe Post-hoc Test on Pre-test, Immediate and Delayed Post-tests of SG Group

Dependent Variable: SG Group

Scheffe

(I) Tests	(J) Tests	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pretest	Immediate	-6.45000*	.8978	.000	-8.7068	-4.1932
	Posttest					
	Delayed Posttest	-5.55000*	.8978	.000	-7.8068	-3.2932
Immediate	Pretest	6.45000*	.8978	.000	4.1932	8.7068
	Posttest					
	Delayed Posttest	.90000	.8978	.608	-1.3568	3.1568
Delayed Posttest	Pretest	5.55000*	.8978	.000	3.2932	7.8068
	Immediate	-.90000	.8978	.608	-3.1568	1.3568
	Posttest					

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results reveal that the SG group's performance improved significantly as evidenced by both the immediate and delayed posttests. This suggests that the science fiction genre instruction likely led to better vocabulary acquisition. The comparisons between the immediate and delayed posttests themselves show no significant difference (Sig= 0.60). This suggests that the SG group's performance level remained similar between those two points in time. In other words, the science fiction genre instruction might lead to better vocabulary retention.

In order to test the second null hypothesis of the study in finding whether reading comprehension ability focusing on narrative genre has any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning, another one-way ANOVA was performed between the scores of NG group's performance on pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test. The results are provided in Table 7.

Table 7

ANOVA on Pre-test, Immediate, and Delayed Post-tests of NG Group

Source		Type III SS	MS	df	F	Sig.	Partial η^2
Between Subject	Group	1078.137	1078.137	1	25.257	.000	.286
	Error	2689.247	42.686	58			
Within Subject	Time	20605.403	10302.702	2	843.307	.000	.930
	Time x Group	609.301	304.650	2	24.937	.000	.284
	Error (Time)	1539.345	12.217	116			

The results of mixed 2 x 3 ANOVA show the significant main effects of group ($F_{1, 58} = 25.25, p < .00, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.28$). Moreover, there was a main effect for time ($F_{2, 116} = 843.30, p < .00, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.930$). There was also a significant interaction between time and group ($F_{2, 116} = 24.93, p < .00, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.28$). In other words, the teachers' use of narrative

genre significantly enhanced the EFL learners' vocabulary retention. Therefore, the second null hypothesis of the study was rejected.

Scheffe post-hoc multiple range test, as shown in Table 8, was performed in order to detect the location of differences in pre-test, immediate, and delayed post-test of NG group. There is a significant difference between pre-test and both immediate and delayed post-test. Immediate and delayed post-test also showed a significant difference.

Table 8

Scheffe Post-hoc on Pre-test, Immediate, and Delayed Post-tests of NG Group

Multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: Group NG						
Scheffe						
(I) Tests	(J) Tests	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pretest	Immediate	-10.80000*	.85435	.000	-12.9474	-8.6526
	Posttest					
	Delayed Posttest	-6.80000*	.85435	.000	-8.9474	-4.6526
Immediate	Pretest	10.80000*	.85435	.000	8.6526	12.9474
	Posttest					
	Delayed Posttest	4.00000*	.85435	.000	1.8526	6.1474
Delayed Posttest	Pretest	6.80000*	.85435	.000	4.6526	8.9474
	Immediate	-4.00000*	.85435	.000	-6.1474	-1.8526
	Posttest					

***. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.**

The results indicate that the NG group scored significantly lower on the pretest compared to both the immediate and delayed posttests (negative values in the "Mean Difference" and significant p-values of 0.000). This suggests that the narrative genre

instruction played a role, as the NG group performed considerably better on the vocabulary tests after the instruction compared to before.

However, an interesting finding emerges when we compare the immediate and delayed posttests for the NG group. The table reveals a significant difference here as well (Sig=0.00). This means that the NG group scored higher on the immediate posttest compared to the delayed posttest. While both groups showed improvement, the NG group seems to have forgotten some vocabulary between the immediate and delayed assessments.

5. Discussion

This study investigated the effectiveness of science fiction and narrative genres in enhancing vocabulary learning among intermediate EFL learners. The results revealed interesting insights into vocabulary acquisition. The science fiction group demonstrated superior immediate recall of vocabulary compared to the other groups. This suggests a positive impact on short-term memory and aligns with previous research highlighting the motivational potential of science fiction. However, the narrative group presented a different picture. While they performed well on the immediate recall test, a significant difference emerged in their delayed recall scores. This suggests that the narrative instruction, while effective for initial vocabulary acquisition, may not have been successful in promoting long-term retention compared to the other groups. These findings highlight the importance of considering both short-term and long-term memory in evaluating vocabulary learning methods.

Building upon the previous research that established the benefits of genre-based instruction in vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Ansarin & Arasteh, 2012; Karami & Hashemian, 2012; Khani et al., 2012), this study delved deeper into the question of differentiation between recall and retention. While prior studies acknowledge the impact of genre on vocabulary learning, the nuanced understanding of its influence on immediate retrieval versus long-term storage was limited. This investigation aimed to bridge this gap by pitting two distinct genres - science fiction and narrative - against each other in a controlled environment of EFL vocabulary learning.

The conducted research unveiled a fascinating distinction between the two genres. Science fiction emerged as the champion of immediate recall, echoing previous findings that attributed its success to increased motivation and learner engagement (Conttia, 2007; DeKeyser, 2003; Deng, 2007; Reid, 2007). The captivating nature of futuristic settings and fantastical concepts ignited learners' interest, leading to a readily accessible memory pool for newly encountered vocabulary.

However, when it came to long-term retention, the narrative genre took the lead, demonstrating superior performance in both immediate and delayed recall tests. This finding resonates with Vandergrift's (2003) observations on metacognitive strategies and comprehension monitoring. The familiar structures and relatable themes prevalent in narrative genres might have encouraged deeper engagement, leading to more deliberate processing and encoding of vocabulary into long-term memory.

Jafari and Ketabi (2012) explored the relationship between explicit instruction in metacognitive strategies and improved reading comprehension in EFL learners. Their findings align with the current study's emphasis on genre-based instruction, further supporting the notion that engaging learners in strategic processing boosts understanding. Metacognitive strategies, like comprehension monitoring and prediction, activate prior knowledge and facilitate deeper engagement with text, potentially explaining the positive outcomes observed in both studies. This discrepancy offers fertile ground for further exploration. Perhaps, as Vandergrift (2003) observed, skilled learners engage in more self-monitoring and deeper processing, which narrative genres might naturally encourage. Conversely, science fiction's fantastical nature, though initially captivating, might not offer the same context-rich foundation for long-term retention.

6. Conclusion

The remarkable shift regarding vocabulary learning as an active component of second language learning persuaded majority of researchers to take a new attitude in which the learner is more active and engaged in reading process (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Laufer & Nation, 1999). To this end, it is better to engage students more deeply in the process of vocabulary learning through the use of vocabulary learning strategies. The purpose of this

study was to investigate the effect of reading comprehension focusing on science fiction genre versus narrative genre on intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning. The results of the study indicated that the use of reading science fiction genre and narrative genre along with vocabulary learning through current teaching methodologies are effective in improving vocabulary recall and retention of Iranian EFL learners. Participating in a class that used effective cognitive strategies like those which were used in this study helped learners to improve their vocabulary recall and retention.

The results of this study proved that teaching vocabulary items while using language learning strategies would lead to better recall and retention among EFL learners. Using different strategies increased the motivation of learners to improve their vocabulary knowledge as they experienced different ways to learn vocabulary items. The learners were involved in the process of learning by interactive exercises and activities, so it helps them promote vocabulary retention and recall. It was also found that by using monitoring strategies like the one investigated in this study, EFL learners may find more opportunities to communicate in EFL classes.

The application of vocabulary learning strategies, from a pedagogical point of view, presented helpful insights for EFL teachers, EFL learners, and syllabus designers. The use of vocabulary learning strategies needs a teacher in order to arrange and grade the materials, motivate learners and provide feedback to them. The findings of this study helped the EFL teachers to get insights to design and adapt language learning strategies for enhancing vocabulary knowledge of participants. Furthermore, as Allen (1983) points out, the problem of the current vocabulary learning activities is that they take the teacher's energy and most of the class time. The task of vocabulary instruction could be integrated to other language skills and presented through vocabulary learning strategies. A sense of variety can lead to having less boring classes. Vocabulary learning strategies might be able to bring this diversity; hence, EFL teachers are recommended to use vocabulary learning strategies techniques in their classrooms. Furthermore, the selection and implementation of the appropriate kind of materials can have a considerable effect on vocabulary learning and consequently it would save the teachers' time and energy.

For EFL teachers, the results of this study provide valuable opportunities to engage learners in vocabulary learning processes. In EFL contexts, since there is no opportunity to expose to language out of classroom situation, it seems necessary to provide conditions for learners in order to take the maximum advantages of class time. Vocabulary learning strategies invite learners to profoundly process the lexical items. Learners can simply understand the prominence of such learning situations over traditional and boring classroom practices and strategies such as memorizing word lists.

Conflict of interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper

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Appendix A

Pretest and Posttest

Choose the correct answer.

1. I tried to be friendly, but she me completely.
a. snubbed b. welcomed c. kept d. accepted
2. A bird with large round eyes, that hunts at night is called a(n)
a. owl b. bat c. pigeon d. pelican
3. A salad contains tomato, cucumber,and carrot.
a. aubergine b. lettuce c. grape d. melon
4. Don't you know it is rude to?
a. wait b. suggest c. whisper d. search
5. She fell into deep..... .
a. slumber b. fervor c. fever d. shiver
6. A person whose job is to fit and repair things such as water pipes, toilets is called a(n)
a. painter b. engineer c. mechanic d. plumber
7. What is the machine for weaving fabric?
a. loom b. sewing-machine c. weaver d. mixer
8. John was working in a(n)which was building with glass sides and a glass roof for growing plants in.
a. butchery b. bakery c. greenhouse d. pharmacy

9. The person who has the complete power in the country is called..... .
- a. captain b. governor c. sovereign d. mayor
10. We traveled all around the world. We enjoyed it because it was a.....experience.
- a. useless b. unpleasant c. terrible d. tremendous
11. She was rewarded for her 40 years'service with the company.
- a. delicate b. faithful c. kind d. lucky
12. Sara works as a teacher. Her youngest child, who is two years old, is at the now.
- a. school b. kindergarten c. nursery d. hospital
13. What ahouse!
- a. fertile b. splendid c. grateful d. charming
14. It is very dangerous for the children to from the third floor of building.
- a. fall b. sit c. climb d. jump
15. I'm terribly sorry, I seem to have my book at home.
- a. forgotten b. lost c. hidden d. left
16. Don't be! You can't pay 50\$ for a T-shirt.
- a. ridiculous b. conscious c. curious d. careless
17. Heat the paper for a minute in front of me.
- a. smiled b. stared c. looked d. laughed

18. I'm afraid that patience is not one of her..... .
- a. tastes b. needs c. virtues d. desires
19. The workmen were tired, because they hammered and..... all day.
- a. slept b. rested c. fought d. sawed
20. Sheall her own clothes by hand.
- a. sews b. provides c. widens d. irons
21. What do we call a person who takes care of the animals?
- a. gardener b. farmer c. milker d. zookeeper
22. He her hand and smiled at her.
- a. squeezed b. switched c. compressed d. stressed
23. She had the sheets on the bed as she was tossing and turning.
- a. screwed up b. turned up c. tangled up d. wounded up
24. The photograph doesn't her at all.
- a. look after b. look at c. look up d. look like
25. A loose piece of clothing without sleeves, worn over other clothes, especially in the past is called..... .
- a. shawl b. scarf c. mantle c. garment
26. She at the child to get down from the wall.
- a. cried b. spoke c. looked d. laughed

27. The weather is cold. Don't stand outside, come inside and get warm.
- a. shivering b. quaking c. vibrating d. shaking
28. A refers to a figure made to look like a person that is dressed in old clothes and put in a field to frighten birds away.
- a. statue b. scarecrow c. model d. clown
29. She was looking at me in a very way as if she didn't know me.
- a. innocent b. kind c. strange d. politely
30. Hein to the room looking down on his friends.
- a. moved b. walked c. marched d. swaggered

Appendix B

Teaching Materials

Genre: Science Fiction

Target Vocabulary: Propulsion, Hyperspace, Interstellar, Colony, Robotics

Reading Passage:

Title: A New Home on Kepler-186f

Captain Amara stared out of the viewport, a kaleidoscope of swirling blues and greens filling her vision. Kepler-186f, a distant exoplanet, hung impossibly close, a potential haven for humanity. Years of travel in their hyperdrive-equipped starship had finally brought them here. "We're approaching the designated landing zone," announced the ship's AI, its voice a soothing monotone. A wave of excitement washed over Amara. Could this be the answer to Earth's overcrowding and dwindling resources? Building a colony on a new world seemed like science fiction just a generation ago, but now, thanks to advancements in robotics and resource management, it was a very real possibility.

Activities:

1. **Matching:** Match the vocabulary words with their definitions. (Propulsion - movement, Hyperspace - faster-than-light travel, Interstellar - between stars, Colony - settlement in a new place, Robotics - study of robots)
2. **True or False:** Discuss the statements about the passage and determine if they are true or false. (a) The characters are traveling on a spaceship. (True) (b) They are looking for a new home for a plant species. (False)
3. **Creative Writing:** Imagine you are part of the crew on this mission. Write a short journal entry describing your feelings and hopes for the new planet.

Genre: Narrative

Target Vocabulary: Determined, Courageous, Perseverance, Overcome, Triumph

Reading Passage:

Title: The Mountain Climber

Elena adjusted her backpack, the weight a familiar comfort. She gazed up at the imposing peak, its snow-capped summit seemingly scraping the sky. Climbing Mount Aco seemed like an impossible dream just a few months ago. An accident had left her with a permanent limp, and doubt had threatened to consume her. But Elena was determined. She had always been a courageous adventurer, and she refused to let her injury define her. The first few days were grueling. The thin air made breathing difficult, and the steep terrain tested her limits. But Elena persevered. She remembered the feeling of triumph when she reached the summit of smaller peaks, and that memory fueled her determination. With each step, she felt stronger, more resilient.

Activities:

1. **Synonyms:** Find synonyms for the vocabulary words in the passage. (Determined - resolute, Courageous - brave, Perseverance - persistence, Overcome - conquer, Triumph - victory)
2. **Character Analysis:** Describe the personality traits of Elena in the passage. Provide evidence from the text to support your answer.
3. **Personal Reflection:** Have you ever faced a challenge that seemed impossible? Discuss how you overcame it and what you learned from the experience.

the Relationship between the Cultural Identity of the Iranian EFL Students and their Speaking Proficiency

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Abstract

The present study made an attempt to examine cultural identity as a factor potentially prompting English language speaking production, an area that has only recently begun to receive much attention in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research. This study focused on three tasks to analyze the speaking performance of the participants (sixty EFL learners). As the first instrument, a modified Michigan test was used to select sixty male and female learners at the same level of proficiency from among 100 pre-intermediate learners of English language. The findings of the study showed that cultural identity affects speaking; that is, holding a secondary identity and readiness to learn a foreign language affects foreign language speaking of Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students. The findings of the present study can be implied as a warning to both EFL learners and instructors in Iran that language learners do not show any interest in following a native-like accent. Moreover, the learners are not provided with the required facilities to improve their speaking skills.

Keywords: EFL, Cultural identity, Speaking proficiency

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1. Introduction

The growing number of research on cross-cultural studies in language teaching is an indicator of the great level of contact between people, brought about by modern communication, electronic media, and the Internet. However, English as a medium of international communication should resolve cultural and cross-cultural conflicts that may arise in the way. International dimension of English language not only cannot be denied, but also offers English Language Teaching (ELT) a potentially significant role. In the following sections, some key concepts and related points are discussed.

Identity orientations refer to the relative significance that individuals place on various identities or characteristics when constructing their self-definitions (Cheek, 1989). Identity markers and labels offer individuals a way of defining themselves in relation to the world; that is, “social, discursive, and narrative options offered by a particular society in a specific time and place to which individuals and groups of individuals appeal in an attempt to self-name, to self-characterize, and to claim social spaces and social prerogatives” are determining factors in defining identity (Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004, p. 19).

According to Holland et al. (1998), “identities are a key means through which people care about and care for what is going on around them. They are important bases from which people create new activities, new worlds, and new ways of being” (p. 5). Identity not only involves the formation of the self, but also relates to how an individual perceives himself/herself within his/her own community and the wider society. Norton (1997) defines identity as “how people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future” (p. 410). Hall (1990) suggests that identity should be thought of as a construction that is continuously in progress.

Many EFL teachers argue that there are many factors that can be considered as the possible causes of these problems in developing the speaking skill including lack of grammatical and lexical knowledge, shortage of chances and opportunities for practice as well as shortage of interactive activities through which speaking is practiced in classroom

atmosphere. To fill the gaps in the literature, this study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between cultural identity and speaking ability of Iranian speakers of English as a foreign language?
2. Is there any significant difference between male and female in terms of their speaking proficiency?

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Studies on Aspects of Identity

Lamphere and Leary (1990) stated that personal identity had significantly positive correlations with private self-consciousness and a new endogenic orientation scale whereas social identity had significant positive correlations with public self-consciousness, the self-monitoring scale. In a definition put forward by Holland (1998) “identities are a key means through which people care about and care for what is going on around them which are important bases from which people create new activities, new worlds, and new ways of being” (p. 5). Hall (1990) suggests that identity should be thought of as a construction that is continuously in progress. Moyer (2007) claims that “accent not only influences communicative fluency but also has a role in judgments of social belonging and identity” (p. 67) and Becker (1995) states that “an accent is the part of a person’s language that serves to identify the speaker’s regional origin or national/ethnic identity no matter what language the person is speaking” (p. 37).

2.2. Cultural Identity

According to Alptekin and Alptekin (1984), EFL instruction in non-speaking countries must be effective and care must be taken in order to pay less attention to teaching models based on native-speaker norms and values, and more to develop culturally neutral and learner-oriented ones. Ellis (2002) stated that "learning is effective when learners are able to construct an identity that enables them to impose their right to be heard..." Different aspects and dimensions of motivation, such as confidence, intellectual curiosity, attribution about past successes/failures, awards, punishments, materials, and atmosphere, have been found out.

Learners are motivated or unmotivated extrinsically or intrinsically, “extrinsically motivated behaviors are the ones that the individual performs to receive some extrinsic reward or to avoid punishment, with intrinsically motivated behaviors the rewards are internal” (Dornyei, 1994, p. 275).

2.3. A Typology of Cultural Identity

Identity research in SLA started with Lambert's research with American learners studying French in Montreal. Lambert used the term *anomie* to label feelings of "social uncertainty or dissatisfaction" among these learners in a naturalistic setting. For Lambert, identity was closely linked to attitudes (as cited in Block, 2007, p. 51). The first category is that of social distance, and the relationship between the Second Language Learning Group (SLLG) and the Target Language Group (TLG). This category is related to issues of power dynamics, desire for integration, and SLLG and TLG cohesiveness. The second category is that of psychological distance and is related to questions of individual's motivation and ego (as cited in Block, 2007).

2.3.1. Socio-cultural Identity Factor

In a study conducted by Lee (2002), the relationship between cultural identity and native language maintenance was studied. The participants of the study were 40 second-generation Korean-American university students in the United States. Lee reported that the most important factor for the participants' lack of motivation to preserve their native language was the inadequacy of societal recognition.

2.3.2. Persian Cultural Identity

Razmjoo (2010) conducted a research study about the impact of identity aspects on EFL learners' achievement. However, the results proved no significant relationship between language achievement and the aspects of identity; that is, none of the identity aspects is a predicting variable for language achievement in an Iranian context. Among the demographic factors, only gender can account for two aspects of identity, namely, personal and relational identities.

2.4. Inseparability of Culture and Language

It is commonly acknowledged that language is a part of culture and plays a vital role in it. Some social scientists consider that without language, culture would not be possible. Persian discourse patterns for instance are often not transferable to standard British or American English. Therefore, students need to be taught about target cultures. This does not mean that students should experience an assault on their identity when learning English but they do need to be trained in what Smith (1987, p. 3) terms “the sense of the other”. Today, when the number of ESL and EFL students has grown dramatically world-wide, it is becoming increasingly clear that learning a second culture does not take care of itself. Thus, L2 learners cannot always make the best of their educational, professional, and vocational opportunities unless they become familiar with fundamental L2 cultural concepts and constructs. Most importantly, an ability to recognize and employ culturally appropriate ways of communicating in speech or writing allows learners to make choices with regard to their linguistic, pragmatic, and other kinds of behaviors (Byram & Morgan, 1994; Hinkel, 1999).

2.5. Second Culture Complexity

The complexity of teaching culture lies in the fact that most people engaged in cross-cultural interactions are not aware of the impact of the invisible culture of their own and that of other languages. In language learning, culture does not represent a separate domain of L2 skills such as speaking or writing. Although courses for language teachers ponder on teaching L2 language skills, it may be difficult to separate teaching and learning of English from the culture of its speakers. Teaching language is in essence teaching its culture. Thus, the role of teachers in EFL classrooms is to teach language and its culture, since culture and language cannot be separated. “A language is a part of culture, and a culture is a part of language... so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture” (Brown, 2007, p. 189). Culture never exists without language and even language never exists without culture. Several studies have been conducted exploring the relationship between CI and language acquisition. For instance, Jiang et al. (2009) intended to explore the relationship between acculturation and level of attainment in acquiring a second language, which included an assessment of speaking.

In another study carried out by Rindal (2010), it was reported that there was a high correlation between the English variety the speaker aimed for and produced, but that in some cases, in more formal settings, more BrE aspects were produced, whereas in more informal setting (peer conversations), more AmE aspects of accent were produced. Rindal (2010) concluded that “L2 speakers are likely to choose a variety of English that reflects the attitude and qualities they want to express” (p. 59).

2.6. Oral Communication and Speaking Skills

Native-likeness is still a goal, even though SLA studies have revealed that acquiring native-like pronunciation after the critical period is challenging (Piske et al., 2002). As native-like English use is set as a goal, this leads to non-native English use as substandard. In general, every language system has various components and speaking is considered as one of the main components of each individual linguistic system. The most important skill to be mastered within any language is speaking. To convey their intended message, learners need to master various components of the target language system such as grammar, vocabulary, speaking, etc. In Iran, like in other parts of the globe, English learners measure their level of success in L2 learning process based on their improvement in their oral production. As a lingua franca, English must be learned for a variety of reasons including job opportunities, social purposes, travel, business, and educational purposes.

3. Methodology

Due to the nature of the research questions, cultural identity and attitudes towards foreign language learning were the independent variables and speaking proficiency was the dependent variable of the study. This section describes the steps taken to conduct the current study. Research method and procedures that were employed in this study will be explained in this section.

3.1. Participants

The participants of the study were selected from among 60 Iranian EFL students who studied at high school in *Behbahan* city. They were male and female students aged between 16 and 18 years old. All participants were nearly from the same economic and social background. A

convenience non-random sampling procedure was used for participant selection. As a matter of fact, two main reasons promoted the initial choice of these particular groups of participants. First, the intermediate school girls had just passed a few semesters and seemed to have sufficient speaking skills. Second, the age factor was considered as important because at this age, students are ready for learning speaking and having attitudes about learning a foreign language.

3.2. Instruments

In order to obtain measurable data with which the results of the current study could be statistically analyzed, the following instruments were utilized:

3.2.1. Cultural Identity Questionnaire

The first data collection instrument of this study was a 16-item cultural identity questionnaire adopted from Pullen (2011). The questionnaire takes about 15 to 20 minutes to be completed. The items are put in a 5-point Likert scale from 1(Strongly Disagree) to 5(Strongly Agree). These items aimed at investigating the participants' self-identity perceptions in relation to their feelings of connectedness to their native culture/country.

Validity

The measurement instrument may be valid for measuring some specific characteristics yet it may not be valid for other features or other populations (Sarmad et al., 2007). Accordingly, the questionnaire validity was confirmed in this study through expert judgement.

Reliability

In the present study, the investigator first conducted a pilot study among 30 participants. For calculating the questionnaire's reliability, the Cronbach's alpha test was reported which is 0.84 indicating a high level of reliability.

3.2.2. IELTS Speaking Proficiency Test

One IELTS speaking topic including personal questions about learners, their family, their work, their education, and their familiar topics was used as a pre-test to evaluate the speaking proficiency of the learners in both control and experimental groups before the treatment. Since the above-mentioned IELTS speaking topics include a lot of questions, some of these questions were used for the pre-test and some of them were used for the post-test to evaluate the relationship between cultural identity and speaking proficiency of the learners. Then, the researcher used an Evaluation Criteria for Speaking Assignments (used effectively in the ARELS Oral Examination or Association of Recognized English Language Schools). Scores were considered between 0-20 for oral participation of the learners.

3.3. Procedures

An experimental design was taken in this study. As the first instrument, a modified Michigan test (version 1997) was used to select 60 male and female learners at the same level of proficiency from among 100 pre-intermediate learners of English language. Then, the participants were asked to complete the hard copies of the questionnaire related to cultural identity either in their free time or in class time, depending on the decision of the professors and if they were willing to cooperate with the researcher while considering the time limitation of the class.

The questionnaires took about 15 to 20 minutes to be completed. Having completed all the items in the questionnaire, the participants were asked to take the second part which was an IELTS-like speaking test. This speaking section actually was used as a means or as a sample of individuals' speaking proficiency that provided the basis to make further judgments on the participants' speaking quality. Since the rating procedure for speaking proficiency was somehow subjective, the researcher decided to have two raters in the process of rating. To make sure that the two raters had approximately the same score for the examinees, they were first asked to rate the speaking of 30 individuals while considering the items of the abovementioned scale, then the inter-rater reliability was calculated.

A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to determine the relationship between the raters. It was found that there was a strong, positive correlation between the scores of two raters ($r = .92$, $n = 30$, $p < .0005$). To make more accurate decisions about the speaking quality of the participants, the average score of two raters for every single individual score was considered as the final score, in spite of having a high inter-rater reliability index.

3.4. Data Analysis

In order to answer the research questions, the collected data were analyzed using a Pearson Correlation test to find the relationship between cultural identity and speaking quality of Iranian speakers of English.

4. Results and discussion

The detailed statistical analyses were performed in this study to test the hypothesis. First, descriptive statistics of the research population are presented. Then, the data were collected from the questionnaire surveys of 60 participants. Qualitative results from the data are examined and key findings are presented in the related tables and graphs. The results related to the research questions are presented in turn, followed by a discussion with reference to previous research studies. In order to find answers to the research questions mentioned above, the following descriptive statistics and correlational tests were run.

4. 1. The First Research Question

The first research question of the present study (*Is there any significant relationship between cultural identity and speaking ability of Iranian speakers of English as a foreign language?*) deals with the relationship between cultural identity and speaking quality of Iranian speakers of English. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the scores of the questionnaire and speaking quality assessment.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Scores of the Cultural Identity Questionnaire and Speaking Quality

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Questionnaire	3.3250	.63401	60
Speaking	4.3250	.73045	60

Table 2 shows the result of the correlation between cultural identity and speaking.

Table 2

Correlations between CQ and Speaking Quality

		Speaking	CQ
Speaking	Pearson Correlation	1	.952**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	60	60
CQ	Pearson Correlation	.952**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	60	60

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

As it is shown in Table 2, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between Iranian English speakers’ cultural identity and their speaking quality. There was a positive correlation between the two variables, (The *p*-value, Sig. 000 < .01). Increases in Iranian speakers’ cultural identity moderately correlate with increases in their speaking quality.

4.2. The Second Research Question

In addition to examining the possible relationship between cultural identity and speaking ability, their oral performance was also scrutinized in relation to their gender (*Is there any significant difference between male and female learners in terms of their speaking proficiency?*). An Independent-samples t-test was used to analyze female and male students’

speaking scores to examine the impact of gender differences on their speaking proficiency. The results are available in Table 3:

Table 3

Group Statistics for the Oral Performance Scores of Males and Females

		Group Statistics			
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Grade	Male	60	16.2667	2.15362	.55606
	Female	60	17.8667	1.88478	.48665

Table 3 represented that the mean score of the females' group was 1.60 points greater than that of the males' group. This superiority of females' speaking skill versus males is represented in Figure 1.

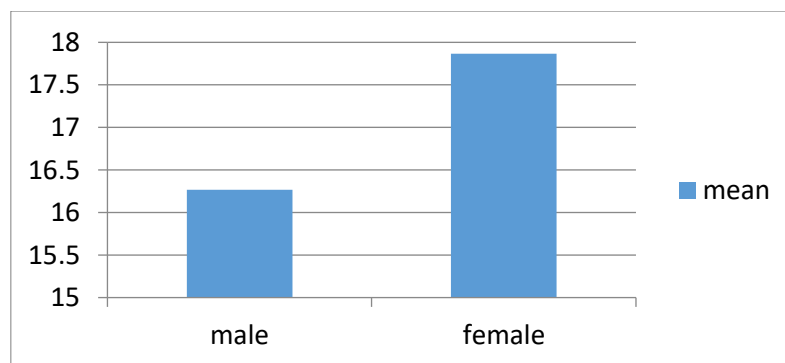


Figure 1

The comparison of Males with Females in terms of their Oral Performance

The results of the t-test for the oral performance in Table 4 reflected the same results which show the superiority of the female group in comparison with the male group.

Table 4

Independent-samples T-test for the Oral Performance Scores of Males and Females

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Grade	Equal variances assumed	0.25	0.61	-2.16	28	0.03	-1.60	0.73	-3.11	-0.08
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.16	27.51	0.03	-1.60	0.73	-3.11	-0.08

The Sig. (2-Tailed) value in table 4 is 0.03. This value is less than .05. Because of this, we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference between the oral performance ability of males and females. Since the Group Statistics box revealed that the Mean for the female group was greater than the Mean for the male group, we can conclude that the female participants in the speaking skill were able to speak significantly more fluently and accurately than the male participants.

5. Conclusions

This study demonstrates the role that cultural identity plays in speaking ability of a foreign language learner. As the findings of this study show and as the literature supports (e.g., Gatbonton, Trofimovich, & Magid, 2005; Marx, 2002; Rindal, 2010), there is a positive relationship between cultural identity and EFL learners’ speaking ability. That is, the more

the participants identified themselves, the higher their speaking score was. In general, it can be concluded that language and identity are inseparably intertwined, both affect one another and each produces a response from the other. Also, as the findings of the study showed, cultural identity affects learning speaking. Moreover, the findings indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between the oral performance ability of males and females. That is, the female participants were able to speak significantly more fluently and accurately than the male participants.

This study can help instructors to be aware of the speaking goals of their learners, and/or of their learners' desire to express their identity through their accent. If learners' goals include striving for native-like accents, attention needs to be given to ways of achieving these goals. If learners prefer to maintain their cultural identity through their accent, educators need to be sensitive to their learners' identity construction, and adjust speaking goals accordingly.

Conflict of interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper

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The Relationship between Non-verbal Active Memory and the Writing Skills of Iranian EFL Deaf Female Learners' Proficiency

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the impacts of nonverbal working memory on the writing skills of Iranian (EFL) deaf learners. To attain the purpose of the study, 15 secondary school deaf learners were selected to participate in this study. They were 8th-grade female students of Golestan Exceptional School aged 13-15. The researcher used a non-verbal memory test and a writing test to collect the required data. The participants were asked to participate in the selected tests. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between learners' non-verbal working memory and writing tests. The findings, also, demonstrated that there was not any significant difference between the writing skill performance of learners with higher capacities of non-verbal working memory and learners with lower capacities of non-verbal working memory. Therefore, the level of non-verbal working memory did not influence the writing skill. The findings have implications for pedagogy as well as further research.

Keywords: Non-verbal active memory, Writing skills, English language learners, Deaf and hard-of-hearing learners

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1. Introduction

The term working memory was first coined by Miller et al. (1956) in the 1960s to compare the performance of the mind with computer processes. Atkinson and Shafrin (1968) also used this skill to demonstrate short-term memory and called it "short-term storage". Active memory is a system consisting of separate but related components that create a kind of flexible mental storage space in a coordinated activity and is used to store and transfer information during the time required for cognitive activities (Dehan, 2008). Continuous use of working memory is necessary for the continuation of concentration, purposeful thinking, and mental efforts during learning (Burkholder & Pisani, 2003).

Working memory is a multidimensional system that, in addition to temporarily storing stimuli that have been attended to, is used to manipulate information (Melby, 2013; Neto et al., 2010). The components of active memory according to the model are the phonological loop, visual-spatial plane, and central executive mechanism. Recently, another component called temporary storage has been added to working memory (Baddeley, 2003). Baddeley defines working memory as a brain system that provides temporary storage and transformation of information necessary for complex cognitive learning activities such as learning and understanding language. Ellis (1993) stated that there is a significant relationship between working memory and language learning. The ability to work memory plays an important role in various aspects of life, including reading comprehension, writing, problem-solving, mathematical reasoning, written language, and various behavioral domains (Swanson & O'Connor, 2009; Schneider, 2015).

In recent decades, working memory has been a popular area of research, especially in relation to deaf and hard-of-hearing children. Hearing is one of the most important human senses, without which many human adaptations to the environment are disturbed and mental processes are delayed, natural hearing is the ability to understand the words of others without the need for special aids or methods (Hayward, et al, 2009). According to this definition, someone whose hearing is damaged needs special tools or methods to understand the words of others. Milanifar (2000) stated that the sense of hearing is one of the most important means of obtaining information from the environment as well as being aware of the feelings and

emotions of others, and deafness has a great impact on a person's cognition and receiving information from the surrounding environment. Hassanzadeh (2008) showed in his research that deaf children do not have any difference in intelligence as compared with hearing children and only in terms of academic progress, a significant difference is observed between them. Afrooz (2008) believes that deafness is not only a deprivation of a sense, and since spoken language is an important factor in establishing social relations, education, and learning, deaf people have a limited function in the field of language. Because deaf children are unable to use listening and speaking skills, working memory is thought to play an important role in their learning, especially language learning.

Deaf people, due to their inability to use the verbal components of language, non-verbal working memory is an important factor in their language learning, in addition, deaf students can use some language skills such as speaking and listening. Reading and writing skills are very important in their language learning and can play a major role in helping deaf students learn better. Hence, this study aimed to investigate the impacts of non-verbal working memory on the writing skills of Iranian EFL deaf learners.

2. Methodology

2.1. Design of the Study

This study was ex post facto in design quantitative correlational study in nature. Ex post facto design is a quasi-experimental study examining how an independent variable, present before the study in the participants, affects a dependent variable. In this study, there are two variables, nonverbal working memory and writing skills.

2.2. Participants

The participants of this study were 15 secondary school deaf learners. They were 8th-grade female students of Golestan Exceptional School and aged between 13-15. Using available sampling, the researcher chose these students to participate in this study. This was the second year that they were studying English. They were not able to use listening and speaking skills.

2.3. Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study:

2.3.1. Working Memory Tasks

Two working memory tasks, namely the Spatial Span Task (Wechsler & Naglieri, 2006) and the Odd One Out Span Task (Henry, 2001), were selected since they require a minimal amount of verbal instruction and only non-verbal responses and they were especially suitable for deaf learners. The researcher used these tests to measure the level of learners' working memory capacity.

2.3.1.1. The Spatial Span Task

It is a measure of visuospatial short-term working memory (Wechsler & Naglieri, 2006). A set of nine identical blue blocks is affixed to a whiteboard in an unstructured array. The examiner can view a number on each of the blocks and is seated directly opposite to the child being tested. Children are instructed to tap a sequence of blocks in the same order as the examiner in the "forward" test, and in the reverse order in the "backward" test. Children are administered two trials for each sequence length, beginning with two blocks, ranging up to a span of nine. Two trials of each sequence length are administered, and the test is terminated once both trials of the same sequence length are failed. The task begins with two practice trials in both the spatial span forward and backward conditions to ensure that the child understands the task. One point is awarded for each sequence accurately repeated. Wechsler and Naglieri (2006) proved the reliability and validity of this test to be acceptable.

2.3.1.1.2. The Odd One Out Span Task

It is a measure of executive-loaded visuo-spatial working memory (Henry, 2001). It will be presented in PowerPoint and comprises 63 slides, each displaying a set of three shapes. On each of the slides, two of the shapes are identical, and one is slightly different: the "odd one out." The examiner will show the students a slide and ask them to identify which shape is the odd one out. The student will be instructed to try to remember the location of this shape. The following slide contains an empty grid with three boxes, and the student will be asked to point to the empty box in the same location as the shape that they have just seen. After four

single-item trials have been displayed, the student is shown two sets of shapes in a row. There then follows a slide with two empty grids, one on top of the other. The child is instructed to point to the empty boxes in the same location as the two “odd” shapes they have previously seen, in the same order that they were presented. If the child initially verbalizes or signs their answer (e.g., left, middle, etc.), they are reminded that they need to point to the location of the shape. Trial length increases sequentially in blocks of four with a maximum of six sets of shapes. Once the child makes two errors within a block, the test is terminated. The total number of trials correctly recalled is then calculated. Before the test begins, two practice trials are administered to illustrate the task procedure: a single-item and a two-item trial. Correct responses to the practice items are indicated to the child if they do not initially answer correctly. Henry (2001) proved the reliability and validity of this test to be acceptable.

2.3.2 Writing Test

This test was taken from students' English books as their weekly tests. Since the participants of this study are 8th-grade students, the researcher chose a topic from their school English book and asked them to write about it.

2.4. Procedures

At the beginning of the study, the researcher used two intact classes of secondary female students to participate in the study. She used an available sampling method to choose the participants. The participants were all deaf learners and they did not have any other physical or mental problems. Then she did the pilot study and asked some of the randomly selected students to participate in the tests to find out if any misunderstanding arose.

At the next stage, she instructed all of the participants to non-verbal working memory test and a writing test. To accomplish the working memory tests, the researcher used some blocks and some shapes in the form of a PowerPoint presentation. In the writing test, the students were asked to write some sentences on the given topics. The topics have been chosen from the 8th grade English book. The researcher chose topics like weather, seasons, food, etc. At the end of the study, data analysis was done to find the relationship between the variables.

4. Findings

4.1. Examining the Normality of Data

Before performing the analysis of data, the normality of collected data was assessed using One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. This test was used to show the normality of the distribution of data and to make decisions about using parametric or nonparametric tests to analyze data. When the $\text{sig} < 0.05$, the distribution of data is not normal and it is not possible to use parametric tests. When $\text{sig} > 0.05$, the distribution of data is normal and it is possible to use parametric tests. The next table, Table 4.1, shows the result of the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test which was applied to ensure the normality of the collected data of all types.

Table 4.1

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Tests of Writing and Working Memory

		writing	Spatial span	Odd one out
N		15	15	15
Normal Parameters ^a	Mean	16.93	38.00	14.40
	Std. Deviation	.96	4.34	1.72
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.272	.344	.258
	Positive	.272	.344	.258
	Negative	-.261	-.256	-.208
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.055	1.33	1.00
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.216	.057	.269

a. Test distribution is Normal.

The above table shows the results of the one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The results showed that the data of all of the tests are normal, because for all of the variables $\text{sig} > 0.05$. Accordingly, it is possible to use parametric tests to analyze data.

4.3 Addressing the First Research Question

The first research question guiding the study was: *Is there any relationship between nonverbal working memory and the writing skill of Iranian EFL deaf learners?* To answer the first research question, the researcher used a writing test and a test of nonverbal working memory. The next table shows the descriptive statistics of the scores of the above-mentioned tests.

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics of tests of Writing and Working Memory

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Writing	15	15.00	19.00	16.93	.96
Working memory	15	42.00	66.00	52.40	5.51
Valid N (listwise)	15				

The above table shows the mean score, std. deviation, minimum, and maximum scores of students in writing and working memory tests. As it is clear from the above table, the mean scores of the writing test and working memory test are 16.93 and 52.40, respectively. The std. deviation of the writing test and working memory test are 0.96 and 5.51, respectively. Moreover, the above table shows that the minimum and maximum scores on writing test are 15.00 and 19.00 and the minimum and maximum scores for working memory are 42 and 66.

To answer the first research question, the Pearson Correlation test was used. This test was administered to find the relationship between learners' nonverbal working memory and writing skills. Because of the normality of the data, it was possible to use this test. The result of this test is reported in the following table.

Table 4.3

Pearson Correlation Test of learners' nonverbal working memory and writing skill

		writing	Working memory
Writing	Pearson Correlation	1	.679**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.008
	N	15	14
Working memory	Pearson Correlation	.679**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	
	N	14	14

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

As it is obvious from this table, the correlation between learners' nonverbal working memory and writing tests is significant (sig < 0.05). In other words, there is a significant relationship between learners' nonverbal working memory and writing tests.

4.4. Addressing the Second Research Question

The second research question guiding the study was: Do Iranian EFL deaf learners with higher capacities of nonverbal working memory have better performance in writing skills than learners with lower capacities of nonverbal working memory? To answer the second research question, first, the researcher computed descriptive statistics of participants' writing and working memory test scores which are presented in Table 4.2 To classify the participants into two groups, to find the participants with higher levels of working memory capacity, the researcher used the participants' mean score of working memory capacity (mean=52) as a cut point and classified the learners into two groups: a group with higher working memory

capacity (>52) and a group with lower working memory capacity (<52). Table 4.4 shows the ranks of the higher and lower groups about their writing score.

Table 4.4

Ranks of Working Memory Capacity in Two Groups

	working>52	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Writing	high	7	10.07	70.50
	low	8	6.19	49.50
	Total	15		

As it is obvious from this table, out of 15 participants, 8 learners' level of working memory is lower than the mean score (<52), and 7 learners have a higher level of working memory (>52). The mean rank of the writing score in the lower group is 10.07 and the mean rank of the writing score in the lower group is 6.19. The results of the Mann-Whitney test are represented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Results of Mann-Whitney U Test

	writing
Mann-Whitney U	13.50
Wilcoxon W	49.50
Z	-1.83
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.067
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.094 ^a

Grouping Variable: working memory>52

Based on Table 4.5, $Z = -1.83$ and $Sig = 0.094$. It shows that the mean scores of learners' writing tests in higher and lower groups are different. The mean rank of higher and lower groups shows that the mean rank in the higher group is higher than the mean rank of the lower group. Since $sig > 0.05$, the results revealed that there is not any significant difference between the writing skill performance of learners with higher capacities of nonverbal working memory and learners with lower capacities of nonverbal working memory. Therefore, the level of non-verbal working memory did not influence the writing skill.

5. Discussion

The aim of the present study was to investigate the effectiveness of non-verbal working memory on the English writing skills of students with hearing impairment. The results of the present study are in agreement with the results of Gederkol et al.'s (2004) research, who believe that working memory is a mental workspace with flexible activity, whose task is to perform daily cognitive activities that require processing and storage. Active memory is the basis of thinking and learning and plays an important role in language learning.

In deaf students, considering their hearing and speaking limitations, working memory can play an important role in learning English. Since these students are not able to fully use their sense of hearing and speaking, their reading and writing skills are involved in language learning. results of this research showed that non-verbal working memory has an effect on writing skills in deaf students.

The findings of Elavi's research (2011) also determined that students with low working memory capacity have poor performance in areas such as language learning, and working memory is a key part of learning English. As a result, finding ways to improve working memory capacity can help improve English language learning, especially in deaf students. Pisani and Cleary (2003) emphasized the importance of increasing working memory.

The findings of the present study are generally in line with the results of previous studies and are a confirmation of the relationship between working memory and English

language learning. Also, the research results of Schneider (2015) and Swanson and O'Connor (2009) stated that active memory ability is effective in reading and writing, and these results are in line with the results of the current research. Arfe et al. (2015) also concluded that working memory is effective in the oral and written performance of deaf people. Considering that deaf students have limitations in reading and writing, it can be concluded that non-verbal active memory is considered an important and effective factor in increasing writing skills.

6. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study may provide practical implications and suggestions for EFL learners, teachers, educators, and administrators to improve qualities of material, and syllabus design. Given the importance of the capacity of working memory in successful language learning, teachers should be aware of learners' need to improve the capacity of their working memory, especially in deaf learners since working memory has a special and significant role in language learning. Hence, in addition to language learning activities, English courses should also provide materials, which are useful for learners to improve their working memory.

Moreover, in teacher training courses, teacher development programs, and workshops alternative ways to incorporate practices and activities that can improve language skills by not only focusing on foreign language teaching and learning but also incorporating what can improve learners' capacity of working memory. In other words, teacher trainers, and administrators of teacher training programs who can prepare the content of the programs should pay attention to the need to improve learners' capacity of working memory.

Conflict of interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper.

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A Study of English Translation of Proverbs in Molana's Masnavi

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Abstract

Literary works are full of figurative devices which in fact have the crucial role in making them distinct from other types of texts. Maybe this is why translating literary texts is often more challenging than other types of texts. Hence, one of the most important tasks of a literary translator is doing his/her best to maintain the figurative devices of the original text by applying the most appropriate strategies. This study investigates the English translation of the proverbs in Masnavi Manavi by Whinfield (1898). We tried to answer the following questions: 1) What strategies have been used by the translator for the translation of the proverbs? 2) Has the translator been successful in translating the proverbs given the nature of the proverbs used in Masnavi? As for the first question, it was found that all the proverbs in the source text were translated literally. A survey of the identified Persian proverbs revealed that a relatively large number of the proverbs have exact or near equivalents in English. However, literal translation is the last option chosen by the translator for all of them. Given the high importance of proverbs in Masnavi, we can argue that the didactic nature of Masnavi might have been reflected better by using the exact or near proverb equivalents.

Keywords: Masnavi Manavi, Molana, Proverb, Translation, Whinfield

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1. Introduction

Having their root in the culture, proverbs almost exist in all languages of the world. Although some proverbs are readily identifiable by the local audiences in every culture, it is not always easy to say what proverbs are. In fact, the task of defining the proverb has been challenging. As Taylor (1931) argues (in Hernadi & Steen, 1999), "the definition of a proverb is too difficult to repay the undertaking [...]. An incommunicable quality tells us this sentence is proverbial and that is not". Grzybek (1994 in Hernadi & Steen, 1999) contends that: "there is no generally accepted definition which covers all specifics of the proverbial genre".

Accepting the disputed quality of all definitions given for the proverb, in one appealing experiment, Mieder (1993) asked fifty-five educated non-experts to write their definition of a proverb on a piece of paper. This resulted in the following "composite definition" by using the words with a repetition frequency of four to twenty, extracted from the collected definitions: a proverb is "a phrase, saying, sentence, statement, or expression of the folk which contains above all wisdom, truth, morals, experience, lessons, and advice concerning life and which has been handed down from generation to generation" (in Hernadi & Steen, 1999).

In Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms (2008) proverb has been defined as "a short popular saying of unknown authorship, expressing some general truth or superstition." Proverbs are a method for expressing the common ideas or beliefs using a fixed phrase in the appropriate context for all the speakers in speech communities (Ayeni, 2011, p. 1 in Heras Ramirez, 2015). "Proverbs are a kind of mystic accretion of wisdom; that they have crystallized out of the experience of the past ages without the precise effort of individuals, almost without the intervention of human agency" (Firth 1927: 262 in Heras Ramirez, 2015). Hagopian (2008 in Shariati & Tayebi, 2012) stated that proverbs are folk sayings universal in use and concise in sense and structure; they include a unique conclusion or advice regarding almost every life situation. According to Barajas (2010 in Basam Thalji, 2015):

Proverbs are expressions that are surrounded by paradoxes because they are wise expressions that refer to something tangible to express things that are not concrete. Moreover, the ambiguous origin of proverbs does not weaken them

but allow them to become popular social wisdoms. Furthermore, despite proverbs are considered as popular expressions, few people can use them correctly in conversations with social and linguistic skills. In addition, although proverbs have fixed form, their meanings could be changed according to the interpretation of particular social factors and settings (9-10).

After getting an overall view of the definition of a proverb, in the following sections some more theoretical preliminaries are presented on the proverb in general and translation of the proverb in particular. This paper tries to find answers to the following questions:

- 1) What strategies have been used by the translator for the translation of the proverbs?
- 2) Has the translator been successful in translating the proverbs given the nature of the proverbs used in Masnavi?

2. Review of Literature

Numerous classifications of proverbs are found in the literature. Some scholars have regarded proverbs as a variant of forms of figurative speech. For example, Honeck (1985) has introduced the metaphor, simile, idiom, metonymy, and oxymoron as the main variants of figurative speech. However, some scholars have included sarcasm, irony, hyperbole, understatement, and rhetorical questions. In some other situations, they are defined as “the wisdom of many, the wit of one” (Dundes, 1981 in Shariati & Tayebi, 2012), or as “figurative expressions that capture the shared ideas and values of a society” (Nipold & Haq 1996 in Shariati & Tayebi, 2012). Eugenio (2015) has classified the proverbs into six distinct categories as follows:

1. Proverbs that express a general attitude towards life and the laws governing life (“*There is no earthly joy that is not watered with tears*”).
2. Ethical proverbs that recommend certain virtues and condemn certain vices (“*No debt remains unpaid*”).
3. Proverbs that express a system of values. (“*A lazy young man is like a foul-smelling meat*”).

4. Proverbs that express some general truths and observations about life and human nature. (*"A good thing is never too late"*.)
5. Humorous proverbs that have a sense of wit. (*"The love of an old man is like a snail that crawls"*.)
6. Miscellaneous proverbs that typically express the specific realities to a certain area. (*"The sleeping boatman does not know the streams he passed"*.)

2.1. Difficulties of Translating Proverbs

Translation is a complex process due to differences between SL and TL both linguistically and culturally. This applies for the translation of the proverbs, as well. According to Newmark (1988), foreign cultural expressions can be divided into three types of ecological, material, and social cultures. They also cover the expressions relating to the social organizations, political, religious, artistic, gestures and habits. These cultural expressions can be found in proverbs, collocations, phrasal verbs and figures of speech including metaphors. Translating cultural texts is a challenging process since the translators should be aware of both the source and target culture that is the culture they translate from and the culture they translate to. Proverbs cause difficulties to translators due to their cultural aspects. As Shastri argues (2012, p. 10-11, in Basam Thalji, 2015):

Proverb and idiom are culture specific. They are part of psyche of a linguistic community. They are used symbolically and convey a whole concept in one line. They carry a particular image and a concept which need to be translated. They cannot be translated literally. Sometimes we get the exact equivalent in the TL, which can be easily substituted. If not available, they need to be substituted to similar meaning idioms or proverbs in the TL

2.2. Strategies for Translating Proverbs

Similar to other non-linguistic items, the translator should know linguistic and non-linguistic features of both languages when dealing with the proverbs. Non-linguistic features refer to those elements which are not transferred only through words. Here, culture plays a critical

role. Proverbs communicate specific meaning in a specific context of situation. Hence, a proverb should be translated carefully to transmit the same cultural conventions in the original proverb. Translating a proverb by just finding the first meaning of its constituent words listed in a dictionary is not acceptable. Falk (1978, p. 44) has argued that “since idioms, proverbs and certain nonproductive compounds must be entered in the lexicon of a grammar as single units as if they were single morphemes, it is not surprising that these items pose difficulties when translation from one language to another is involved”. Similarly, Duff (1989, in Gorjian, 2006) has asserted that idiomatic expressions including simile, metaphor, proverb and sayings (as well as jargon, slang, and colloquialisms) are notoriously untranslatable. According to Duff (*ibid.*), the untranslatable expressions from these categories can be approached in one of the following ways in the translation process:

1. Using the literal translation,
2. Using the original word in inverted commas,
3. Using close equivalents, and
4. Using the non- idiomatic translation

Mollanazar (2001, p. 54) highlighted that it is not correct to translate the proverbs literally (word-for-word) and they may on occasion have no natural figurative equivalents in TL. Accordingly, based on a contrastive analysis of English and Persian proverbs, he has suggested two strategies for translating proverbs:

1. Some similar proverbs can be found in the two languages with more or less similar form, vocabulary and meaning and;
2. Many proverbs may be found in the two languages which have similar meanings and can be applied in the same contexts, but they have different form and vocabulary.

As per Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p. 342), the TL equivalents should "replicate the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording." This approach can be used to maintain the stylistic impact of the SL text in the TL text. According to them,

an equivalent is the ideal method when the translator has to deal with proverbs, idioms, clichés, nominal or adjectival phrases and the onomatopoeia of animal sounds.

The proverb is considered as a unit of meaning. What the speaker intends the hearer to understand is not the literal sense of the proverb, but rather its application in the particular context in which the speaker uses it. Proverbs are a cultural resource of a nation (Mollanazar, 2001, p. 53). Beekman and Callow's (in Gorjian, 2006) suggested ways for translating a proverb are as follows:

- 1) The words following the proverb could be introduced as the meaning of the proverb;
- 2) It can be replaced with an equivalent local proverb; and
- 3) Its non-figurative meaning could be stated straight forwardly.

Baker (1992, p. 65) has proposed four strategies for the translation of idioms and fixed expressions including proverbs. They are as follows:

- a) Using an idiom of similar meaning and form;
- b) Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form;
- c) Translation by paraphrase and d) Translation by omission.”

2.3. Masnavi and Use of Proverbs

From the ancient times, the poets have created and applied some parables and proverbs for the purpose of awakening their societies, drawing their attention to the human virtues and strengthening the moral basics and social life customs. Similarly, proverbs are one of the valuable pillars of the Persian language and culture. Like other Persian poets, Molana has used proverbs in his great works. Furthermore, many of his statements have been transformed into famous and prevalent Persian proverbs in later times. It is not absurd to contend that Molana's thinking is recognizable by referring to the repository of proverbs and parables. Accordingly, given the high frequency and significance of the proverbs in Masnavi on one side and the popularity of this masterpiece worldwide, the researchers decided to explore how

these culture-bound items have been dealt with in translation versions. The focus here was on English translation. To do so, a sample of 200 proverbs was randomly selected. As for translation, the complete English translation by Whinfield (1898) was used.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no similar study has been done on the English translation of proverbs in Masnavi, the masterpiece of Molana. After giving a brief introduction on Masnavi and the categorization of proverbs identified in it, the researchers focused on one complete translation of Masnavi by Whinfield (1898) in order to determine how the translator has treated these culture-bound concepts.

2.4. An introduction to Masnavi

Molavi Jalal-e-din Mohammad Ib'ne Hossein Khatibi was a 13th-century Persian poet, jurist, theologian, and Sufi mystic. Rumi's importance is said to exceed national and ethnic borders. To put it differently, Iranians, Turks, Afghans, Tajiks, and other Central Asian Muslims as well as the Muslims of South Asia all have greatly appreciated his spiritual legacy in the past seven centuries. His works have also been translated into a lot of world's languages in various formats. He is currently known as the "most popular poet in America" and the "best selling poet in the US" (Rumi, *Muslim Heritage*).

The six books of Masnavi which are often called "the Qur'an in Persian" is the most influential Sufi poem ever written. One of the distinct features of this masterpiece is the use of proverbs. Helminski (1999, p. 14) describes:

The Masnavi can justifiably be considered as the greatest spiritual masterpiece ever written by a human being. Its content includes the full spectrum of life on earth, every kind of human activity: religious, cultural, political, sexual, domestic; every kind of human character from the vulgar to the refined; as well as copious and specific details of the natural world, history and geography. It is also a book that presents the vertical dimension of life — from this mundane world of desire, work, and things, to the most sublime levels of metaphysics and cosmic awareness. It is its completeness that enchants us.

3. Methodology

3.1. Materials

The data of this research were taken from the great work of Masnavi by Molana translated by Whinfield (1898). The proverbs in the source text were identified based on Ordudari's (2016) Persian book entitled "Proverbs in the Masnavi": A Collection of Poems and Proverbs from the Masnavi of Molavi (Rumi). The selected data were compared to their translation equivalents extracted from Whinfield's translation.

3.1. Procedure

The present study was conducted based on the descriptive framework building on the theory of descriptive translation studies (DTS). DTS mainly deals with "describing the phenomenon of translating and translation as they manifest themselves in the world of our experiences" (Holmes, 1988, p. 71). DTS has three aspects which include: 1) the examination of the product of translation, 2) the function of translation, 3) the process of translation. Accordingly, the focus of the present research is on the product of the translation which is limited to the proverbial expressions. The unit of analysis in this research was every sentence which was identified to proverbs by referring to the Persian commentaries of Masnavi Ma'navi.

3.1.1. Quantity of Proverbs Used in Masnavi

As for the quantity of proverbs used in six books of Masnavi, Seraji's (2012) study reported that a total number of 1,127 proverbs have been used in Masnavi. The frequency of the proverbs in each individual book of Masnavi was as follows: 285 cases in book no.1, 259 in book no. 2, 147 in book no. 3, 108 in book no.4, 163 in book no. 5 and finally, 165 in book no. 6. The following diagram represents a clear-cut picture of the frequency of the proverbs in six books of Masnavi. All have an underlying didactic and precautionary message.

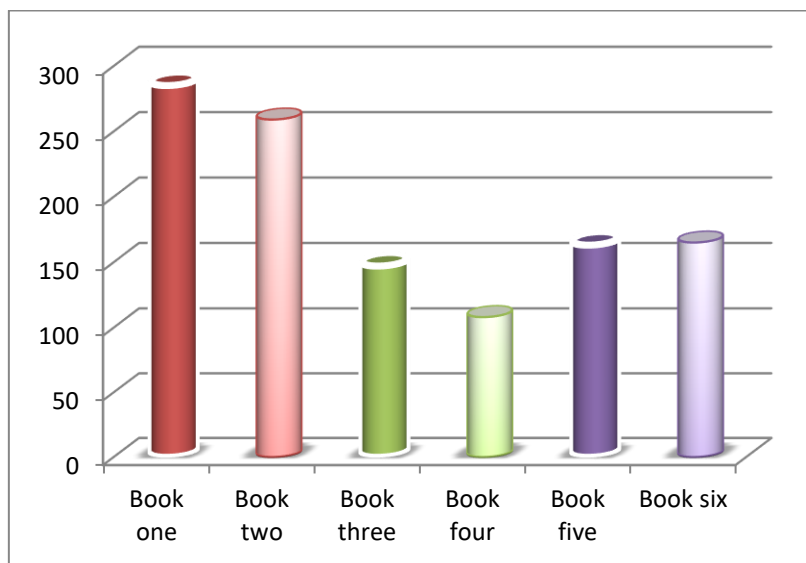


Figure1.

Frequency of proverbs in Masnavi based on Ordudari's (2016) "Proverbs in the Masnavi"

3.1.2. Quality of Proverbs Used in Masnavi

According to Seraji (2012), the proverbs in Masnavi are like the streams of a fountain that flow throughout the Masnavi's ocean. Molana not only shows high sensitivity towards the use of proverbs, but he also has played an effective role in the creation of well-known proverbs that have become common in Persian language. With respect to the quality of the proverbs present in Masnavi in terms of the technique of usage, the proverbs of Masnavi can be divided into the following three subcategories: 1) indirect quotation or indirect reference to the content, 2) direct quotation and 3) the couplets that have been transformed to proverbs later. Below, a more detailed explanation of these three forms of use of proverbs in Masnavi has been presented with elucidating examples.

3.1.2.1. Persian proverbs that have been used directly (direct quotation)

Dominating the other two categories, this category includes the use of the original proverb in its full form.

Example:

ماهی از سرگنده باشد نی ز دم

نفس اول راند بر نفس دوم

Penglish: /Nafs aval rand bar nafse dovom mahiaz sar gonde bashad ney ze dom/

3.1.2.2. Persian proverbs that have been used indirectly (indirect quotation)

Molana is very talent at concealing his desirable proverbs within the deep structure of his poems so that their recognition is only possible by taking the whole message of the couplet. Compared to other two categories, the frequency of this class of proverbs is minimal.

Example:

(Book no. 2, p. 31, no. 521) بر کژی آن فقیر دردمند ای توانگر که تو سیری، هین مخند

Penglish: /ey tavangar ke to siri, hin makhand bar kaji e an faghir e dardmand/

This couplet has connotations to the message of one Persian proverb “gar be dolatberesi, mast nagardi, mardi” (lit. you are a man if you attain power and wealth but don’t misuse it).

English Translation: /oh the wealth who you are full, don’t laugh at the bad situation of that unwell poor/

3.1.2.3. Molana’s Couplets Used as a Proverb in Later Times

Moosavi (2000) in his book mentions two origins from which proverbs emerge: religion and literature.

Religion: In these kinds of proverbs we can find words, expressions or meaning which have their origin in one religion. Their equivalents in another language may be a religious one, non-religious one or none. (e.g. PP: “هر که را خلقش نکو، نیکو شمار”/EP: everyone who is good-tempered, consider him as a good person.).

Literature: The proverbs with this origin are those that have originated from literary works written in one language. These might be one line of a poem, one sentence or phrase taken from a fable or mythological story (e.g. PP: “نوش دارو پس از مرگ سهراب” (one mythological character in Persian literature)/EP: "While men go after a leech, the body is buried").

This category also covers those couplets that have found a new position in Persian language as proverb in some later time. In fact, Molana is the creator of some couplets that later have been recorded in Dehkhoda' Dictionary of Proverbs under the title of proverbs. According to the researchers, the number of the Masnavi's couplets that have changed into proverb is 35 cases (Abrishami, 1997, p. 107 in Seraji, 2012).

3.3. Data Analysis

Here some proverbs of Masnavi and their translations are studied.

هیچ آدابی و ترتیبی مجو هر چه می خواهد دل تنگت بگو (book no. 2, p. 83, no.1788)

Penglish: /hich adabi va tartibi maju harche mikhahad del e tangat begu/

English translation: Say what is in your heart.

This couplet is considered as a proverb in Persian that Molana is deemed as its creator and the common people as its distributor.

تو برای وصل کردن آمدی نی برای فصل کردن آمدی (book no. 2, p. 82, no.1755)

Penglish: /to baray e vasl kardan amadi ney baraey e fasl kardan amadi/

English translation: /you have come for connecting, not for disconnecting/

Proverbs of this category have played an essential role in the cultural richness of Persian (Seraji, 2012).

آفتاب آمد دلیل آفتاب گر دلالت باید از وی رو متاب (161, p.1)

Penglish: /aftab amad dalil e aftab gar dalilat bayad az vey roo matab/

Whinfield's translation: But the sun can display the sun.

آنچه تو در آینه بینی عیان پیر اندر خشت بیند بیش از آن (167, p. 2)

Penglish: /anche to dar ayneh bini ayan pir andar khesht binad pish az an/

Whinfield's translation: What you see only when reflected in a glass, the wise old fathers saw long ago, though, hid in stones

آنچه بر ما می رسد آن هم ز ماست گفت شاه ما همه صدق و وفاست (604, p.6)

Penglish: /anche bar ma miresad an ham ze mast goft shah e ma hame sedgh o vafast/

Whinfield's translation: What gets us that is from us.

نه تو را بر ظلم توبه پرخروش ای دغا گندم نما و جو فروش (1803, p. 5)

Penglish:/na to ra bar zolm e tobeh por khorush ey dagha gandomnama va jo forush/

Whinfield's translation: The cheat who shows wheat and sells barley would make no profit!

بعد نومیدی بسی امید هاست از پس ظلمت، بسی خورشید هاست (2925, p. 3)

Penglish:/ba'd nomidi basi omid hast az pas e zolmat, basi khorshid hast/

Whinfield's translation: Often times hope succeeds to hopelessness; many times does sun light succeed to darkness.

گفت او را نیست الا درد لوت پس جواب احمق اولی تر سکوت (1866, p. 4)

Penglish:/goft oo ra nist ella dard e lut pas javab e ahmagh olatar sokut/

Whinfield's translation: the proper answer to a fool is silence.

پس زبان محرمی خود دیگرست همدلی از همزبانی بهتر است (1270, p.1)

Penglish: /pas zaban e mahrami khod digar ast hamdeli az hamzabani behtar ast/

Whinfield's translation: sympathy is better than talk.

چشم بینا بهتر از سیصد عصا چشم بشناسد کهر را از حصا (3785, p. 6)

Penglish: /cheshm e bina behtar az sisad asa cheshm beshnasad kohar ra az hasa

Whinfield's translation: A seeing eye is better than a hundred walking-sticks,

با تو او چونست هستم من چنان زیر پای مادران باشد، جنان (570, p. 3)

Penglish: /ba to oo choonast hastam man chonan zire paye madaran bashad, janan/

Whinfield's translation: Heaven is under the feet of the mothers.

سیلی نقد از عطای نسیه به نک قفا پیشت کشیدم نقد ده (2720, p. 6)

Penglish: /siliy e naghd az atay e nesiye beh nek ghafa pishat keshidam naghd deh/

Whinfield's translation: Cash is better than a hundred 'Come hithers' and ejaculations.

شکر نعمت، نعمت افزون کند کفر ، نعمت از کفت بیرون کند (9530, p.1)

Penglish: /shokr e ne'mat ne'matat afzun konad kofr, ne'mat az kafat birun konad/

Whinfield's translation: Giving thanks for blessings increases blessings, but fatalism snatches those blessings from your hands,

صبر کن، کالصبر مفتاح الفرج تا نیفتی چون فرج اندر حرج (6: 320)

Penglish: /sabr kon kasabr meftah al faraj ta nayofti chon faraj andar haraj/

Whinfield's translation: Have patience, for patience is the key of joy." Be abstinent, abstinent from vague thoughts".

عاقبت جوینده یابنده بود که فرج از صبر زاینده بود (6: 5980)

Penglish: /aghebat juyandeh yabandeh bovad ke faraj az sabr zayandeh bovad/

Whinfield's translation: "The seeker shall find," "Have patience, for patience is the key of joy."

عذر احمق بدتر از جرمش بود عذر نادان زهر هر دانش بود (720:1)

Penglish: /ozr e ahmagh badtar az jormash bovad ozre nadan zahre e har danesh bovad/

Whinfield's translation: the excuse of a foolish is worse than his wrong.

کوزه چشم حریصان پر نشد تا صدف قانع نشد پر در نشد (1: 40)

Penglish: /kuzey e chashm e harisan por nashod ta sadaf ghane nashod por dor nashod/

Whinfield's translation: the vase of eye of the greed does not become full.

حق ذات پاک الله الصمد که بود به مار بد از یار بد (5: 8490)

Penglish: /haghe zate pak e Allah Al-samad ke bovad beh mar e bad az yar e bad/

Whinfield's translation: a vice snake is worse than a vice friend.

جست او را تاش چون بنده بود لاجرم جوینده یابنده بود (870: 1)

Penglish: /jost oo rat ash chon bandeh bovad la jaram juyandeh yabandeh bovad/

Whinfield's translation: The seeker shall find.

گفت شخصی: خوب ورد آورده ای لیک سوراخ دعا گم کرده ای (2240: 4)

Penglish: /goft shakhsi: Khub verdi avarde ei lik surakh e doa rag om kardeei/

Whinfield's translation: thou have lost the prayer's hole.

هر که جويا شد بيابد عاقبت مایه اش درد است و اصل مرحمت (495: 4)

Penglish: /hark e joya shod byabad aghebat mayeash dard ast o asl marhamat/

Whinfield's translation: The seeker shall find.

4. Results and Discussion

In general, similar to Charles Singleton's translation of *The Divine Comedy* (1975), Whinfield's translation is a sample of literal translation of the poetry in prose. As for the first research question, based on the data collection under study, it should be firstly noted that the proverbs used in Masnavi were of two main types in terms of translation equivalent: those which have a near or exact equivalent in English and those which are not found in English language.

“زیره به کرمان آوردن” /zir e be kermana vardan/

“سوراخ دعا را گم کردن” /surakh e doa ra gom kardan/

“گندم نما و جو فروش” /gandom nama va joforush/

“جوینده، یابنده است” /juyandeh, yabandeh ast/

“سلی نقد از عطای نسیه به” /siliy e naghd az ataye nesiyeh beh/

“در ناامیدی بسی امید است” /dar naomidi basi omid ast/

“ازماست که برماست” /az mast ke bar mast/

These are some examples of the former category (i.e., the Persian proverbs that have an exact equivalent in English). They could be replaced by “*To carry/take coals to Newcastle*”, “*bark up the wrong tree*”, “*where there is a will, there is a way*”, “*A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*”, “*every cloud has a silver lining*” and “*accusing the times is but excusing ourselves*”, respectively.

"که بود به مار بد از یار بد" /ke bovad beh mar e bad az yar-e bad/

“پس جواب احمق اولی تر سکوت” /ke javab-e ahmogh olatar sokut/

“کوزه چشم حریصان پر نشود” /koozeye cheshme harisan por nashod/

These are some typical examples of the latter group. As it was mentioned in the foregoing section, the translator has treated both of these categories similarly using a literal translation strategy for all of them.

As for the second question, it can be said that every translator is free in his choices. However, he tries his best to preserve both the meaning and style of the source text. Using literal translation for all the proverbs, which have a near or exact equivalents, may result in preserving the style of the source text in a better way.

As far as literal translation is concerned, it can be argued that word for word translation or literal translation is the most specially emphasized translation procedure suggested by Newmark (1988). Newmark asserts that “literal translation is the first step in translation” (ibid, p. 76) or “the most important of the procedures” (ibid, p. 81). As he argues, “literal translation is correct and must not be avoided, if it secures referential and pragmatic equivalence to the original” (ibid, p. 68). However, he confesses that literal translation is a bad practice where a literal version is plainly inexact; a vocative or informative text is badly written and there are no “satisfactory” one-to-one TL equivalents for SL general words even though one is over-translating (see ibid, p. 76). In fact, since literal translation does not convey the sense of the original text, it is often used for scientific, technical, technological or legal texts. It is noteworthy that literal translation cannot be used in all languages due to the

peculiar sentence structure. As a result, it may lead to mistranslation. This fact becomes more visible for the poetic and literary texts.

5. Conclusion

Literal translation does not convey the style, beauty or poetic diction of the source text. Poetry can be translated literally in prose but without error. It is noteworthy that Whinfield's translation is a prose version of the original poetic text; hence, there was no limitation on the choice of the equivalents. Using the proverbs in the translated text as far as the target language allows may be helpful for creating the same effect on ultimate goal attempted by any translators for all the translations. The prose literal translation by Whinfield is error free but it failed to convey the didactic nature of the source text resulting from the dozens of proverbs. Scholars (e.g., Mollanazar, Vinay and Darbelnet, and Baker) have touched upon using a target language proverb when a proverb is found in both languages involved in the translation. By using the exact or near proverb equivalents, the didactic nature of Masnavi could be reflected better placing a more profound effect on the target audience. In this way, the audience will get a better picture of this masterpiece approaching its original effect on the source language audience.

Conflict of interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper.

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Translation of Culturally Sensitive Concepts in Literary Texts from the Perspective of Critical Discourse Analysis and Descriptive-Explanatory Translation Studies

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Abstract

The present study aims to investigate the translation of culturally sensitive concepts from the perspective of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Descriptive-Explanatory Translation Studies (DETS) in literary texts. It examines the existing data based on the internal relationship of dominant ideologies, power relations, and censorship laws with the translator's choices to find out whether these they can help researchers establish a relationship between literary translation and constraining factors of social origin. The research data consist of translations of culturally sensitive concepts relating to unconventional relationships in three translated literary texts. To this end, a socio-cognitive theoretical framework with an emphasis on the dialectical relationship between society and discourse is used. The theoretical approaches that are found applicable are Wodak's (2001) discourse-historical CDA model and van Dijk's (1998) socio-cognitive CDA model. The study also employs a diachronic retrospective methodology based on Toury's (1980, 1995) comparative model. The findings show that translators' choices in literary texts are governed by the constraints of social origin and that literary texts, both original and translated, like non-literary texts, contain a lot of information about the relationship between ideology, power relations, and discourse.

Keywords: Culturally sensitive concepts, Critical Discourse Analysis, Literary translation, Descriptive-Explanatory Translation Studies

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1. Introduction

Over the past thirty-five years, Translation Studies (TS) has undergone a significant evolution and along with the changes in the scope, its themes and topics have also changed. As Munday (2022) maintains, Translation Studies, introduced by Holmes in 1972, originates from one of the functionalist theories of description-based translation commonly known as descriptive translation studies (DTS). In this study, however, this process is referred to as descriptive-explanatory translation studies (DETS), because it is intended to pay attention to the descriptive dimension proposed by Toury (1995, 1998). According to Toury (1995, 1998), in DETS, the historically changeable socio-cultural/political context of target texts (TT) is considered as an integral factor in the creation, description, and explanation of translation. In this vein, it can be claimed that in a given society, translation evolves based on changes in the socio-cultural/political context.

In addition, as Schaffner (2003, p. 23) argues, “translation is an ideological socio-cultural/political endeavor”, and hence any translation is ideological, because the choice of a source text is influenced by the interests, goals, and intentions of social agents (cf Torrey’s preliminary norms, 1980, pp. 54-53, 1995, p. 58).

In addition to the selection of the source text, the function of the translated text in the target culture or society is also a determining factor, which is influenced by the restricting factors (Mirzasuzani, 2009). Apart from these externally imposed limitations, translators’ views, values, prejudices, and ideological orientations, acquired from the societies in which they live, are also effective factors, which will be examined in the present study as the internal factors. In this vein, the study examines the combination of critical discourse analysis (CDA) and descriptive-explanatory translation studies (DETS) aiming to establish a connection between the dominant ideologies in social contexts and the translated literary texts in the societies in which they are produced.

In this regard, four main postulations can be made. First, translation in general, and literary translation in particular, is an ideologically-loaded endeavor (see Schaffner, 2003). Second, CDA can be applied in DETS in general and in translated literary texts in particular at both theoretical and practical levels. Third, if a translation researcher wishes to approach

translation within a CDA framework, he or she must adopt a target-oriented approach, that is, focus on a perspective that sees translation as the "facts or products of the target culture" (Torrey 1995, p. 29) into which the source text (ST) is translated. Finally, translators rarely have the power to introduce new ideologies or challenge existing ideologies through their translation decisions. However, there are exceptions to this tenet, such as when the translated texts help to develop or enhance the original works. For instance, the introduction of new genres such as novels, tragedies, comedies, and western poetry in the Turkish literary system during the reform period is a notable example from the central position of translated literature in the literary system of a given culture.

In the present study, the changing process of translation in Turkish society is examined as a result of changes in the socio-cultural/political context. This review has been done through the analysis of different translated texts from the same source texts to show the benefits of applying a CDA approach to DETS in general, and translated literature in particular. Since this research deals with the historical, cultural, political, and ideological progress or changes of Turkish society and its effects on translation, the model used should be diachronic in nature.

Wodak's discourse-historical model specifically focuses on external (social) variable factors affecting translation. Also, van Dijk's socio-cognitive model is used to examine the internal (cognitive) factors that determine certain choices of the translator in the translation process. In this research, by creating a connection between the translator's discursive solutions (socio-cognitive/political level of translation) and the ideological environment (social/external level), an attempt is made to reveal the importance of external factors in determining internal factors.

There are several social theories or models in DETS, including feminist theory, gender studies theory, and postcolonial theory, but they relate translation to society from a particular viewpoint. As a whole, the CDA perspective complements these theories as it provides a comprehensive theory and thus expands translated texts in the direction of a critical social theory.

More specifically, Wodak's and van Dijk's models have more explanatory power in relation to socio-historical factors and socio-cognitive processes. However, it should be noted that the opposite of this approach is also true. Critical analysis of language use in translated literary texts can be considered a rich source for critical social research in the field of ideology and power relations. Therefore, these two approaches complement and enrich each other.

2. Review of Literature

2.1. CDA and DETS

Social-cognitive and discourse-historical approaches of critical discourse analysis are closely related to translation as a socio-ideological activity. According to Fairclough (2001, p. 16), the CDA analyst should not only look at the texts themselves, but also at the processes of their production and interpretation and how they change. It should be noted that these cognitive processes are influenced by social and historical factors. In other words, the critical study of the use of language in texts should be related to the changing social conditions throughout history that affect the processes of production and acceptance of texts, as well as the cognitive process of the author's role in the production of texts and the reader's role in understanding, interpreting, and reacting to them.

Among the diverse range of functionalist approaches, descriptive translation studies (DTS), poly-system theory, and particularly descriptive-explanatory translation studies (DETS) seem to be compatible with socio-cognitive and historical theories or models of CDA.

The primary reasons for this compatibility are, first, that both CDA and TS models emphasize the socio-political and cultural background as the governing factor in text production and consumption; second, they consider translation as both a product and a process, without favoring one over the other; and finally, both are descriptive and explanatory in nature.

The most important difference between DETS, whose main premise is that "translations are facts of the target culture" (Toury, 1995, p. 29), and DTS and poly-system theory, is the strong emphasis on translation explanation.

In other words, while poly-system theory and DTS relate the description of [literary] translation to the target culture and try to answer the question of "how to translate a text", DETS (in addition to description) explains translation in relation to the context of the target culture, and tries to find an answer to the problem of "why the text is translated thus". This is the common point of TS with CDA, because the answer to this question inevitably links the phenomenon of translation with ideology and power relations.

According to Fairclough (2004, p.104), the text provides "a balanced interpretation (or a variable version) of objective reality". Based on this, it can be said that based on CDA, translated texts are considered a suitable and reliable source for research in the field of ideology and social and political conditions of a particular society in certain historical periods. In addition, according to Fairclough, changes in language use have a dialogical relationship with broader social and cultural processes; that is, society influences discourse and discourse influences society (Choliaraki and Fairclough, 1999; Fairclough, 1992), and this relationship itself is influenced by ideology (van Dijk, 1998).

Looking at translated literary texts rather than any other text type as the source of data demonstrates that literary texts are no different from non-literary ones in reflecting and construing social reality, either by conforming to or challenging it. Thus, they can offer as much information for CDA analysts as non-literary texts.

There have already been studies of CDA on fiction (e.g., Talbot on fictional texts, 1995, 1997; Sunderland on gender, 2004; Brissett on play translation, 1990; Isboga-Earl on literary translation, 2008 a, 2008 b; Vakuzetzi in the field of fictional texts, 2007, 2008), but it seems that literary works, including translated literary texts, have not been widely analyzed in the field of CDA.

Regarding the relationship between ideology and translation, Mason (1992, p.23) believes that "ideology affects the translation process in subtle ways", adding that text users

consciously or unconsciously bring their own assumptions, tendencies, and worldviews into text processing. They interfere at all levels, including the choice of vocabulary, connection relations, syntactic rules, and type of text. The translator, as the reader as well as the producer of a text has “the double duty of perceiving the meaning potential of particular choices within the cultural and linguistic community of the ST and relaying that same potential, by suitable linguistic means, to a target readership” (ibid.).

Based on the argument that “translators perform their task in specific socio-political contexts to produce TTs for specific purposes as identified by their clients (Schäffner, 2003, p. 24), and also consciously or unconsciously rely on their personal ideological presuppositions acquired from society in the translation process”, it can be claimed that it is inevitable that ideology permeates this process which will end up with systematic shifts from the ST.

Given this ideological intervention in all levels of text production (from lexical choices to text type), it can be concluded that the examination of the surface psychological processes in the target texts, that is, the translator’s final choices or decisions, can reveal the prevailing ideology or ideologies. In particular, this intervention will be able to help determine the social effects conditioned by ideology on the translator's knowledge and through it on his decision-making process, which at the same time takes into account the expectations and desires of the target readers.

van Dijk (1998) takes a multidisciplinary approach to the concept of "ideology" that incorporates concepts from cognitive and social psychology, sociology, and discourse analysis. He uses a three-part approach to ideology analysis: social analysis, cognitive analysis, and discourse analysis.

While social analysis in this model examines "overall societal structures" (the non-linguistic context), discourse analysis is mainly text-oriented. However, the uniqueness of van Dijk's approach is due to his cognitive analysis. According to van Dijk (1998, p.126), to explain the correct nature of ideologies and their relationships with society and discourse, one must first understand their mental or cognitive dimensions. The main point here is that

ideologies have an indirect influence on the personal understanding of group members in understanding and producing discourse.

In addition, van Dijk basically considers discourse analysis to be the analysis of ideology, and argues throughout his works (1995, 1998) that one of the crucial social activities influenced by ideology is discourse, which, in turn, influences how we acquire, learn, take on, change and reproduce ideologies. Therefore, through the analysis of the discursive dimensions of ideologies in the texts, it is possible to prove how they can influence the society and its members and at the same time be reproduced or challenged in the society.

For van Dijk (1998), a text or discourse means the original. In contrast, in translation it is difficult to claim such a two-way relationship because translated texts are weaker than the originals in challenging or changing the prevailing ideologies; hence, most of the time, they reproduce or legitimize the prevailing ideologies.

It is this peripheral status of translation, which, as Even-Zohar (1990) believes, imposes restrictions on translators, leading to the modification of the source text in order to conform to the dominant ideologies in the target culture. In addition, this is the reason why translation is regarded as an ideologically embedded socio-cultural and political practice. Similarly, Bassent and Lefevere (1992, p. vii) argue that “translation is the rewriting of the original text, which, like any other rewriting is a manipulation in the service of power, thereby reflecting a certain ideology”. Thus, van Dijk's socio-cognitive model, which emphasizes the cognitive interface between discourse structures and social structures, is used to explain the influence of ideology on the translation process. In particular, the model considers how ideology is reproduced or legitimized and/or challenged through the discursive manifestations which are the outcome of the mediation by individual translators who manipulate the ST under the constraints of their own personal cognitions governed by their own assumptions, worldviews, values, goals, beliefs and (ideological) predispositions (which are socially and ideologically conditioned and shared).

Therefore, in the current study, the effects of external factors on internal factors are examined. Uncovering these interrelationships is only possible by creating links between

observable and unobservable data. The observable data in the present study are discourse expressions in the translated texts, which are the superficial and apparent realization of the translator's final decisions as a consequence of several socio-cognitive processes.

Data with less observability or unobservable data are several socio-cognitive processes dominated by assumptions, worldviews, values, goals, beliefs, and ideological presuppositions of the translator, as well as the ideologies that shape and govern them. Therefore, it is expected that this analysis inspired by Van Dijk's society-cognition-discourse triangle will contribute to a better understanding of the ideological conditions of translation as a social activity.

Translations are far more exposed to constraints than original texts. Thus, they are more productive when analyzing particular discursive usages and ideologies, in reaching an understanding of the intricate interrelationship between discourse and ideology in general. The advantage of translated literary texts in such research is clearly demonstrated by the fact that the extent of the cognitive and social processes occurring in the production and consumption of the translated discourse is two times higher than that in original literary texts. When we consider the whole course of action in the production and consumption of an original literary text, we can identify a number of processes that take place as follows:

- (i) the author's interpretation of the real world, controlled by his/her personal experience of social manifestations and the world in his/her mind;
- (ii) creation of discourse or literary text by the author;
- (iii) interpretation of the literary text or discourse by its readers;
- (iv) reception, by the reader, of the effects of the meaning intended by the author.

These phases are repeated for the production and consumption of the literary translated text or discourse. In other words, the translator as the reader goes through phases (i) to (iv), during which the meaning intended by the ST author is located in the reader-translator's subjective reading. The process of production or translation then begins,

governed by the translator's own personal experience of the real world and the social representations in his or her mind which differ from those of the ST author. Thus, during and after the processes of interpretation [of the ST] and production [of the TT], which are organized, coordinated and regulated by the social representations peculiar to him or her, the translator will have manipulated the reality in the ST discourse, itself already a version of reality manipulated by the ST author (a repetition of step i). In addition, this new version of reality is expressed by the translator in a new, imaginary way (repeating step ii).

The course of action is completed when the TT reader interprets and receives the meaning intended both by the ST author and the translator (a repetition of steps iii and iv, but this time in step iii, the meaning is negotiated between the TT reader and both the ST author and translator).

Although van Dijk's model is a good explanation of the translators' decisions as the products of the social manifestations in their minds (especially ideologies), it seems that it lacks the necessary historical dimension for a diachronic study to explore the influence of changes in socio-historical and political conditions on translation.

Among CDA researchers, Wodak has been noted for focusing upon the historical dimension of discourse emphasizing that it is necessary to include a historical dimension in CDA because "social processes are dynamic, not static" and this "has to be reflected in the theory and the methodology" (Wodak, 1989, p. xvi). In addition, Wodak and Ludwig (1999, pp. 12-13) considering language as a medium to combine and represent these processes and dynamic social interaction, claim that:

- (i) discourse "always involves power and ideologies. No interaction exists where power relations do not prevail and where values and norms do not have a relevant role."
- (ii) discourse is unavoidably historical or historically produced and interpreted, that is, "it is connected synchronically and diachronically with other communicative events which are happening at the same time or which have happened before" (ibid.), so it is not produced without context and cannot be understood without taking the

context into consideration. In this respect, intertextuality and sociocultural knowledge are at work within the concept of context.

(iii) readers and listeners might have different interpretations of the same communicative event, depending on their background knowledge and information, and position and role within the society. In other words, “THE RIGHT interpretation does not exist; a hermeneutic approach is necessary. Interpretations can be more or less plausible and adequate, but they cannot be true” (emphasis in original).

Like van Dijk's socio-cognitive model, Wodak's model, in addition to these three principles, demands the methodological interdisciplinarity of CDA by combining historical, socio-political, and linguistic perspectives in the study of a given discourse. Such a triangulation is based on the concept of context (Risigel and Wodak, 2001, p. 41; Weiss and Wodak, 2003, p. 22), which involves intertextual, intratextual, and extratextual contexts (Wodak, 2001, pp. 68-67).

Therefore, the discourse-historical model is well-suited with the nature of the present study. In this vein, in the present study, the translations of two extracts of STs are investigated, and for each ST, two TTs from two different periods of the Turkish history are selected.

Considering this, the diachronic dimension of changing social context is deliberated, aiming to explain how ideology is reconstructed through translated literature by impinging on both the process during which the translator interprets the ST (cf. hermeneutic quality) and the process of translation (cf. ideologically-generated discourse).

2.2. Socio-political Status in the Turkish Republic Context

Considering the importance of the historical background in the discourse, the knowledge of the historical context of the Turkish society seems essential in understanding the societal constraints, particularly censorship, imposed on translators. During the translation process, these factors influence translators' decisions regarding mental social representations, which in turn become internalized versions of the socio-political context of the society of which the

translators are members. Therefore, a brief explanation of the Turkish context is provided below.

The Law for the Establishment of Public Order, which came into force in 1925, gave the government unlimited power to restrict the freedom of the press and the publication of any newspaper (Kabacalı, 1992, pp. 964-963). However, censorship was not limited to the press and affected radio, television, films, plays, and books as well (Yayla, 1992).

From the second half of the 1940s—during the transition from a one-party system to a multiparty system—extraordinary restrictions, martial law, and authoritarianism spread across the political arena. Many newspapers were banned because of comments that were not approved by the government. As mentioned in *Cumhuriyetin 75 Yılı* (1999, p. 223, 244), after the establishment of the General Directorate of Press and Publications under the direction of the Prime Minister, the government increased its control over the press.

In addition, during the war years, the then regime not only restricted political thinking, but also interfered in every area of daily life, and the world of literature was not spared from the government's scrutiny.

Thus, for example, the translation of Pierre-Louis' *Afrodite*, which is about ancient rituals, faced legal challenges in 1940 due to its obscene content. In addition to the publisher and translator of the book, Sabiha Zekeriya Sertel, a writer and journalist, was also prosecuted for her article about the trial, in which she criticised the pressures imposed by the government on the writers, publishers and translators (see also *Cumhuriyetin 75 Yılı*, 1999, pp. 227, 250-252).

The authoritarian policy of the Democratic Party (1950-1960), which was economically liberal and culturally conservative, led to the creation of various educational and cultural policies (Tahir-Gürçağlar, 2003, p. 125) and finally ended with a military coup on 27 May 1960.

According to Kabacalı (1992, p. 965), the National Unity Committee that came to power after that agreed to the quick release of imprisoned journalists and abolished most of the undemocratic provisions related to Crimes Committed through Publications and Radio

and in the Press Law. Thus, the era that began with this coup is considered a turning point in the history of the Turkish Republic.

After the military coup, a new constitution was accepted by the majority of voters in 1961. While a more comprehensive explanation of standard and political rights was provided, articles guaranteeing freedom of the press and prohibition of censorship were also added, and thus, a real process of democratization of social and political life was beginning (see *Cumhuriyetin 75 Yılı*, 1999, pp. 480-481). However, this era also ended with another coup in 1980. During these nineteen years (1961-1980), a multi-party system was set up, society achieved some degree of autonomy, and a process of urbanization began (Insel, 1999, p.476).

As Yayla (1992, p. 956) points out, “the civil conflicts which broke out throughout the country after 1970 started to threaten the unity and democratic nature of the state.” Martial law was introduced until the military again seized power on 12 September 1980. The coup led to another new constitution. The Constitution of 1982 gave lawmakers an opportunity to re-examine the laws pertaining to freedom of the press and publication. While the basic principle of freedom of the press and prohibition of censorship remained as set out in the 1961 Constitution, the issuing and releasing of news that might threaten national unity or national security, and that might incite offences and revolt, was to be prevented by the decision of the authorized administrative court (see also Yayla, 1992, p. 956). Prosecutions for books branded ‘obscene’ or ‘pornographic’ started to decline noticeably from the late 1980s. From then on, and particularly during the 1990s, the books subjected to confiscation decisions under the propaganda ban in article 142/1 of the Turkish Criminal Code were mostly socialist classics (for an extensive list of these books, see Tanör, 1997, p. 88) and their Turkish translations.

A consideration of the current decade shows how far the political atmosphere in Turkey has undergone transformation since the 1940s. The transformation of political life as a result of completing the democratization process has also led to changes in social life. Turkey has already faced serious problems in the field of freedom of the press and publications, freedom of speech, and freedom in science and art, and it is still like this. However, remarkable progress has been made in all these areas, mainly as a result of the

Constitutional amendments introduced in 1995 as part of the European Union adjustment program. In fact, people and media most often interpret enhanced freedom of thought and expression, along with freedom of the press and publication as an attempt to compensate for the mistakes of governments in the past. On the other hand, it doesn't mean that books or movies are no longer banned for obscenity, and such cases still happen, albeit much less often. Overall, all these terms have started a new stage of democratization in Turkey.

3. Methodology

In the current study, the CDA approaches of van Dijk (1998) and Wodak (2001) are employed as they seem to be most appropriate for the systematic analysis of coherent textual representations of ideology in translated literary texts. In this vein, the aforementioned approaches are combined and employed together with Descriptive-Explanatory Translation Studies (DETS) to demonstrate the effectiveness of translated literature as a practical source of information for CDA researchers.

In addition, Toury's (1980, 1995, 1998) comparative microanalysis model, which has a retrospective and diachronic nature, is used. This model seems to be compatible with the approaches of van Dijk (1998) and Wodak (2001).

3.1. Corpus

The corpus of the study comprises three novels from 20th century British and American literature and their translations into Turkish, as follows:

ST1: Aldous Huxley's *Brave New World* (1932/1993);

TT1: Pertinent Turkish translations in 1945 and 2000;

ST2: Nabokov's *Lolita* (1955/1992);

TT2: Pertinent Turkish translations in 1959 and 2000;

ST3: Orxin Caldwell's *God's Little Acre* (1933/1995)

TT3: Pertinent Turkish Translation in 1949 and 1986.

3.2. Procedures

The analysis of some selected parts taken from the above-mentioned source texts is presented at the level of words, expressions, and concepts that were considered culturally sensitive concepts according to the ideologies and social norms of the 1940s and 1950s in Turkish society. Some of the prohibited topics are any vulgar or slang words and expressions with erotic connotations.

After reconstructing some of the rules of translators' choices, they are related with ideologies as "sets of beliefs in our minds" (van Dijk, 1998, p.48) and "mental representations" (van Dijk, 1998, p. 9) acquired from and shared within society, which govern the successive cognitive processes in the translator's mind at the time of the translator's decision about the translation. The comparison consists of two stages. First, two different TTs produced in different historical periods by individual translators are compared. Then, the translations are compared with the ST.

4. Results

Considering the Turkish society's historical and socio-political status in the 1940s and 1950s, there were a series of social and moral values, the violation of which caused social punishments.

The family was one of the most prestigious institutions, and references to unconventional relationships were unacceptable to the Turkish public. In addition, the most effective ideologies limiting the press and publications were conservative, spiritual, nationalist, and anti-communist in nature. For instance, adultery was considered a public crime, while it still is. However, despite the fact that in the 1940s and 1950s adultery was a completely forbidden word and its victims kept their experience as a secret, in recent years its victims are under the unquestionable protection of the law, and as a result, they have more freedom to sue the assailants. In Tables 1-5, a number of culturally sensitive concepts in the source text (English) and their translations in Turkish are presented.

Table 1:

the culturally sensitive concepts in the ST and translations in the TL

No.	Source Text	Earlier form of the ST	Back Translation	Later form of the ST	Back Translation
1	Incestuous	-	Adulterous	Ensest	Incestuous
2	Incest	-	Adultery	Ensest	Incestuous

As seen in Table 1, "incest" appears as "zina" (adultery) in both examples of the early translation. The translator's decision to change the source text can be based on the fact that in the 1940s, people avoided talking about incest or even thinking about it. However, the later translator not only preserves the meaning of the source text

Table 2

culturally sensitive concepts in the ST and translations in the TL

No.	Source Text	Earlier form of the ST	Back Translation	Later form of the ST	Back Translation
3a	the normal girl is usually extremely anxious	Segment Omission	-	genellikle hoşnut etmek içinçırpınırlar	healthy little girls usually make a great effort
3b	She feels forerunner	Segment Omission	-	geçirilmez erkeğin öncülüolarak görürler	These girls see themselves as the forerunner

In the examples presented in Table 2, the protagonist of the story describes an unconventional relationship between in the source text. By this description, he means to justify the behavior. As can be seen, while this entire part of the source text is removed in the earlier translation.

Table 3:

the culturally sensitive concepts in the ST and translations in the TL

No.	Source Text	Earlier form of the ST	Back Translation	Later form of the ST	Back Translation
4	I might have ... produced eventually ... with my blood ... Dr. Humbert,	Segment Omission	-	-	I produce eventually a second ... with my blood. Dr

	practising on the art of being a granddad...				Humbert ... practicing the art of being a granddad
--	--	--	--	--	--

Table 3 illustrates another example of culturally sensitive concepts. The source text refers to Humbert's dream. While the earlier translator completely omits this section, the later translator remains faithful to the source text.

Table 4

Example 5 of the culturally sensitive concepts in the ST and translations in the TL

No.	Source Text	Earlier form of the ST	Back Translation	Later form of the ST	Back Translation
5	getting right down there and then and (doing) something	Yere çöküp bir şeyler elamak istermiş gibi bir his duydum	sitting down and then doing something	hemen oracıkta de oranı istedim	sitting right down there and do ...

As shown in Table 4, the earlier translator tries to divert the reader's mind from a certain part by using the equivalent of "something"; however, the later translator, by using "there" as the equivalent of "something" in the original text, directly refers to the same part.

Table 5

Example 6 of the culturally sensitive concepts in the ST and translations in the TL

No.	Source Text	Earlier form of the ST	Back Translation	Later form of the ST	Back Translation
6	Humbert was perfectly capable of it with ..., but it was... he longed for.	Segment Deletion	-	-	It was of course possible for Humbert ..., but it was ... he longed for.

Indeed, the part containing this allusion to the Bible has been removed by the earlier translator, but the later translator has replaced it. Probably, the translator intended to provide guidance for target readers who are not familiar with the context.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Given the data obtained from the above examples, it is revealed that there is some regularity governing the strategies used by different translators when dealing with culturally sensitive concepts in the source text. In all the above examples, it seems that the translator of the early target text has deliberately changed/deleted/paraphrased words, phrases, or sentences related to unconventional relationships.

This refers to some restrictions imposed on the translators of the earlier target text when translating the source text units that directly or indirectly imply unconventional relationships. Alternatively, it seems that the translators of the later target text have tried to be faithful to the original text and even in some cases, compared to the original text, they have made a clearer reference to the issue of unconventional relationships. In this vein, it is likely to conclude that although the Turkish society has still a high sensitivity towards family relationships and values, talking about unconventional relationships is no longer an absolute taboo, and this can be partly a consequence of the spread of liberal ideology in today's Turkish society.

Another point to consider is that although religious forbidden words are not the main subject of investigation in this study, the example in Table 5 refers to culturally sensitive concepts as well as violating the ideals of Biblical themes as part of the sacred scriptures.

The way the early translator dealt with the text, which contains negative references to religious figures, can be directly related to the conservative and spiritual ideologies ruling the Turkish society in the 1940s and 1950s. In that period, no one dared to criticize religious figures or speak against them. However, nowadays, despite the fact that religion is considered very respectable in the Turkish society, literary texts containing such things, will not cause harassment to the readers of literary works.

It can be assumed that those changes made in the source text that indicate the rules governing the work of the early translator did not happen by accident and are actually the optional choices of the translator himself. Some reasons for these changes from the point of view of translators can be personal ideological presuppositions, concerns about not meeting

readers' expectations, fear of legal action against authors, translators, or publishers, and fear of facing government censorship due to the presence of "obscene" or "immoral" expressions in novels, plays, films, etc.

The factors above may force translators to impose "self-censorship" in order to avoid the negative reaction of clients, readers, or authorities and to remain faithful to their ideological and moral assumptions. For this purpose, they may have to change the linguistic content of the source text by imposing the effects of the target culture and society. This is possible through rewriting parts of the text by changing, deleting, or paraphrasing .

Considering the strategies of translators from the late 1980s to 2000s, it can be seen that all the linguistic content of the source texts has been preserved in their translation. The reason for such loyalty to the source text can be explained again through the socio-political/cultural conditions of the era.

Readers of recent years in Turkey have become more enlightened and aware of the freedom of thought and expression compared to the audiences of the 1940s and 1950s, and have sought to eliminate culturally sensitive concepts. More importantly, they belong to a generation that grew up and promoted freedom of thought and speech. Hence, it can be assumed that newer translators probably have no reason to worry about moral prejudices, censorship, and legal encounters. Finally, the differences in the type and range of choices or changes of the early and later translated texts/targets (discourse of translated texts) can be related to different social representations in the minds of translators, which are internalized cognitive versions of specific social structures and processes.

In addition, political and social conditions can undoubtedly encourage or hinder cultural and artistic creation. Based on this fact and considering the principle that the translated literature cannot be separated from the internal works of the target culture, it can be said that the original and translated literary works are under the control of the social and political situations specific to the society in which they were produced. This, in turn, requires the translation researcher to adopt a target-oriented approach that is able to link translation with social structures and processes in general, and ideologies and power relations in

particular, in the target society. This point explains why, from a target-oriented perspective, translations are considered a useful source of information for critical research on ideology.

For the most part, the findings from the analysis of different translations of a genre in the original language indicate that literary works, such as non-literary works, whether they are original or translated, can contain a lot of information about the society that produced them and the characteristics of the society concerned. In the same vein, considering the fact that CDA studies have often been conducted on non-literary texts, one of the reasons for choosing translated literary texts as a source of information is to obtain evidence that they can also be examined through CDA. Accordingly, it is possible to learn how ideologies influence the text production process, and how ideologies are challenged or reflected by literary texts such as non-literary texts. Nevertheless, this function in translated literary texts is often a reflection or justification of ideology, and due to the mostly secondary position of literary translations in the body of written works of the target culture, it is rarely challenged.

Given the nature of social processes and how these processes are transformed and expressed in language, critical research about the link between society and discourse should contain historical, social, and cognitive dimensions. In this vein, in the current study, an attempt was made to establish a relationship between the solutions/decisions made in the translation process (textual functions) with ideological reasoning, translators' personal assumptions (cognitive processes), and dominant ideologies in a certain period in a given society that affect translators' cognitive processes and consequently affect the final product (TT) as well as the relationship between ideology and text production. By revealing this relationship in this study, it was revealed that the integration of van Dijk's socio-cognitive model and Wodak's discourse-historical model in the form of a new, more comprehensive model can help researchers in examining ideology and the relationship between society-cognition-discourse. Moreover, the present study provided evidence for the claim that there is no clear reason for the non-applicability of CDA in DETS in general, and in (translated) literature in particular.

Conflict of Interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper.

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The Analysis of Newmark's Translation Strategies in the Persian Translation of Burnett's 'the Secret Garden'

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Abstract

Translation as an effective means of communication is used to exchange knowledge and convey the meaning expressed in the source language. The challenge of translating culture-specific items necessitates the use of specific strategies to convey the meaning of culture-specific expressions in the target language. In this sense, using wrong translation strategies during translation can affect how the translation turns out. The purpose of this study was to use Newmark's model to examine translation strategies of the culture-specific items in a Persian translation of Frances Hodgson Burnett's novel, the Secret Garden. The findings showed that the most effective translation strategies chosen were literal translation, functional equivalent, transference, descriptive equivalent, and modulation. The most and least frequently employed translation strategies were literal translation and expansion, respectively.

Keywords: Culture-specific items; Newmark's model; Translation strategies

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1. Introduction

Translation of one language into another and translation as a branch of Applied Linguistics have, through the spread of humanity, continuously played a central role in international interaction by sharing knowledge and culture between languages. Jothiraj et al. (2013, p. 1). argued that “translation plays an important role in the inter-lingual process of communication”. Cenac (2009) states that translators require “a thorough knowledge not only of the two languages involved but of the cultures behind them” (p. 6). Brogger (1992) asserted that “language and culture are inextricably interwoven and interdependent” (as cited in Risager, 2007, p. 132). He went on to say that “culture is language and language is culture”. Snell-Hornby (1988) based this precise relationship between culture and translation on the readership of the source and target texts, as well as their respective cultures.

Originally described by Vermeer (1989) as the cultivation of the soul or mind, culture encompasses institutions, ideas, material objects like tools, clothing, and shelter, as well as behaviors like courting and childrearing. “The way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression” is what Newmark defined as culture (Newmark, 1988, p. 94). “Those textually actualized items whose functions and connotations in a source text involve a translation problem in their transference to a target text, whenever this problem is a product of the non-existence of the referred item or of its different inter-textual status in the cultural system of the target text” (Aixela ,1996, p. 58). A properly translated culture-specific item does not sound like translation. It sounds like it was written originally in the source language. Therefore, professional translators will endeavor to translate based on the translation approach of the Culture-Specific Items.

Translation strategies “involve the basic task of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it” (Venuti,1998, p. 240). Daghoughi and Hashemian (2016) classified and translated CSIs from Persian into English using Newmark's (1988) theories. They discovered that the most common strategy for rendering CSIs was functional equivalent, while the least common strategies were paraphrase and modulation. Based on these findings, the researcher concluded that functional equivalent could be

considered the most effective strategy in translating the CSIs of the literary books because it made such texts more tangible and understandable for readers of the target text.

The purpose of the present research study is to investigate the dominate translation strategies of culture-specific items of the Persian translations of an English novel, *The Secret Garden*, based on Newmark's model of translation. This paper addresses the following research question: What are the translation strategies of culture-specific items in the novel *The Secret Garden* by Frances Hodgson Burnett and its Persian translations?

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Culture-specific Items in Translation

According to Halloran and Kashima (2006), translation involves more than just conveying language, therefore extra-linguistic cultural factors must be taken into account. As stated by Muñoz-Calvo (2010, p. 5), translation plays an undeniable role in the shaping of cultures, of national identities, and it is the vehicle that may make compatible the strengthening of our group identity and consequent knowledge of our own culture with the sharing and learning of other cultures; cultures and their texts becoming accessible and available to international audiences in their own language.

According to Newmark (2010), culture is “the greatest obstacle to translation, at least to the achievement of an accurate and decent translation” (pp. 172-173). Literary translation has a crucial and challenging role in the transmission of cultural elements. “A translation in which the content of the message is changed to conform to the receptor culture in some way, and/or in which information is introduced which is not linguistically implicit in the original” is what Nida and Taber defined as cultural translation (Nida & Taber, 1982, p. 199). Cultural differences present one of the hardest translation challenges for literary works.

When the cultures are similar, there is less difficulty in translating. This is because both languages will probably have terms that are more or less equivalent for the various aspects of the culture. When the cultures are very different, it is often difficult to find equivalent lexical items. (Larson, 1984, p. 95- 96)

According to Maasoum and Davtalab (2011), translation can pose significant challenges for the translator in terms of making numerous cognitive decisions about how to

improve the items' comprehensibility for the target audience, as well as how to employ the most suitable style and structure to satisfy their audience and accurately convey the meaning and form of the original cultural item. Items that are culturally specific provide a number of issues that might be difficult to resolve.

2.2. Translation Strategies

According to Oxford Online Dictionary, the term strategy refers to “a detailed plan for achieving success in situations such as war, politics, business, industry, or the skill of planning for such situations” (Hornby, 2012). In other words, strategy is a kind of tactic or a planned way used by an individual, organization, or country to achieve a particular purpose. It can be exclusive, being used only by one who deigned it, or inclusive, being used by others or the public. It can be claimed that almost everyone uses strategy in his life or career because he has a specific purpose. Translators are those who employ various types of strategies presented by different scholars to produce high quality translations, to satisfy their clients, and to compete with each other in today's market.

Translation strategy, as Krings (1986) stated, is “the translator's potentially conscious plans for solving concrete translation problems in the framework of a concrete translation task” (p. 18). In the same context, Löescher (1991) defined translation strategy as “a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem faced in translating a text, or any segment of it” (p. 8). In both definitions, the notable point is the word conscious. It refers to the translator's consciousness of how to adopt the translation strategies. The unwise decision in using translation strategies may lead him to failure. In this way, he may not be able to communicate with the target reader due to the awkward translation he has produced.

Translation strategies “involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it” (Venuti, 1998, p. 240). He introduced two opponent translation strategies, including domestication and foreignization with special focus on the latter. He believed that foreignization helps retain something of the foreignness of the original. He defined it as “an ethno-deviant pressure on those (cultural) values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad” (p. 20). Both strategies, as he stated, are “deeply rooted in specific social and cultural circumstances” (p.

175). It means that choosing domestication and foreignization strategies is not heavily dependent on the translator, but on the specific social situations (Wang et al, 2013).

These two extremes have been specified by other scholars in earlier times. Nida (1964), for instance, differentiated between formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence and indicated that the orientation of formal equivalence is towards the ST structure, whereas the aim of dynamic equivalence is to seek “the closest natural equivalent to the source -language message” (p. 166). Newmark's (1988) semantic translation and communicative translation are two other opposite poles of translation strategies.

In an increasingly multicultural world, there is a growing awareness of the role of culture in translation, as well as of the role of translators as active mediators between the source culture (SC) and the target culture (TC). It has long been acknowledged that the meaning a text carry depends on how knowledgeable a translator is about both the SC and TC (Ceramella, 2012). Many translation scholars have stressed that the concept of culture is essential for understanding the importance of culture-specific items in translation (Newmark, 1988). Culture has been defined as a way of life and a complex system of beliefs, values, attitudes, and rules which a group of people share (Larson, 1984). Culture encompasses language, history, social structure, religion, tradition, and daily life of a group, and is reflected in culture-specific features and items in the language (Newmark, 1998). In order to be able to translate such items adequately into the TL/TC, the translator not only has to be proficient in the SL, but also profoundly knowledgeable about the SC.

Newmark (1988) used procedure instead of strategy and mentioned that “while translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language” (p. 81). Then, Newmark (1988) divided neologism translation procedure as follows:

1. *Transference* is used to transfer the source language word into the target language without any manipulation. According to Newmark (1988), “transference is the process of transferring a SL word to a TL text as a translation procedure” (p. 81). Newmark believes that the translator uses this method to “attract the reader or to give a sense of intimacy between the text and the reader” (Newmark, 1988, p. 82). Translators should use the method of transference for the name of all living or dead people, geographical

names, name of the periodical, and newspapers, titles of untranslated literary works, plays, films; names of private companies and institutions, names of public institutions; street names, and addresses (Newmark, 1988).

2. *Naturalization* "succeeds transference and adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the TL" (Newmark, 1988, p. 82).

3. *Cultural equivalence* in which the source language cultural word is translated into the target language cultural word. This strategy is "an approximate translation where a SL cultural word is translated by a TL cultural word" (Newmark, 1988, p. 83). However, "they are not accurate".

4. *Neutralization* (including functional or descriptive equivalent) in which the translator uses some description to clarify the meaning of the cultural word for his or her audience (descriptive equivalent) or neutralizes or generalizes the source language word or uses a cultural free word (functional equivalent). "Description and function are essential elements in explanation and therefore in translation" (Newmark, 1988, p. 84).

4.1. *Functional equivalent*: is "applied to cultural words, requires the use of a culture-free word, sometimes with a new specific term; it therefore neutralizes or generalizes the SL word". He also defines functional equivalent as "the most accurate way of translating i.e. deculturizing a cultural word" (Newmark, 1988, p. 83).

4.2. *Descriptive equivalent* which enables us to have a correct perception of CSIs by using other words and phrases. This strategy helps the translator to use some descriptions to clarify the meaning for his audience. Nida (1964, p. 237) argued that "descriptive equivalents are deliberate attempts to produce satisfactory equivalents for objects, events, attributes, and relational for which no regular term exists in the receptor language".

5. *Componential analysis* is unpacking of the words in order to find the meaning that is presented by lexical form. Componential analysis is defined as "comparing an SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense

components. Normally the SL word has more specific meaning than the TL word” (Newmark, 1988, p. 114).

6. *Synonymy*: is defined as a “near TL equivalent to a SL word” (1988, p. 84).

7. *Literal translation* in which the source language expression is transferred through literal translation. “The literal translation of common collocations, name of organizations, the components of compounds and perhaps phrases, which is also known as calque or loan translation” (Newmark. 1988, p. 84).

8. *Shifts or transpositions* have to do with “a change in the grammar from SL to TL”. The first type of shift occurs when there is a change from singular to plural. The second type of shift is required when an SL grammatical structure does not exist in the TL. Finally, the third type of shift is the one where literal translation is grammatically possible but may not accord with the TL (Newmark, 1988, p. 86). Nida believes that “a shift may also be necessary when a word that seems to be of the same hierarchical level as the source language word actually occupies a different position because of cultural differences” (Nida,1964, p. 237).

9. *Modulation* in which the translators try to create the message of the SL in the TL in conformity with the current norms of the TL. In modulation the SL and the TL may be different in terms of perspective (Newmark, 1988, p. 88).

10. *Accepted or recognized translation*: is “the official generally accepted translation of any institutional term” (1988, p. 89).

11. *Translation Label* is a provisional translation, usually of a new institutional term, which should be made in inverted commas, which can later be discreetly withdrawn.

12. *Compensation* is used "when loss of meaning, sound-effect, metaphor or pragmatic effect in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part, or in contiguous sentence” (Newmark, 1988, p. 90). Fawcett (1997) defines compensation as “...when something in the source language is not translatable” (pp. 31-33).

13. *Paraphrase* "is an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text” (Newmark, 1988, p. 90). He is not completely agreeing to list paraphrase in

translation procedures, “since the word is often used to describe free translation”. He explains that “if it is used in the sense of the minimal recasting of an ambitious or obscure sentence, in order to clarify it, I accept it” (Newmark, 1988, p. 91).

14. *Reduction and Expansion* refers to expressing the meaning of a ST phrase with fewer words or vice versa.

15. *Couplets, triplet and quadruplet* occur when the translator combines two or more than two different procedures for dealing with a single problem (Newmark, 1988, p. 91).

16. *Notes* explain the meaning of the word or phrases are “additional information in a translation” (Newmark, 1988, p. 91) which can be within the text, at the bottom of the page, at the end of the chapter and finally as a glossary at the end of the book (Newmark, 1988, p. 92). Notes, Additions, and Glosses are additional information used by the translator in a translation to overcome CSIs.

The translator can work toward producing a thorough translation for all reader types by using the trustworthy tools provided by Newmark's (1988) taxonomy of translation processes. Furthermore, this makes it simple for the translator to decide on the translation's general macro-level strategy depending on the goal it seeks to achieve. Both in theory and in practice, translation students and aspiring translators can benefit from Newmark's taxonomy. This is a result of the fact that his taxonomy covers a wide range of translation techniques, from TT-oriented to ST-oriented ones. They are also simple to deal with and clearly described.

3. Methodology

3.1. Corpus

For the present study, an American Novel, Frances Hodgson Burnett's *the Secret Garden*, and its Persian translation (by Ali Panahi Azar) was selected. The study conducts a descriptive analysis in order to scrutinize the Persian translations of CSIs in Frances Hodgson Burnett's Novel. To this end, the study adopts the translation procedures for CSIs put forward by Newmark's strategies. The process of analyzing translated materials entails comparing the translated text to its source text. As it would be impractical to analyze every facet of the texts

in a single study, the researcher should focus just on one aspect of the ST. As is also the case in this study, which takes culture-specific items from the original text and compares them with the corresponding elements in the two target texts (TTs) (ST) to determine how the translators handled the texts according to Newmark's typology.

3.2. Procedure

In the first place, the researcher gathered the terms that were mostly associated with the cultural domain from the English novel and its translation into Persian. Next, these terms were taken from the chosen pages and categorized using Newmark's model. In order to prevent further errors and eliminate faults in the categorization of these terms, the researcher employed data sheets. After determining the items in the source text that were culture-specific and choosing the type of their translation strategies, two graduate students of translation studies were chosen as inter-raters and asked to validate the researcher's chosen strategies for translating CSIs.

After that, the words were entered into the word processing program to carry out the next, briefly described steps. All of the data was categorized by the researcher and placed into six sections of the charts. The statistics were in the first section, Newmark's techniques were covered in the second, Persian translation was covered in the third and fourth sections, and the right interpretation was covered in the last section. The percentages of the various mistakes in the translation were then calculated by the researcher using various graphs.

After gathering the necessary data and utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 23), the researcher implemented a frequency table. To determine whether the obtained frequencies were statistically significant, a chi-square test was performed. A total frequency table was created to identify the most frequently utilized strategy in translating the culture-specific items to assess the quality of the translation strategies used

4. Results

To answer the research question of this study, the researcher used the descriptive statistics including the frequency and percent of strategies used by participants. Descriptive Statistic is best to obtain quick summaries of numeric variables, or to compare several numeric variables

side-by-side. Newmark (1988, p. 95) classifies culture-specific items into five categories: ecology (flora, fauna, winds, etc.); material culture (artifacts, food, clothes, house, towns, and transport); social culture (work and leisure); organizations, customs, and ideas (political, social, legal, religion, or artistic); and gestures and habits.

Table 1

The Frequency and Percentage of CSIs in Each Newmark's Category

Cultural Category	Frequency	Percentage
Ecology	101	56%
Material Culture	43	24%
Social Culture	12	6.6%
Organizations Customs, Activities, Procedures, Concepts	11	6.2%
Gestures and Habits	13	7.2%
Total	180	100%

According to Table 1, 180 CSIs were taken from the study corpus. Among these, there were samples pertaining to ecology (101 samples), material culture (43 samples), social culture (12 samples), organizations (customs, activities, procedures, concepts), gestures and habits (13 samples), and social culture (12 samples). The objects that were most culture-specific belonged to the ecology group. Following the collection of CSIs according to Newmark's (1988) classification system, the researcher identified the translation techniques used by Ali Panahi, the translator, in translating CSIs into Persian and categorized them according to the translation techniques of Newmark's (1988) translation model, which was a legitimate, dependable, and useful translation model.

For example, translator may use transference, naturalization, cultural equivalency, neutralization, componential analysis, synonymy, literal translation or through translation, shifts or transpositions, modulation, accepted or recognized translation, translation label, compensation, paraphrase, reduction, couplets, triplet, quadruplet, notes, and so on. Newmark (1988) lists various translation techniques that translators employ to bridge the lexical and cultural gaps in the translation of cultural words.

Ali Panahi Azar translated the CSIs of *The Secret Garden* using several strategies, including thirty-two functional equivalents and sixty-eight literal translations. As a result, his primary translation technique for conveying the CSIs was direct translation in this book. He did not translate fifteen CSIs either. As he left out and mistranslated the majority of the items, his translation was poor.

Table 2

The Frequency and Percentage of Strategies Used by the Persian Translator

Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Transference	18	10%
Literal translation	68	37.8%
Functional equivalent	32	17.8%
Descriptive equivalent	13	7.2%
Cultural equivalence	3	1.7%
Reduction	8	4.4%
Expansion	0	0.0%
Synonymy	9	5%
Modulation	15	8.3%
Deletion	14	7.8%
Total	180	100%

In Table 3, the descriptive statistics showed that the most effective translation strategy chosen by the language translator is literal translation.

Table 3

The Frequency and Percentage of Strategies Used

Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Literal translation	167	46.4%
Functional equivalent	51	14.2%
Total	218	100%

Literal Translation

Literal translation is a translation that transfers the meaning of the original language word for word. “Literal translation, also referred to as calque or loan translation, of common collocations, organization names, compound words, and possibly phrases” (Newmark, 1988, p. 84).

Table 4

Literal Translation

Number	CSIs	Ali Panahi Azar Translation
1	Sweet-scented things	گیاهای خوش رایحه و خوشبو
2	Field-mice	موشهای سحرایی
3	Apple-Tree	درخت سیب

In the above samples, the translator translated these noun phrases which are consisted of two nouns in a literal form. They used literal translation or calque strategy for translating these items. For instance, water-rats were rendered based on these two nouns.

Functional Equivalent

According to Newmark, functional equivalent “applied to cultural words, requires the use of a culture-free word, sometimes with a new specific term; it therefore neutralizes or generalizes the SL word”. He also defines functional equivalent as “the most accurate way of translating i.e. deculturizing a cultural word” (1988, p. 83).

Table 5

Functional Equivalent

Number	CSIs	Ali Panahi Azar Translation
1	Brougham	درشکه
2	Native Prince	راجه
3	Evergreens	چمن‌ها

First, according to Oxford advanced learner's dictionary (2012), a brougham means a type of carriage used in the past, which had a closed roof and four wheels and was pulled by one horse. This translator rendered this item based on its functional equivalence meaning in the target language. Second, with regard to Merriam-Webster dictionary (2009), native means belonging to a particular place by birth. Therefore, Ali Panahi translated this item based on its functional equivalence in Iran.

Transference

Transference, in its unaltered form, is the act of moving a word from the source language into the target language. When translating names of people (living or dead) geographic names, titles of plays, movies, books, and other media, names of private and public organizations, street names, and addresses, translator should use the transference approach (Newmark, 1988).

Table 6

Transference

Number	CSIs	Ali Panahi Azar Translation
1	Mary Lennox	مری لَناکم
2	Yorkshire	یورکشایر

Descriptive Equivalent

Descriptive equivalent allows us to appropriately perceive CSIs with a variety of terms and phrases. By employing this strategy, the translator gives his audience some descriptions to aid in understanding the message. According to Nida (1964, p. 237), descriptive counterparts are deliberate attempts to offer suitable replacements for objects, occasions, attributes, and connections for which there is no regular term in the target language. The translator has provided their audience with an explanation of the underlined terms in the target text in these cases. It is evident that the translator uses specific terms to convey the obvious meaning of the source text to the reader.

Table 7

Descriptive Equivalent

		Translation
1	Heather and gorse and broom	و درختچه‌های جارو
2	Rain in torrent	باران به‌شدن می‌بارید

Synonymy

A synonymy is described as a “near TL equivalent to an SL word” by Newmark (1988, p. 84). According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2012), straw is chopped and dried wheat stalks, and crumpet is a small, round, flat cake with tiny holes on the top that is eaten hot with butter. Translator selected the best and “near TL equivalent” for this term in Persian. The reader may understand these Persian equivalents in the same way.

Table 8

Synonymy

Number	CSIs	Ali Panahi Azar Translation
1	Crumpets	کیک
2	Straw	کاه
3	Private Hotel	هتل شخصی

5. Discussion

To accurately translate culture-specific items (CSI), translators of literary texts need to take into account a number of elements. The quality of the CSI translation is determined by the translator's ability to employ suitable methodologies and possess cultural competence, as the meaning of CSI cannot be deduced from its words. The goal of the current study was to

employ Newmark's (1988) translation strategy model to investigate the various translation tactics used in CSI, Secret Garden.

Due to the diversity of languages and cultures, as well as the necessity of social interaction in daily life, translation has shown to be a highly effective tool for knowledge exchange and communication. It would appear that language and culture are intertwined, and that taking both into account while translating is crucial. Cultural differences present one of the hardest

translation challenges for literary works. According to Nida (2000), “differences between cultures may cause more severe complication for the translator than do differences in language structure” (p. 130), cultural differences are just as significant as linguistic differences. Shunnaq et al. (2008) believes that a good translator “has to bear in mind the fact that he should exchange ideas and messages not merely words” (p. 22). Using translation strategies as problem-solving tools to translate frozen patterns of language is effective. To produce a good translation, the translator should be conscious of translation strategies to choose more suitable strategies in their translation.

The findings of the current research study are consistent with those of Daghoughi and Hashemian (2016), in which they looked at the methods employed in literacy novels based on Newmark's Model to translate English CSI into Persian. Translating culturally specific items can present significant challenges for translators, as they must make numerous intellectual decisions about how to improve the items' comprehensibility for the target audience, as well as how to employ the most appropriate style and structure to satisfy their audience and convey the meaning and form of the original cultural item accurately (Maasoum and Davtalab, 2011). The findings of the present study demonstrated that the most effective translation strategies chosen by language Translators are literal translation, functional equivalent. The most and the least used translation strategies by Ali Panahi Azar as the language translator is literal translation.

The results of this study showed that the quality of EFL translation is significantly impacted by the use of proper translation procedures. Thus, we concluded that the greater use of translation strategies would make learners and translators more aware of the implications of challenges in both the understanding and translating CSI, as well as deal with the likely

major obstacles during the translation process. Appropriate strategies are also used to translate CSI, which determines the quality of the CSI translation and results in higher scores in various translation assessments. The study's conclusions suggested that pre-service and even in-service educators should become knowledgeable about how translation methodologies affect translating crime scene interpretation. Using Newmark's (1988) translation strategies to translate CSI can be explained by looking deeply into the nature of the concepts and literature.

6. Conclusion

CSIs are extensively used in every language in all forms of communication. The translation of CSIs is among the trickiest translation-related issues. Since the meaning of CSI cannot be deduced from any one of its component parts, the quality of the translation depends on the strategies used to translate it. The results of the quantitative analysis of the data indicated that literal translation and functional equivalent translation were the translators' most successful approaches to handling the task of translating CSI. The results showed that the translator (Ali Panahi Azar) employed literal translation most frequently and expansion, less frequently, to make the translation more understandable and relatable to the intended audience.

Conflict of Interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper.

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The Strategies Employed in Translation of Idioms from English into Persian: the case of Dickens' *Great Expectations*

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Abstract

The present study aimed at examining the repertoire of strategies employed by Iranian translators in translating English idioms into Persian. To achieve this aim, the study focused on Charles Dickens' novel *Great Expectations*. The strategies proposed by Mona Baker (1992) were the selected framework for the analysis. The results of descriptive statistics helped the researchers answer two research questions with regards to the types and frequencies of the strategies used. The findings showed that the least frequently employed strategy was paraphrasing (4.28%) and the most frequently used one was “using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form” (67.14 %). The findings of the study can be of help to educators in providing a comprehensive map of strategies used by Iranian translators in their translation tasks.

Keywords: Idioms, Translation strategy, Persian translators, *Great Expectations*

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1. Introduction

The mastery of any language includes being familiar with words, phrases, proverbs, metaphors, and idioms. Idioms are usually referred to as the set of words whose meaning cannot be understood simply by knowing each word. Idioms are considered as one of the beauties of every language which spiritualize and colorize that language. They are closely connected to the culture of every society. The great works of art are produced on a daily basis throughout the world and attract the attention of interested people. Translators are at the forefront of addressing this interest. They adopt different strategies in their task of translation. It is of utmost importance to get a clear picture of the repertoire of strategies used by Iranian English literature translators in their task of translation. This will benefit the prospective translators at the beginning of their career as they encounter the complicity of language for the first time especially related to idioms.

As a matter of fact, the studies of this kind will help not only the beginner translators but also the translators of all levels of proficiency. Examining the distribution of strategies in the translation of literary works of art will help young translators in getting familiar with the range of strategies as well as the most frequently and the least frequently used ones. This study aimed at finding out the most and the least frequent strategies employed by Iranian English literature translators in translating the idioms. The two research questions of the current study are the following:

1. What strategies are used in the translation of idioms by Iranian translators according to Mona Baker's framework?
2. What are the most and the least frequent strategies used strategies in the translation of idioms by Iranian translators according to Mona Baker's framework?

2. Review of Literature

According to Oxford dictionary, translation is the rendering of the meaning of a word or text in another language. Larson (1984) also defines an idiom as the strings of words, whose meaning is not inferred by the meaning of the individual words. As one of the strategies delved into types of strategies used in the translation of English idioms, Khosravi and Khatib (2012) focused on the novels "To kill a Mockingbird" by Harper Lee and "From Mice and

Men" by John Steinbeck. They analyzed the book according to the strategies proposed by Mona Baker (1992). The findings of their study indicated that the "translation by paraphrase" was the most frequently used strategy with a percentage of 71.25% and the least frequently used strategy was "using an idiom of similar meaning and form" with a percentage of 2.21%. They concluded that the sufficient mastery of idioms in the target language accompanied by the element of creativity is essential for translators.

In another study by Mohsen and Mozafar (2013), the strategies employed in the translation of English subtitles of two Persian television series "Zero Point Orbit," and "The Tenth Night" were analyzed. Like in the previous study, the most frequently used strategy was "translation by paraphrase" with a percentage of 72 %. The translation of about 5 % of idioms was not correct as the translators translated them incorrectly. The strategy of "using an idiom of similar meaning and form" was absent. According to the authors, translators paraphrase or delete source language idioms instead of using equivalents for them in the target language.

Farahani and Ghasemi (2012) also examined the use of different strategies in the translation of *the Adventures of Pinocchio* according to Mona Baker's framework. In accordance with previous studies, "paraphrase" was the most favorable strategy of translators with 43 percentage. The next frequently used strategy was "using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form" with a percentage of 40. "Translation by omission", and "using an idiom of similar meaning and form" were in the next places in terms of frequencies. It seems that strategies like "using an idiom of similar meaning and form" and even "using an idiom of similar meaning and dissimilar form" are the least favorable strategies among translators as using them requires the allocation of an enormous amount of time and energy not to mention a complete mastery of target language and especially demotivates young translators from the use of these strategies and they may choose them as a last resort. All the evidence confirms the fact that proficiency affects the choice of strategy. Smadi and Alrishan (2015) also highlight this fact by stating that diversity in the strategies of translators is the direct result of their linguistic and pragmatic competence.

In contrast with previous findings, in Hashemian and Arezi's study (2015), the subtitles of two movies "Bring It On," and "Mean Girls" were examined according to Mona Baker's theoretical framework. Unlike the already mentioned studies, "omission" was the most frequently used strategy. "Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form," "using an idiom of similar meaning and form," and "translating by paraphrase" were the next strategies in terms of frequencies. Further examinations may yield useful insights regarding why their findings did not follow the pattern. Maybe studies like Ali and Rushaidi (2017) can be considered as good examples of the studies in answering these kinds of questions. In their study, the researchers presented 60 undergraduate students of a university in Oman with some idioms. Then, the students were asked to select the strategies from a list of strategies and think aloud while doing this. According to their findings, inability in finding a suitable equivalent, misinterpretation of the meaning, and using literal translation which did not convey the same meaning were the main difficulties that the students faced. The findings indicated that they used paraphrasing, literal translation, and omission to address their problems in translating.

In another study, Ahmadi (2017) also analyzed the translation of three novels of "lord of the flies", "the old man and the sea", and "animal farm" into Persian. As it was expected, "translation by paraphrase" was the most frequently used strategy with a percentage of 42.3%. The others from the most frequently used to the least frequently used were "using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form," and "using an idiom of similar meaning and form". It appears that these two strategies always lose the first place to paraphrasing in a competition to achieve the first place.

In two studies that were conducted in Indonesian culture, there was a focus on the strategies employed in translation from Indonesian into English. In previous studies the most frequently used strategy was paraphrasing (Fitri, Faidi, & Hartono, 2019; Habizar, 2016). According to the authors, the frequent use of paraphrase in Indonesian context indicates that English and Indonesian cultures do not share so many commonalities. ILI (2016) also highlights that when the extent of mismatch between the source and target language increases, the task of translation will encounter serious problems. He also indicated that lack

of proficiency contributes to a translator's reluctance to find an idiom and choose an appropriate strategy in its translation. The evidence for the fact is present in the findings of Kovacs (2016) who focused on the strategy use of a group of translator trainees without any previous experience in translation. According to the findings, of many available strategies, they favored the strategy of paraphrase.

In contrast with previous studies which found paraphrasing as the most frequent strategy, Miandoab (2018) analyzed the strategies used in adding English subtitles into Iranian movies. According to his findings, "using the idiom of similar meaning and form" was the most frequently used strategy in preparing English subtitles of Iranian movies. However, in a study by Neshkovska (2018), using the strategy of "similar meaning and form" was absent due to the huge cultural and linguistic differences between source and target language in the study. According to Strakšienė (2009), one of factors that are indicative of the uniqueness of a culture and language is the existence of idioms. As a result, their translation required a complete understanding of the source and target languages. According to Shojaei (2012), challenges that a translator faces in translating idioms and fixed idiomatic expressions are: 1) idioms that have no equivalent in TL; 2) idioms that matches in both source and target language but differs in meaning; 3) idioms that are used in both literal and idiomatic meanings simultaneously; 4) idioms that are used in different contexts.

3. Methodology

3.1. Materials

In this study, the novel *Great expectations* by Charles Dickens was chosen using convenience sampling as the focus of the research study. As there are many translations of this book in Iran, the oldest and the latest translations were selected for the analysis. The first one (T1) was translated by Ebrahim Younesi (Sirvan Azad) and the second one (T2) was translated by Hamid Reza Balouch. In order to achieve inter-rater agreement, the researchers analyzed some introductory pages of the novel and then discussed the cases of inconsistencies with each other. Then, about 70 idiomatic expressions were extracted from the first twelve chapters of the novel. They were analyzed according to Mona Baker's suggested strategies to answer the research questions of the study.

3.2. Data Analysis

The selected data were analyzed using the strategies suggested by Mona Baker. Table 1 represents the list of these strategies accompanied by their definition and their examples. Then, descriptive statistics were used to represent the result of the analysis through tables, figures, and percentages.

Table 1

Mona Baker's Strategies, their Definitions, and their Examples

Strategy	Meaning	Example
Using an idiom of similar meaning and form	This strategy conveys roughly the same meaning as that of the source language idiom and, in addition, consists of equivalent lexical items.	Drove me out of my mind. هوش از سرم به در کرده بود.
Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form	Through this strategy, an idiom or fixed expression in the target language which similar in meaning to that in the source language, but consists of different lexical items is selected as an equivalent in the translation task.	Keep still, you little devil, or I'll cut your throat. صدات را در نیار.
Translation by paraphrase	Through this strategy, idiomatic expressions are translated in the target language because using idiomatic expressions in target language seems inappropriate due to differences in stylistic preferences of source and target language.	. . . as if he were mentally casting me and himself up. انگار داشت توی ذهنش ما دو نفر را می‌دید.
Translation by omission	through this strategy, a translator may decide to omit an idiom in the target text; because it has no close match in the target language, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons.	no cases of this strategy in the analysis.
Compensation	Through this strategy, one may either omit or play down a feature such as idiomaticity at the point where it occurs in the source text and introduce it elsewhere in the target text. This strategy is not restricted to idiomaticity or fixed expressions and may be used to make up for any loss of meaning, emotional force, or stylistic effect which may not be possible to reproduce directly at a given point in the target text.	no cases of this strategy in the analysis.

4. Results

The study aimed at answering two research questions which were related to the type and frequencies of strategies used in the translation of two Iranian translators of the selected novel *Great Expectations*. Table 2 represents the result of the analysis of the first selected translation by Ebrahim Younesi (T1).

Table 2

The Distribution of Strategies Used by the First Translator (T1)

Strategies	Frequency	Percentage
Using an idiom of similar meaning and form	21	30%
Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form	46	65.71%
Translation by paraphrase	3	4.28%
Translation by omission	0	0
Total	70	100%

According to Table 2, the most frequently used strategy by T1 was "using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form" with a percentage of 65.71% and the least frequently used strategy was "translation by paraphrase" with the percentage of 4.28%. The strategy of "translation by omission" was absent in the translation of T1 of the idioms of this novel. The same information has been presented in Figure 1:

Figure 1 shows that the strategy of "using an idiom of similar meaning and form" was the most salient strategy in the collection of strategies (T1). The results of the analysis of the second Translation by T2 of the selected novel is presented in the Table 3:

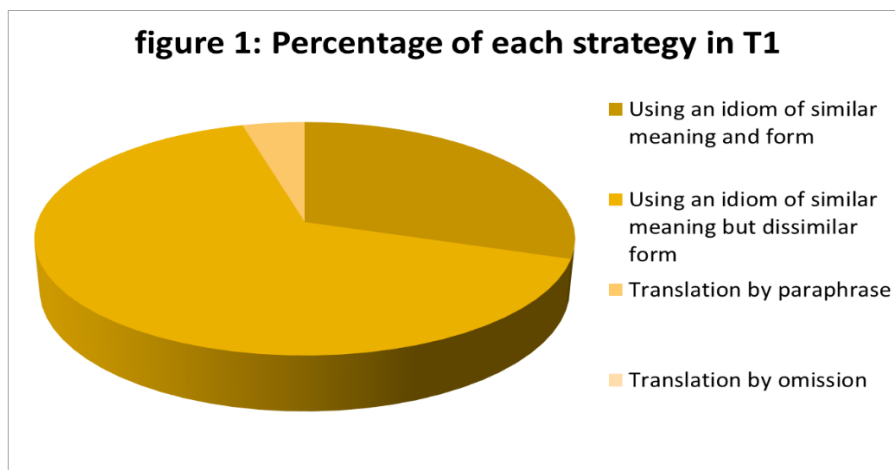


Figure 1

Percentage of each Strategy Used by T1

Table 3

The Distribution of Strategies Used by the Second Translator (T2)

Strategies	Frequency	Percentage
Using an idiom of similar meaning and form	19	27.14%
Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form	48	68.57%
Translation by paraphrase	3	4.28%
Translation by omission	0	0
Total	70	100%

According to Table 3, the most frequently used strategy for T2 was also "using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form" with the percentage of 68.57%. The least frequently used strategy was also "translation by paraphrase" with the percentage of 4.28%. Like the first Translation (T1), in the second Translation (T2), there was no case of "translation by omission". Figure 2 shows the same findings in a graphical format.

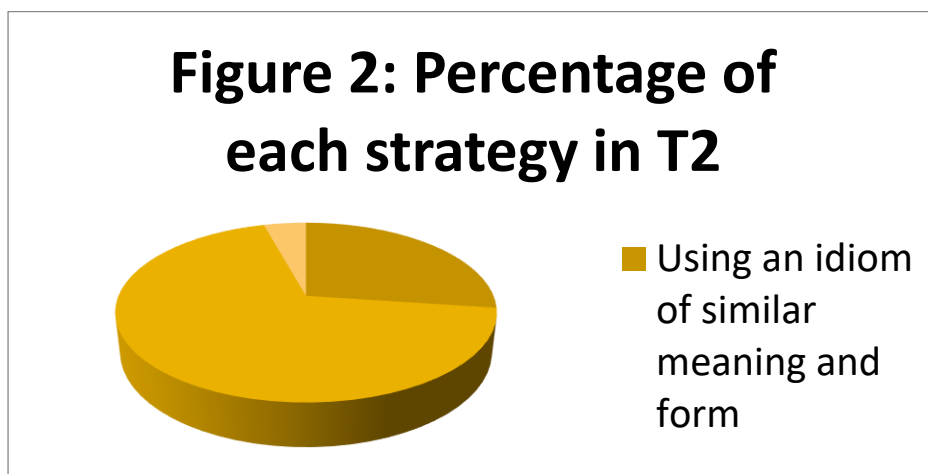


Figure 2

Percentage of each Strategy Used by T2

As Figure 2 indicates, using an idiom of similar meaning and form accounts for a major part of the repertoire of strategies used by T2. In order to obtain a total percentage of the strategies used in both translations, the statistics of both translators were added to each other and the result is presented in Table 4:

Table 4

The Distribution of Strategies Used by both Translators

Strategies	Percentage
Using an idiom of similar meaning and form	28.57%
Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form	67.14%
Translation by paraphrase	4.28%
Translation by omission	0
Total	100%

According to Table 4 and Figure 3, the strategy of “using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form” was rated as the first strategy among other used strategies with a

percentage of 67.14%. The other strategies from the most frequently used to the least frequently used were “using an idiom of similar meaning and form,” and “translation by paraphrase”, respectively. The “translation by omission” was not used at all in both translations.

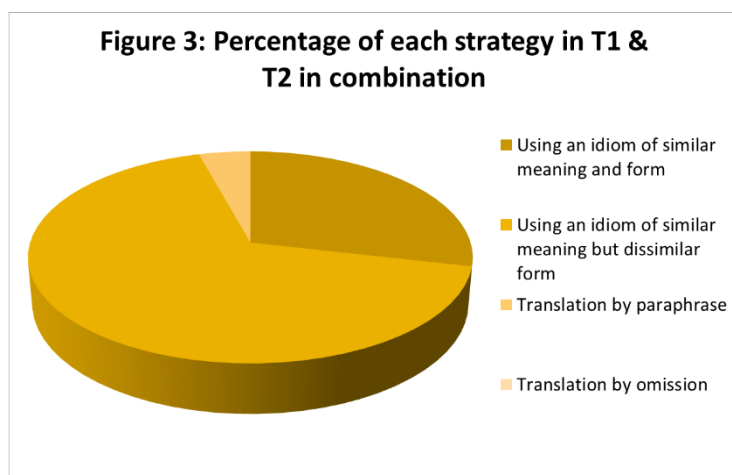


Figure 3

Distribution of Strategies Used by both Translators

5. Discussion

The current study was conducted to examine the type and frequencies of strategies that the translators use in the task of translation. The focus of the study was on the novel “Great Expectations” by Charles Dickens. According to the results, the strategy favored by the two selected translators was "using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form", and the least frequently used strategy by them was "translation by paraphrase". The findings of this study contradict the findings of previous studies (e.g., Farahani & Ghasemi, 2012; Khosravi & Khatib, 2012; Kovacs, 2016; Mohsen & Mozafar, 2013) in that paraphrasing was used as a last resort by translators. On the other hand, this finding is to some extent in accordance with Hashemian and Arezi (2015) and Miandoab’s findings (2018) in that “using similar meaning and form”, and “using similar meaning and dissimilar form” were reported as the most frequently used strategies.

According to the results, it can be said that these translators had an acceptable performance in finding equivalents for the selected idioms. In other words, as the proficiency and experience of translators increase, they tend to keep using strategies like omission and paraphrase at a minimum. In accordance with previous studies, “the translation by omission” was absent which is another evidence of the quality of the translation of the selected translators. The selected translators are well-established and they translate profusely in an Iranian context.

According to Strakšienė (2009), for a task as delicate as translation, a complete understanding of both source and target languages is necessary. As it was mentioned, the least frequently used strategy was “paraphrasing”. Lack of using the strategy of paraphrasing implies that both of the translators dedicated their time and energy to convey their message completely. It can be said that there is a connection between proficiency in translation and the type of strategies used by translators (ILI, 2016; Smadi & Alrishan, 2015). Unfortunately, nowadays, a significant number of the translations are economically oriented and they are conducted in a shorter period of time. That is why translators, especially the young ones, mostly employ “translation by paraphrase” in their translations. They simply benefit from the fact that the Persian language is afforded with many equivalents that can replace almost every English idiom. Unfortunately, this fact, most of the time is overlooked by the community of book readers as they do not have access to the original text and the required time for evaluation.

6. Conclusion

This study investigated the most and the least strategies used in the translation of idioms of the novel “Great Expectations”. The translated idioms were analyzed through the lens of the strategies suggested by Mona Baker. The findings indicated that the most and the least frequently used strategies were respectfully “using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form” with a percentage of 67.14% and “translation by paraphrase” with a percentage of 4.28%. The findings of this study can help differentiate the high-quality translations from those which have been done haphazardly considering the strategies that have been used. It

also indicates that knowledge of the target language is of utmost importance which guarantees the quality of translation.

As the novel selected for the study is one of the famous works of Charles Dickens and, as a result, many publishers have published its translation, reviewing all these translations and selecting the most appropriately translated books for the study were impossible. Thus, the researchers of the current study, focused on the two translations based on convenience sampling. Future studies can expand the scope of this study by including a large number of novels or different translations of the same novel. Researchers can also study the type and frequencies of the used strategies across gender, proficiency or age.

Conflict of Interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper.

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The Study of Suppletion in Persian Inflected Nouns and Verbs

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Abstract

Suppletion is a morphological process which can be found in inflectional system and word formation processes of languages. It refers to the inflected forms of words which do not share a common etymology with the base in other forms of the same word. Suppletion describes the instances where a lexical meaning and a grammatical meaning are represented by a single indivisible form. For example, in English many of the past tense forms of the verbs have suppletive stems, e.g., grow and grew. In fact, their root is different from the base or there is a little similarity to the root. This article aimed at studying the suppletion process in inflected form of nouns and verbs in Persian. Moreover, it dealt with the structure of plural nouns and inflected form of verbs and identified partial and complete suppletion within those structures. The findings showed that suppletion process works in the structure of Persian nouns and verbs. Partial suppletion occurs in some Persian nouns which are made plural by adding "-ān" and "-āt" as well as in broken (mokassar) plurals. It also occurs in inflected forms of the verbs, while total suppletion can be found only in two verb forms. Suppletive forms are considered to be inflected allomorphs of a word. This may have historical and phonological explanations.

Keywords: Partial suppletion, Total suppletion, Morphological structure, Stem

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1.Introduction

Morphological processes including inflection and word formation usually occur by means of particular rules; however, they may sometimes seem to be irregular though they have their own particular reasons. Some linguists such as Bauer (1992) believe that although many rules govern morphology and linguistic patterns, sometimes different forms of a word are quite distinct from each other and they cannot be obtained through general rules. Such forms are called “suppletive forms” (Bauer, 1992, p. 41). In fact, these irregular and unpredictable forms usually occur due to historical and phonological reasons in a language.

Suppletion usually occurs in noun and verb inflections in Persian language and produces inflected forms which are usually partial forms. The grammar seeks to design and apply rules for every linguistic product but suppletive forms cannot be explained by general and predictable rules. Therefore, we should try to find a reason for such inflected forms which usually originate from lexical borrowing from other languages and/or phonological changes. This article looks at the process of suppletion in noun and verb structures in Persian language using descriptive analysis method.

This study makes an attempt to explore the process of suppletion in noun and verb inflections, in the structure of plural nouns and inflected form of verbs in Persian, and identify the partial and total suppletion therein. The research questions are addressed in this study

- 1.How is the suppletion process realized in noun and verb structures?
2. What are the partial and total suppletive forms in noun and verb structures?

We assume that suppletion occurs partially in the inflection of nouns and verbs which are phonologically conditioned and realized and they are sometimes historically accounted. Also, another assumption is that partial (and total) suppletion is observed in the inflection of a great number of plural nouns and past tense forms of the verbs in Persian.

2. Review of literature

In Linguistics and Etymology, suppletion is traditionally understood as the use of one word as the inflected form of another word when the two words are not cognates. For those

learning a language, suppletive forms will be seen as "irregular" or even "highly irregular". The term "suppletion" implies that a gap in the paradigm was filled by a form "supplied" by a different paradigm. Suppletive forms are considered as allomorphs of their words.

Suppletion can be studied synchronically and diachronically. In other words, Synchrony and diachrony have been mixed up, at times, with regard to suppletion. Rudes (1980) is a representative of this tendency. This author distinguishes between genuine and pseudo-suppletion. Genuine suppletion covers forms that are etymologically different, such as *go* and *went*; the present tense forms of the verb "be" in English (*am, is, are*) are examples of pseudo-suppletion since they go back to one and the same Indo-European etymon. This distinction is not widely shared. Mel'čuk (1994, p. 355) rejects it explicitly and a number of scholars follow the author in this respect. Different kinds of suppletion are distinguished depending on the kinds of linguistic signs it affects. Thus, it is customary to distinguish between *affixal* and *stem* suppletion. A case of affixal suppletion is, for example, the plural affix *en* in English *oxen*. It is not motivated by any morphophonological rules of English, unlike other plural allomorphs such as /-z/ or /-s/ as in /bɔiz/ and /ʃɒps/, respectively (Boyé, 2006). A case of stem suppletion is an unpredictable change of stems in a paradigm, as in English *go* for the non-past tenses and *went* for the past tense. Corbett (2000) and Corbett (2007) restrict the term *suppletion* to describe exceptions to morphophonological patterns that can be strictly identified as inflection, that is, those expressing categories without which a word in a given language becomes ungrammatical. For instance, the verbs in English must always be specified for tense. Consequently, the forms *go: went* are suppletive in his view. Other works such as Dressler (1985), Mel'čuk (1994), and Veselinova (2006) allow the term *suppletion* to also cover exceptions to derivational patterns.

Formally, suppletive forms have been described as *strong* and *weak*, as in Dressler (1985). This distinction is introduced to refer to the fact that some forms, such as *am* versus *was*, do not share any phonological materials (strong suppletion) while others do, such as *child: children* (weak suppletion). Since it is not always clear where to set the limit for what counts as weak suppletion, Mel'čuk (1994, p. 367) introduces the criterion of *uniqueness*. The alternation of two paradigmatically related forms counts as suppletive if it is the only one of its kind in the language. Thus, *child/children* is counted as a suppletion in English,

whereas strong verbs such as *run/ran* are not counted since they are part of a pattern, albeit a restricted one.

According to Jensen (1990), inflectional systems frequently exhibit suppletion: two separate allomorphs with identical meaning (and not related by phonological rules) that appear in distinct contexts. One example of this is in the irregular allomorphs of the English plural. In Latin, there are three allomorphs meaning 'first person singular' ([+I, -II -pl] in the feature system developed in stems, as well as affixes, which may illustrate suppletion. The English verb 'go' has the suppletive past tense form of *went*. The French verb *aller* has the suppletive future stem of *ir-* and four suppletive forms in the present indicative are *vais, vas, va,* and *vont*, and the imperative of *va(s)*. The Latin verb *ferō* 'I carry' has the suppletive perfect stem of *tul-* as in *tuli* 'I carried).' These suppletive stems are best represented as separate allomorphs at the stem level.

Suppletion consists of a complete change in the form of a root (i.e., a word) or in the replacement of a root by another morphologically unrelated root with the same component of meaning in different grammatical contents (Richards et al., 1985; Byrne, 1978; Pei, 1966). For example, *good* and *well* change to *better* and *best* in comparative and superlative forms. Similarly, *bad* and *badly* change to *worse* and *worst*. Likewise, *be* changes to *am, are,* and *is* in the present; *am/is* changes to *was* and *are* changes to *were* in the past. This process yields completely irregular forms. Suppletive forms help to fill the gaps in grammatical paradigms of the language (Zapata Becerra, 2000). In defining suppletive allomorphs, Shaqaqi (2011, pp. 64-65) points out that in such allomorphs, there is no phonological similarity between the two allomorphs and in terms of morphology, one allomorph does not derive from another but they have a common meaning and/or grammatical function. That is why they are called as suppletive allomorphs, like "bin" and "did" that entered the Persian language from two distinct etymological origins and she considers them to be total suppletive forms, while she calls "kon" and "kard" as partial suppletive forms.

3. Theoretical Framework

An irregular paradigm is one in which the derived forms of a word cannot be deduced by simple rules from the base form. For example, someone who knows only a little English can deduce that the plural of *girl* is *girls* but cannot deduce that the plural of *man* is *men*.

Language learners are often most aware of irregular verbs, but every part of speech with inflections can be irregular. For most synchronic purposes, first-language acquisition studies, psycholinguistics, language-teaching theory, it suffices to note that these forms are irregular. However, Historical Linguistics seeks to explain how they came to be so and distinguishes different kinds of irregularity according to their origins. Most irregular paradigms (like *man:men*) can be explained by philological developments that affected one form of a word but not another (in this case, Germanic umlaut). In such cases, the historical antecedents of the current forms constituted a regular paradigm. Historical Linguistics uses the term "suppletion" to distinguish irregularities like *person: people* or *cow: cattle* that cannot be explained because the parts of the paradigm have not been evolved out of a single form. Hermann Osthoff coined the term "suppletion" in German in a study of the phenomenon in Indo-European languages.

Suppletion exists in more than 71 languages around the world. These languages are from various language families: Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, Arabic, Romance, etc. For example, in Georgian, the paradigm for the verb "to come" is composed of four different roots (*di-*, *-val-*, *-vid-*, and *-sul-*). Similarly, in Modern Standard Arabic, the verb *jā'* ("come") usually uses the form of *ta'āl* for its imperative, and the plural of *mar'ah* ("woman") is *nisā'*. Nonetheless, some of the more archaic Indo-European languages are particularly known for the existence of suppletion. Ancient Greek, for example, has about twenty verbs with suppletive paradigms and a great number of verbs with three separate roots.

Strictly speaking, suppletion occurs when different *inflections* of a lexeme (i.e., with the same lexical category) have etymologically *unrelated* stems. The term is also used in looser senses, albeit less formally.

The total number of suppletive forms found in 64 languages (main sample) with a particular lexical meaning is given. Any additional meanings included are given in brackets. Thus, 4 instances of *brother* also include one instance of a lexeme meaning younger brother to a man and one instance of a lexeme meaning younger brother.

Suppletion does not seem like a random phenomenon. Instead, we may draw some important conclusions at this point: (1) Suppletion is observed with nouns that refer to humans, often proper or improper kinship terms; (2) The most common lexical meaning

involved in suppletion is *child*; (3) The most common grammatical feature involved in nominal suppletion is number followed by possession, and vocative case, in decreasing order of frequency; (4) Improper kinship terms show a tendency towards number suppletion whereas proper kinship terms may also be involved in possessive suppletion; (5) Inanimate referents are almost always suppletive regarding number and less commonly possession; (6) Suppletion is not a very rare phenomenon as almost half of the examined languages had suppletive nouns; (7) Vocative suppletion is attested in one language of the main sample, namely Tariana, and only affects kinship terms; (8) Improper kinship terms are slightly more common as suppletive nouns than proper kinship terms; (9) Younger siblings are more often suppletive than older; this follows the markedness hierarchy of kinship terms given by Greenberg.

For Corbett (2000), this profile adds up to the claim that such cases do not involve contextual realization, or 'suppletion' but rather, what is involved is verbal number marking which is not sensitive to context. Absent sensitivity to context, verbal number is typically taken to involve a change in the inherent meaning of the verb, or in traditional terminology, a lexical property ... and indeed, the vast majority of scholars who have considered the paradigm take it to involve two distinct verbs. According to her criteria, Veselinova remains rather skeptical that these are true cases of suppletion. By analogy, one should consider the English verbs *murder* and *massacre* side by side to see how extremely similar content can give rise to distinct expectations concerning the number of object participants.

Inflectional suppletion is understood as an extreme irregularity of form within one paradigm while it is impossible to explain the relationship of the forms through a regular morphological operation. It is defined by Greville Corbett on a scale of less or more canonical. According to Melčuk's (2000, p. 512) definition (abbreviated), the language does not operate such rules that would relate the two forms within the paradigm. In his definition, Corbett uses 14 criteria to define suppletion. He covers (unlike Melčuk) merely the intra-paradigmatic relations and refers to "lexeme" and "stem", as "lexeme with more stems is more canonically suppletive than one with fewer".

Typically for IE, the suppletion in verbal paradigms lies in use of distinct PIE roots, although regular sound changes and other minor reasons are the source of suppletion as well. Kölligan 2007, p. 345) describes ten cases of so called “weak suppletion”, which on a synchronic level appear suppletive but are known to have developed from a formerly regular paradigm, which has undergone some phonological changes within the internal development of Greek.

In this paper, I consider only suppletion of stems (not affixes). When examining written records, we need to rely on philologists’ research and decision-making about the two distinct forms belonging to one paradigm. Many defective paradigms are also found among the ancient languages. In these (certain) cases, the fact whether the respective perfect stem matches the semantics of certain present stem and can be considered as belonging to the same paradigm may be a matter of debate.

3.1. Semantic Relations

The term "suppletion" is also used in the looser sense when there is a semantic link between words but not an etymological one; unlike the strict inflectional sense, these may be in different lexical categories, such as noun/verb. English noun/adjective pairs such as father/paternal or cow/bovine are also referred to as collateral adjectives. In this sense of the term, father/fatherly is non-suppletive. *Fatherly* is derived from *father*, while father/paternal is suppletive. Likewise, cow/cowly is non-suppletive, while cow/bovine is suppletive. In these cases, *father/pater-* and *cow/bov-* are cognates via Proto-Indo-European, but 'paternal' and 'bovine' are borrowings into English (via Old French and Latin). The pairs are distantly etymologically related, but the words are not from a single Modern English stem.

3.2. Strong Suppletion

Unlike analogy and contamination, sound change can lead to either a weak or strong suppletion. Meanwhile, another source of strong suppletion, incursion, does not appear to induce weak suppletion (though in principle it could). Synchronically, strong suppletion falls into two basic types, which I call overlapping and non-overlapping. Overlapping suppletion is a situation in which forms of one lexeme also belong to a suppletive relationship with forms of another lexeme. The Ibero- Romance preterit forms of ser ‘to be’ and ir ‘to go’ display this

type of suppletion; in this case the forms in question are in a suppletive relationship with forms in both paradigms, though this is not always the case (in Catalan, e.g., the form *estat* is a regular participle of *estar* ‘to be’ and is also a suppletive participle of another copula (*és*)*ser*). Non-overlapping suppletion does not involve such sharing of forms across lexemes and is by far more widespread; among the numerous examples are the forms of the English verb *to be*.

3.3. Sound Change

With suppletions induced by sound changes, the difference between weak and strong outcomes is essentially one of a degree in that over long periods of time, series of sound changes (it does not appear to matter when it is regular or ‘irregular’) can result in a chain of development from a regular paradigm to a weakly suppletive one and ultimately to a strongly suppletive one. An example of strong suppletion induced by a sound change is found in the English verb *to be*, in which Proto-Indo-European **esmi*, **esti* yielded *am* /æm/, *is* /Èz/.

3.4. Incursion

The main source of strong suppletion in inflectional verbal paradigms, however, is incursion, or the incorporation of forms from one lexeme into another historically separate lexeme. There are three types of paradigms to which this happens: defective, suppletive, and regular. Defective paradigms are paradigms missing an expected element. In these cases, it is perhaps misleading to refer to the incorporation of forms from other lexemes as incursion, since no form is actually being replaced; nevertheless, it captures the similarity to other situations and the contrast with other possible processes, such as analogy. An example of a formerly defective paradigm which has undergone incursion is the non-overlapping case of *to be*, which actually includes forms from two previously separate defective paradigms centered on the PIE roots **es-* ‘be’ (*am*, *is*, *are*) and **bheu-/*bhú-* ‘become’ (*be*, *been*) (*was* and *were* are from a third root **wes-* ‘live, dwell’; see Buck, 1949, pp. 635-636).

In the case of previously suppletive paradigms, incursion tends to change the phonological substance of the allomorphy but leaves the suppletive pattern intact. This happened when the Old English pattern *go~e* Ú *ode* gave way to *go~went*, as well as in verbs meaning GO in various Romance varieties, as will be discussed below. Finally, incursion can

also affect regular paradigms, as in the case of Italian *andare* ‘to go’, which, like most Romance verbs meaning GO, also has reflexes of Lat. *vādere* ‘to wander’; the case of French *aller* ‘to go’ is similar, but here there is also incursion by forms from *īre* ‘to go’ (in the future and conditional). In most Romance languages, the verb meaning *go* displays both weak and strong suppletion resulting from a combination of all of these factors. Before looking at details, let us consider some possible motivations for these developments.

3.5. Weak Suppletion

The term "weak suppletion" is sometimes used in contemporary synchronic morphology in regard to sets of stems (or affixes) whose alternations cannot be accounted for by current phonological rules. For example, stems in the word pair *oblige/obligate* are related by meaning but the stem-final alternation is not related by any synchronic phonological process. This makes the pair appear to be suppletive, except that they are related etymologically. In historical linguistics, "suppletion" is sometimes limited to reference to etymologically unrelated stems. Current usage of the term "weak suppletion" in synchronic morphology is not fixed.

In this study, a basically historical or phonologically conditioned allomorphic approach to suppletion has been considered to account for the irregular inflected forms of some inflected verbs or nouns in Persian. So, synchrony and diachrony have been regarded, at times, to explain the suppletion.

According to Haspelmath and Sims (2011, pp. 176-177), one type of inflection is suppletion. Suppletion is said to take place when the syntax requires a form of a lexeme that is not morphologically predictable. In English, the paradigm for the verb *be* is characterized by suppletion. *Am, are, is, was, were, and be* have completely different phonological shapes, and they are not predictable on the basis of the paradigms of other English verbs. We also find suppletion with pronouns. Compare *I* and *me* or *she* and *her*. Suppletion is most likely to be found in the paradigms of high-frequency words, as seen in French words *aller* ‘to go’ /*vais* ‘go (1sg)’ or *être* ‘to be’/ *suis* ‘am (1sg)’.

We can look at Historical Linguistics for an explanation regarding how suppletive forms arise. The paradigm of the verb ‘to go’ in French, for example, comes from three different Latin sources. The infinitive, *aller*, and the first person and second person plural

forms in the present, *allons* ‘we go’ and *allez* ‘you (pl) go’, come from Latin *ambulāre* ‘to walk, to walk along’. The stem of future and conditional forms, such as *irai* ‘will go (1sg)’, has evolved from the Latin verb *īre* ‘to go’. Finally, forms like *vais* ‘go (1sg)’ or *vont* ‘go (3pl)’ come from Latin *vādere* ‘to go, to walk’. Indeed, the idiosyncrasies of languages today can often be explained by looking at the languages of yesterday.

In certain cases, such as with *catch~caught* or *think~thought* and other verbs like them in English, it is most convenient to speak of partial suppletion. In these cases, the initial phoneme or phonemes of the word remain the same, but there is both internal change and change to the end of the word (loss of segments and addition of a past tense indicator [t]). Thus, for this type of suppletion to be accounted, phonological context should be called for.

This argument has recently been countered by Haugen (2015) who, in the spirit of Kiparsky’s (2006) amphichronic programme for linguistics, points to the history of the forms showing ‘weak suppletion’ as the reason behind their similarity. Still, the amphichronic argument as used by Haugen is not easily extendable to those stem-specific alternations which are robust enough to be carried over to new forms e.g., English ‘ablaut’ in *sn/ɪɔ/k* - *sn/ɹ/ck* or Polish o-raising in *Sk/o/d+a* - *Sk/ɔ/d* ‘Skoda (car), nom, sg. - gen. pl’.

4. Data Analysis

4.1. Suppletion in Noun Structure

The main part of each word is its theme [base]. It includes specific meaning of the word and other parts are attached to it and it expresses the type of noun in terms of number, gender, and case (Khanlari, 1987). Number is an inflectional category which represents the contrast between countable quantities *likemardān* (men) or *ketābhā* (books). Every language has a particular system to express such secondary meanings which applies equally to all themes. For example, "*ān*" and "*hā*" are added to nouns to make them plural. "*ān*" is added to animate nouns, whether men, plants, animals, and even body members, such as *zanān* (women), *deraxtān* (trees), *janevarān* (animals), *dastān* (hands), and *-hāis* added to inanimate nouns such as *mizhā* (desks), *kifhā* (bags).

In addition, there are some Persian nouns that end in "e". These words can be traced back to Old Persian where they ended in "-ag"; such as "*mive*" (fruit) which was "*mivag*" in

its old form. When "ān" is added to these nouns to make them plural, that old "-ag" appears again. For example:

Parande → *parandag* → *parandegān* (birds)

Khazande → *khazandag* → *khazandegān* (reptiles)

What is so called as the change of the "word structure" is the change that is made in the base of the word as well as its morphological parts. There are some Persian words whose final "e" has changed to "g" (see Table 1).

Table 1

Some Examples of Suppletion in Noun Structure

noun	Plural noun following the suppletion process
setāre	Setāregān
geravide	geravidegān
farzāne	farzanegān
morde	mordegān
bande	bandegān

These changes in the above words are due to historical as well as phonological reasons. Suppletion in these words is not productive and it is considered as partial suppletion as they ended in "ig" or "ag" in Middle Persian, but their final consonant was omitted and only the vowel "a" was kept which was gradually replaced by the vowel "e"; the plural form of these words end in "-gān" today (Khanlari, 1987, pp. 92-93). After all, if this vowel change is to be rule-governed, it must apply to all words ending in "e". But we know that this rule cannot be applied to all words ending in "e" like *nāmeḥ* /*name-hā*.

Suppletion can also be found in Persian words ending in vowels when they are to be made plural using "ān". In words such as "*bānu*, *zānu*, *āhu*" that end in a vowel and include a morphological stem such as *bānov*, *zānov*, *āhov*: stems that belong to the same lexeme (as a lexeme may have different stems), we can also find partial suppletion (Table 2).

Table 2

Some Examples of Partial Suppletion

Single form of the word	Plural form of the word
bānu	bānovān
zānu	zānovān
āhu	?āhovān
kandu	kandovān

bānu: + -ān → bānovān

zānu: + -ān → zānovān

?āhu: + -ān → ?āhovān

kandu: + -ān → kandovān

To avoid hiatus in the above plural words resulting from appearance of two consecutive vowels, stems are produced where a consonant is inserted between vowels; therefore, they end in "v" sound to avoid hiatus: bane, kandov, ... which are partial suppletive forms. Partial suppletion can also be found in plural nouns ending in "āt", the single forms of which are not common in Persian or they are less frequently used. The plural forms of such words are currently used in Persian and can be explained synchronically through partial suppletion. When words such as "adab, doxa, ?amal, laban, māl, ... are made plural by adding "āt", partial suppletion occurs when morphological stems adabiy, dokhaniy, ?amaliy, labaniy, maliyā are produced during the pluralization process. Some of these words may have lost their plural meaning in Persian. See Table 3:

Table 3

Partial Suppletion in Plural Nouns

Single form	Common plural form
doxān	doxaniyāt
'amal	?amaliyāt
laban	labaniyāt
adab	adabiyāt

māl	maliyāt
-----	---------

doxān + /āt/ → doxāniyāt

amal + /āt/ → 'amaliyāt

laban + /āt/ → labaniyāt

adab + /āt/ → adabiyāt

mal + /āt/ → maliyāt

According to Bybee (1985), split forms that are morphologically related can result in suppletive forms. Such a split can also be found in broken plural forms borrowed from Arabic to Persian. Every language borrows some words from foreign languages according to its needs. Thousands of Arabic words and terms including broken plurals have gradually entered Persian language for 14 centuries. All broken plurals can be considered as suppletive forms of their single counterparts, even if their regular forms are commonly used as well. For example, in the first hundred pages of the commentary by Shanqiti, the word "āyatha" has been used 30 times and "ayāt" has been used 69 times when interpreting Quranic verses. This frequency of the broken plural form compared with its regular form can imply that the singular form (āyah) and the broken plural form (ayāt) are suppletive forms where we can see partial suppletion in their broken plural.

Table 4

Partial Suppletion in Broken Plural Nouns

Noun	Noun after applying suppletion	Noun	Noun after applying suppletion	Noun	Noun after applying suppletion
adib	odabā	omq	A?māq	ellat	elal
osture	asātir	daftar	dafāter	haqiqat	haqāyeq
āthar	āthār	elm	'ulum	khabar	akhbār

4.2. Suppletion in Verb Structure

An important issue in Persian morphology is related to irregular verbs. Many present tense roots of Persian verbs have various allomorphs. For example, if the present root/ stem of a verb ends in "-o", when making imperative forms, this "-o" sound changes to "-av" when present tense verb forms are produced. Such changes are called as *sama'ee* in Persian and these forms are included in irregular forms (Safavi, 2013, p. 157). See Table 5:

Table 5

Suppletion in Verb Structure

	past tense of verb	present stem of verb (Partial suppletion)	
1	raft	ro	rav
2	shenid	sheno	shenav
3	javid	jo	jav

Persian verbs, except in few cases, share a common root in all their paradigms (inflected forms). Of course, two types of stems - present and past -are active in Persian morphological system and they usually share a common root. However, one of the Persian verbs that has two distinct roots and each group of its paradigms is derived from a different root is "*didan*". One of these roots is "*di-*" which can be found in the words used in Darius inscription at Naqsh-e Rostam:

Paikaramdidiy (look at this body)

Another root of the verb which can be found in the words used in Darius's Bistuninscription is "*vaina-*":

- Vainahy (you see)

-avaina (he saw)

In Middle Persian and Dari Persian languages, the present stem of the verb is derived from the root "*vin*" and as a rule, the initial consonant "v" changes to "b", but the past stem of the verb is derived from the root "*di*". It is also the same with the verb "*āmadan*" which is derived from two distinct roots: the infinitive form, past paradigms, and many nominal

derivations of this verb come from the root "gam-". The Persian word "gām" is derived from this root. However, the present stem of this verb is derived from the root "ay, i" which carries the meaning of movement.

Another example of such verbs is "budan" which has also two roots. One is "bav-" which means *become* and *to be* and produces past paradigms. Another one is "ah, h" from which the morphemes "am, i, ast" are derived and are used in present paradigms "hastam, hasti, hast ..." (Khanlari, 1987, pp. 91-93).

As it has been observed, the past and present tense roots were related to each other in Old Persian, but such relations cannot be recognized today. Thus, the inflected forms of a word are related in the paradigmatic axis and are retained in memory (Karsters, 1994, p. 188). O'Grady (2008) calls this diversity of verbs, where a contrast between two tenses and substitution of one root with another is studied, as suppletion. For example, he believes that using "went" as the past form of "go" and "was or were" as the past forms of "be" is a sort of inflectional contrast (O'Grady, 2008, p. 189).

In Persian, verbs "didan, budan", where the present and past tense roots are derived from quite different roots, are considered as total suppletion. See Table 6:

Table 6
Some Examples of Total Suppletion

Word form before applying suppletion	Word form after applying suppletion
did	bin
bud	hast

But in a large number of Persian verbs, partial suppletion occurs. In one class of verbs, verb stems that end in [z] sound, like *godaz, riz, afruz, ...* partial suppletion is found in their past stems; that is to say, when the present tense of a verb ends in the phoneme /z/, in order to change it into past tense where it appears next to past tense maker morpheme /t/, it is changed into /x/-using partial suppletion. In other words, the suppletive verb stems *godāx, rix, and afrux* are produced through the process of inflection:

$$/z/ + -/t/ \rightarrow /x t/$$

godāz → godāxt

riz → rixt

afruz → afruxt

In other Persian verbs, we also find more phonological changes at the end of present tense stem when they appear next to a past tense maker morpheme and produce partial suppletive verb stems. See Table 7:

Table 7

Some Examples of Partial Suppletive Verb Stems

ju	jos -t
pendar	pendash -t
chin	chi -d
tavan	tavanes-t

In the process of inflection, we can find verbal base allomorphs which are formed through suppletion of inflectional forms. These forms which are found in Persian inflected verbs and sometimes nouns through inflectional processes are stems that belong to a content word-noun or verb- and are considered to be partial suppletive forms. Another type of suppletion process which can be found in verbs is related to their negative verb forms. In some cases, prefix "na-" is inserted when producing negative form of a verb and phonological changes occur. So, a new form is produced by applying suppletion. For example, when "na-" is added to "alud" (*na + alud*), *nayalud* is produced as the result of suppletion. The suppletion used in this case is partial affix suppletion which is represented as "-nay".

na + ?ālud	→	nayālu:d
na + ?āsud	→	nayāsu:d

The analysis of the data shows that two kinds of non-past stems are derived from the infinitive in SD: (a) regular non-past stems undergoing no phonetic modifications; (b) irregular non-past stems which include two sub-classes: (1) weak suppletive stems, i.e., the stems with vowel and/or consonant modifications, and (2) strong suppletive stems, i.e., the stems with a total phonetic modification.

1- Weak suppletive stems with vowel modification: Some of the non-past verb stems involve vowel modification. In these cases, the infinitive has a short vowel but the derived stem takes a long vowel, instead, as in the examples below:

Infinitive **non- past stem**

/v/ → /v̄/

/Parid/ to jump → / pārid/

/resid/ to arrive → /rēs/

/xazid/ to creep → /xāz/

2- Weak suppletive stems with vowel and/or consonant modification:

Infinitive **non-past stem**

/u/ → /ū/

/pušid / to wear → /pūš/

/suxt/ to burn → /sūz/

/duxt/ to sew → /dūz/

5. Conclusion

Studying the process of suppletion in Persian noun and verb structures revealed that suppletion in word structure refers to a change that occurs in both the root and sometimes, in affixes. In Persian, the plural form of some nouns is considered as partial suppletion like *banov-ān*, *parande-g-ān*. As a result, this type of suppletion is considered as phonologically

conditioned and sometimes historical. Another form of suppletion can be found in broken plural structure.

All broken plurals can be regarded as their singular suppletive forms, though the regular form is also common. The issue of suppletion is found in Persian verb structures as well. This study showed that for a few Persian verbs such as "*didan, budan*", which have quite distinct present and past tense roots, the total suppletive form occurs, while other verbs go under partial suppletion. To sum up, suppletion occurs in Persian noun and verb inflectional paradigms. This type of suppletion is typically partial.

Conflict of Interest

The author(s) certify/certifies that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in the present research paper.

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