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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ANXIETY AND READING COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study investigated the relationship between anxiety and reading comprehension strategies employed by English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. The research was carried out with a group of 60 male and female students studying English at intermediate level. In this study a 33-item likert-style Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, a Survey of Reading Strategies, and reading Comprehension tests adopted from TOEFL PBT were completed by the students. Pearson Product correlation was used for analyzing the data. Think-Aloud was elicited. The results showed no statistically significant relationship between the strategies employed by high and low anxiety learners. But there was a significant relationship between learners' reading comprehension scores and their level of anxiety. These results show that teachers need to pay a thorough attention to high anxiety learners and also need to employ different techniques in their classes for both groups while they are teaching reading comprehension strategies' techniques in their classes.

KEYWORDS: anxiety, foreign language anxiety, reading strategies, EFL Learners, high anxiety learners, low anxiety learners

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW
Brown (1973), Chastain (1975), and Scovel (1978) were among the earliest researchers to recognize the important and distinct role that anxiety played among the many variables that affect foreign language learning. One of the most widely studied concepts in learning situations is the notion of anxiety. Speilberger (1983) believes anxiety is, the personal perception of worry, doubt, suspicion and uneasiness linked with a sharpening of the autonomic nervous system. Scovel (1978) presented a definition of anxiety based on the work in psychology by Hilgard, Atkinson, and Atkinson (1971). He specified anxiety as a feeling condition of uneasiness, an obscure doubt linked to an entity.

Horwitz et al. (1986) also described anxiety as an unrealistic feeling of worry, uneasiness, doubt and obscurity connected with triggering the nervous system. Trait anxiety is depicted by Spielberger as the probability of a person becoming nervous in any circumstances and it is a relatively stable emotional state that an individual experiences more frequently or more intensely than most people do.

State anxiety is defined as an unpleasant emotional condition or transient phase, initiated by a person's nervous system, such as the apprehension experienced by learners before taking an examination (Spielberger, 1983). In other words, state anxiety is apprehension that is experienced at a particular time.Situation-specific anxiety refers to anxiety experienced in a specific types of situation. According to McIntyre and Gardener (1991b), it can be considered as trait anxiety, which is limited to specific context. The situation-specific anxiety approach examines the specific form of anxiety in a well-defined situation for example, during test taking, solving a particular physics problem or taking part in a foreign language course or class.

Reading strategies

Reading strategies are of interest for what they reveal about the way readers manage their interaction with written text and how these strategies are related to text comprehension. Research in second language reading proposes that learners use a variety of strategies to assist them with the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information (Rigney, 1978).

According to Oxford and Crookall, Strategies are defined as learning skills, performances, deciphering or study skillfulness which make learning more effective and efficient. In relation to second language learning, a comparison can be made between strategies that make learning more effective, versus those that enhance comprehension. The prior are generally referred to as learning strategies in the second language literature. Comprehension or reading strategies on the other hand, indicate how readers receive of a task, how they make sense of what they read, and what to do when they don't comprehend the reading materials. In short, such strategies are processes used by the learner to enhance reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures.

Since early seventies, for the most part, research in this domain has focused on teaching second language students to use a variety of language strategies in order to read better. These strategies consists of a whole range of strategies including skimming and scanning, contextualization, meaningful reading, activating background knowledge, schematization, note taking, summarizing, paraphrasing, predicting, analyzing, using context clues creating mental images of the text, semantic mapping, using keywords, employing word associations, placing new words into context, and guessing while reading, or using reference materials such as dictionaries to mention just a few.

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The aims of the study are to investigate the reading comprehension strategies that are employed by low anxiety EFL learners and high anxiety EFL learners as well as investigating the relationship between EFL reading comprehension scores and their level of anxiety and the general strategies employed by EFL learners hence this study attempts to answer the three following questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant relationship between FL anxiety and reading strategies employed by EFL learners?
2. Is there any statistically significant relationship between FL anxiety and EFL learners' reading comprehension scores?
3. What general strategies are employed among EFL learners while answering reading comprehension questions?

METHODOLOGY

For estimating the internal consistency of the FLCAS questionnaire, the researcher administered the questionnaire to a group of 15 students randomly selected from the original population of the EFL learners. The Cranach's Alpha was calculated for the FLCAS and it showed an internal consistency of .80 which is usually a reliable index.

Participants

The participants were sampled from the same English proficiency level. They were 60 intermediate students of English. All the students were native speakers of Persian. They were both male and female students ranging in age from 18 to 47. All four classes were studying at intermediate levels and the instructor of all those classes was the researcher himself. The participants took part in the study after the researcher clarified the aim of the study. The participants were then selected mainly based on their availability and they were asked to participate in the study willingly those who had no intention to participate in the study were free to leave the class during the testing procedure. The research was conducted in two sessions the first session the participants answered the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and Survey of Reading Strategies, on the second session the participants were asked to read three reading comprehension passages and then answer twenty multiple choice item tests these three passages were adopted from TOEFL PBT.

Instruments

The first instrument was FLCAS which was designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and consists of 33 items measuring LA related to foreign language (FL) learning. Participants responded to a 5-point Likert scale for each item with 1,2,3,4, and 5 signifying strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree ,and strongly disagree respectively.

The second instrument was the Survey of Reading Strategies designed by KouiderMokhtari and Ravi Sheory, 2002. which consists of 30 items collecting information about the various strategies students use when reading school-related academic materials in English. Participants responded to a 5-point Likert scale items

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The third instrument was three reading comprehension passages adopted from TOEFL PBT followed by twenty multiple choice item tests. The last instrument, think-aloud protocols were elicited from learners.

Data collection

The data for this study were collected in 2 sessions during winter term of 2016 in four intermediate classes at Maad Higher Education institute ,the participants were the students of the researcher during winter term 60 students participated in this study.

At the beginning of the study the participants were asked to answer two questionnaire forms, the first questionnaire was Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scales (FLCAS) and the second one was Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS).

The second phase the researcher gave the participants three reading comprehension texts which were followed by twenty multiple-choice item tests in which the participants were asked to read the text and answer the multiple-choice items

The last phase was think-aloud protocol elicitation, this phase happened immediately after students finished answering the multiple-choice items.

Data Analysis

In order to analyze the data, SPSS software (version 16) was used to obtain descriptive and inferential statistics. First the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) questionnaire was rated. For this mean a value of 1 to 5 was assigned to each participent, 1 indicate the highest anxiety learner and 5 indicate the lowest anxiety learner. Then the second questionnaire was rated by the researcher and the answers were categorized into three subscales. The first was Global Reading Strategies (GLOB) the second was Problem Solving Strategies (PROB) and the third was Support Reading Strategies (SUP)

The third phase was to collect participant's reading comprehension scores for this phase the researcher rated each participant's paper and assigned a(0 to 20) score for each participant. The last phase was to elicit the employed strategies by EFL learners for this phase the researcher had to read each participant's paper and jot down the techniques which was employed by each of them the findings are presented in table 4.9

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Quantitative results

The results of the analyses are now presented for each research question in turn.

1. Is there any statistically significant relationship between FL anxiety and reading strategies employed by EFL learners?

Considering the first research question table 1. Indicates descriptive statistics for FLCAS and SORS scores.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of FLCAS and SORS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
FLCAS	2.9340	.88900	60
SORS	1.8333	.66808	60

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of FLCAS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
FLCAS	60	1.56	4.50	2.9340	.88900
Valid N	60				

According to table 2 learners 'mean score in the FLCAS is 2.93 the standard deviation is .88. in order to classify learners into high and low anxiety learners, those whose scores were one SD above the mean were considered as low anxiety learners and those whose scores were one SD below the mean were considered as high anxiety learners. Then the non-parametric technique was run to see any possible relationship between reading comprehension strategies which are employed by the low anxiety learners and high anxiety learners. Tables.3 and.4 are the results of Chi-square test.

Table 3: Case processing summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
SORS* Anxiety	37	61.7%	23	38.3%	60	100%

According to table 3, 23 students were discarded from the study because, their scores fell within + 1 and -1 SDs. In other words, they were neither classified as high nor as low students.

The researcher run Pearson Product Moment Correlation and the results is shown in the following chart.

Table 4: Pearson Correlations

FLCAS		FLCAS	SORS
Pearson Correlation		1	-.151
Sig.(2- tailed)			.249
N		60	60
SORS	Pearson Correlation	-.151	1
Sig.(2-tailed)		.249	
N		60	60

Nonparametric Correlation

Table 5: Spearman Correlations

		FLCAS	SORS
Spearman's rho	FLCAS Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.142
	Sig.(2-tailed)		.280
	N	60	60
	SORS Correlation Coefficient	-.142	1.000
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.280	
	N	60	60

According to table 5 r=.-15 and **p**=.25 and according to the second table, table 6 **r=.-14** and **p= .28**

The value of r which is .-14 is so small that we can answer the first question of the research and say No statistically significant relationship was found between learners anxiety and reading strategies employed by learners.

2. Is there any statistically significant relationship between FL anxiety and EFL learners' reading comprehension scores?

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
REDING	14.8167	1.73197	60
FLCAS	2.9340	.88900	60

Table 7: Pearson Correlation between Reading and Anxiety

		READING	FLCAS
READING	Pearson Correlation	1	**.-677**
	Sig.(2-tailed)		.000
	N		60
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation	**-.677**	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	
	N	60	60

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

According to table 7 **r= .-677** therefore a statistically significant negative relationship was found between learners 'score and their FL anxiety level, in other words, the lower learning anxiety, the higher scores they obtained in the reading comprehension

Qualitative results

4. What general strategies are employed among EFL learners while answering reading comprehension questions?

8: Designed table adopted from think aloud-technique

Major trends found	Frequency
1. First reading the text then answering to the questions	26
2.Guessing new words	13
3.Referring back to the text and again reading the text	11
4. Reading the text and then translate it into Persian	9
5.Guessing new words through the context(contextualization)	7
5.First reading the questions then coming back to the text	7
6. Finding the key words in the text and highlighting them	6
7. thinking and analysing(adopting the choices with the text)	4
8. Guessing the answer through the choices	3
9.Creating a whole image of the idea	2

Discussion

In order to answer the first research question FLCAS and SORS were applied to the participants and the results were analyzed with SPSS version (16) to see whether there is any relationship between FLCAS and Reading strategies employed by FL learners. For this Pearson Product Moment Correlation was applied and because **r=.15** and **p= .25** there was a very small correlation between the FLCAS and SORS the researcher came to this conclusion that no statistically significant relationship was found between learner's anxiety and reading strategies employed by the learners .These findings indicate that high anxiety FL learners and low anxiety FL learners employ the same technique this is very interesting because it is contrary to the common beliefs of teachers therefore we as teachers can come to this conclusion that our low and high anxiety learners employ the same technique therefore in this particular case we need to search the root of the problem in somewhere else to find out why low anxiety learners perform better in their reading comprehension tests while their friends who are high anxiety learners perform poorer than them despite the fact that they use the same technique during answering to reading comprehension questions.

In order to answer the second research question to find out if there is a relationship between FL anxiety and EFL learner's reading comprehension scores Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run, this time a negative significance **r=** -.677 was found which shows that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between learner's scores and their FL anxiety level, in other words, the lower learning anxiety, the higher scores they obtained in the reading comprehension test now that there is a substantial significance between these two it is safe to say that low anxiety learners outperformed high anxiety learners at least in their reading comprehension scores, therefore the need for a meticulous research on behalf of the teachers is necessary to find out the sources of anxiety among their students in order to find a way to solve this problem.

The last phases of the research was think aloud protocol, since this technique does not need any special instrument and since students are free to verbalize whatever is in their minds while doing a specific task it is a reliable measure for any studies. The results are shown in table 8 the results are interesting because most participants said they first read the texts then they answered the

questions and the minority of them have created the whole idea of the meaning in their mind the other techniques are employed are shown in detail in table 8.This will open new ways for teachers and will provide them with new tenets about the new ways students analyze the reading comprehension questions and will help teachers apply new methods while teaching their students how to answer reading comprehension questions.

CONCLUSION

Classroom implications and suggestions

The aforementioned findings and discussion have pedagogical implications for language learning as well as language teachers. Furthermore, it directs teacher's attention to some important issues that need to be taken into consideration when facing with low and high anxiety learners and when teaching reading comprehension strategies techniques. As far as pedagogical implications are concerned, what have been found in the results concerns the debilitative effects of anxiety in the classroom students face and its relationship with the domain of reading strategies employed by them while answering reading comprehension tests. Teachers and practitioners should bear in mind this fact that their students have come from different walks of life and might have different anxiety and emotional feelings therefore, it is of great importance that teachers understand their students' needs and be able to determine each and every student's anxiety. Brown(1994) maintains that instructors need to "establish interpersonal relationship" with their students(P.201).A good teacher is a good psychologist he should have a warm and friendly relationship with students only in this circumstances he/she is able to reduce the debilitative anxiety experienced by students and value the students effort in successful interaction in classroom. Based on the findings of this research the researcher suggests some guidelines for teaching strategies to students.

1. Teachers must care about the process involved in reading and studying, and must be ready to allocate instructional time to them through direct strategy- instruction and modeling.
2. Teachers must do task analysis of strategies to be taught. In other words, teachers must guess how a certain strategy is best applied and in what context and in what category (low anxiety learner or high anxiety learner). Teachers can monitor low anxiety as well as high anxiety learners as they read in order to determine both groups' strengths and weaknesses in terms of strategy use, which in turn will help in providing effective and appropriate strategy instruction.
3. Teachers must present strategies as applicable to texts and tasks in more than one content domain so that strategies can be applied in a variety of reading situations and contexts (because the ultimate aim of teaching reading is to make students able to read whatever they want out of classroom context while they are in real situations)
4. Teachers must teach strategies over an entire academic year, not just in single lesson or unit allowing strategic instruction to permeate the curriculum.
5. Teachers must provide students with opportunities to practice strategies they have been taught e.g. by taking reading comprehension tests every other sessions and by encouraging students to try to apply the learned strategies while answering to the questions this will help students to fully learn the taught strategies.

6. Teachers must even be prepared to let both group, low and high anxiety EFL learners to teach each other about reading strategies they have employed.

Last but not least, the only way classrooms will become a center for using strategies by students is to understand their instructional needs, teachers should pay a thorough attention to both cognitive and affective domain of the learners and try to enhance learners 'cooperative learning atmosphere in order to reduce the affective factors of learning and let both high and low anxiety learners learn new method and techniques from each other and to teach them how to integrate these strategies with extensive reading comprehension texts and tests. In essence, not being able to teach students strategies they have to employ and those strategies they are not supposed to employ is to fail students, to neglect to show them ways of teaching strategies and not being an effective teacher in teaching strategies used in answering reading comprehension tests.

Limitations of the study

This study was conducted in an EFL environment there is a possibility that the very same study have a different result in an ESL environment moreover, it is important to mention that the study was conducted among males and females if the study was conducted seperately among males or females there would be a slight difference in the data analysis as well as data results. Lastly, the students were chosen from one institute which was located at uptown the same study at other parts of the city might have a different result.

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A STUDY ON TWO PERSIAN TRANSLATIONS OF ERVAND ABRAHAMIAN'S "IRAN BETWEEN TWO REVOLUTIONS" BASED ON LEFEVERE'S MANIPULATION APPROACH AND THE SKOPOS OF THE TRANSLATORS

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ABSTRACT
The present study was an investigation of the two translations of Ervand Abrahamian's "Iran between two revolutions" by Kazim Firuzmand (1998) and Ahmad Golmohammadi (1998). Lefevere's (2004b) manipulation theory and skopos theory of Vermeer and Reiss (1984) were two used for the analysis to see which translator has manipulated the source text and what was the skopos of the translator. The study was a descriptive and qualitative analysis in which 20 paragraphs from the original book and their corresponding translations were selected and analyzed in terms of the stated methods. Result of the study showed that from among 40 items there was 85% manipulation in Firouzmand's translation, while in Golmohammadi's there was 65%. Accordingly Firouzmand used more manipulation strategy than Golmohammadi. Also, the ideology of the translator or patronage in Golmohammadi's was less dominant than that of Firouzmand. Perhaps the acceptability of Golmohammadi's translation among readers was due to lack of manipulation, and no obedience to a specific patronage. As a result Golmohammadi wanted to be faithful to the original text as he pointed to it during interview in which the researcher had asked some questions of relating his translation.

KEYTERMS: *manipulation, skopos theory, addition, omission, explanatory note, rewriting*

INTRODUCTION
Translation has been mainly concerned with questions, such as translatability, faithfulness, accuracy, and equivalence. Even though the questions mentioned above have an enormous importance within the boundaries of the field, the newly emerging discipline ought to have embraced the other aspects of translation which had been disregarded before. In spite of these positive aspects in the development of cultures; translations have generally been used to manipulate the literary fame of a foreign author for the sake of the dominant ideological or poet logical currents of a particular culture. This is more controversial in the case of historical texts that belong to one society and culture in a specific period of the time that are expected to be

translated intact than manipulated by the translators or other agents including reviewers and publications. The book "Iran between two revolutions" by Ervand Abrahamian is the concern of this study which is translated twice. First, translated by Kazem Firuzmand, Hossain Shamsavari and Mohsen Modirshanechi (1998), second, translated by Ahmad Golmohammadi and Mohammad Ibrahim Fatahi (1998). The former has been published 18 times with 1800 versions per year from 1998 to 2015 but the latter has been published 24 times with 5000 versions per year from 1998 to 2013, in other words, Golmohammadi's translation has attracted more readers than that of Firuzmand and received the prize of the best book in 26th year's book festival in 2009. Accordingly, the present research intends to clarify the reasons lying behind this gap by reasoning relying on theoretical strategies in translation and application of such strategies in the present analyzed translations by examining the trace of manipulation (using Lefeverse's Manipulation Theory) and to detect the skopos (Vermeer, 1989/2000) of the translation.

LITRATURE REVIEW

There are a lot of perspectives toward translation that are more or less similar. The concept of manipulation is one of these terms. According to Longman dictionary, "manipulation means to make someone think and behave exactly as you want them to, by skillfully deceiving or influencing them" (Longman online dictionary, retrieved january10, 2013). Van Dijk believes that manipulation is a communicative and interpersonal act through which an individual controls others behavior usually against their will or their interests (Van Dijk, 2006, p.120).

Katan (1999) thinks that manipulation is part and parcel of a translation. He begins the argument by quoting the Collins English Dictionary (1991) where the word to manipulate is defined as follows:

- To handle or use, especially with some skill;
- To negotiate, control, or influence (something or someone) cleverly, skillfully, or deviously.

He believes that "the very act of translating involves skillful manipulation" (Katan, 1999, p.140), Lefevere's (2004)manipulation model consists of four ways of interfering in the text:

1. Addition: "translators would on occasion add some extra information in their translations to present the source text or the image of the source text to the target readers" (Lefevere, 2004b, p.9).
2. Omission: "translators omit passages, expressions or words of the source texts under certain constraints which include ideology, poetics and patronage" (Lefevere, 2004b, p.9).
3. Explanatory Note: Some information contained in the target language texts, which is different from footnote (Lefevere, 2004b, p.50).
4. Rewriting: rewriting "projects the image of an author and/or a (series of) work(s) in another culture, lifting that author and/or those works beyond the boundaries of their culture of origin" (Lefevere, 2004b, p.9).

Manipulations of translations is ideologically driven, so that application of each strategy may serve a specific purpose. According to Marx, ideology is the system of the ideas and

representations which dominate the mind of a man or a social group. Later on French philosopher Louis Althusser used "ideology" to refer to a representation of the imaginary relationship of individuals to their real conditions of existence. From the above definitions, it is clear that ideology is closely related to politics, power and history, etc. The "ideology" concerning translation studies is based on such definitions (Shuping, 2013).

There are a group of agents interfering in translation that are called partonages. According to Lefevere (2004a, p. 15), patronage refers to "something like the powers (persons, institutions) that can further or hinder the reading, writing, and rewriting of literature". Patronage is usually more interested in the ideology of literature than in its poetics. Power, Lefevere reminds us, is to be understood in the pervasive foucaultian sense.

Patronage can be exerted by individuals, groups, institutions, a social class, a political party, publishers, the media, both newspapers and magazines and larger television corporations. Patronage sees to it that the literary system does not fall out of step with the rest of society. Patrons try to regulate the relationship between the literary system and the other system, which, together, make up a society, a culture. Patrons often count on professional to bring the literary system in line with their ideology (Shuping, 2013).

Any form of translational action may be conceived as a "purposeful activity" (Nord, 1997, p. 12). The action should observe the "skopos rule", which postulates that the form of a TT (target text), including translation strategies and methods adopted, should above all be determined by the purpose or skopos that the TT is intended to fulfill in the target context. Every translation presupposes a commission and is carried out according to a skopos or commission, which is largely determined by the commissioner or client. The skopos of the TT and the mode in which it is to be realized are negotiated between the commissioner and the translator (Xiao-Yan, 2013, p. 256).

Reiss and Vermeer aim at a general translation theory for all texts. They set out a detailed explanation of Vermeer's skopos theory and adapts Reiss's functional text-type model to the general theory. There are six basic underlying "rules" of the theory (Reiss and Vermeer, 1984, p.119). These are:

- A trunslatum (or TT) is determined by its skopos.
- A TT is an offer of information in a target culture and TL concerning an offer of information in a source culture and SLl.
- A TT does not initiate an offer of information in a clearly reversible way.
- A TT must be internally coherent.
- A TT must be coherent with the ST.
- The five rules above stand in hierarchical order, with the skopos rule predominating.

Yan-Fei (2013) emphasized on patronage's manipulation of translator in the process of translation, while our study emphasized acceptability of translator's ideology and translation

method, due to its high degree of publication. In addition Jia-Yin (2012) announced an adequate, understandable, acceptable translation version, particularly for Chinese readers. It is in line with our study due to the fact that less manipulated translation is more faithful to the original and is best read.

Sun (2013) demonstrated the role of poetics plays as an important role in translation while Xin & Song (2012) emphasized macroscopic alternatives of domestication and foreignization and idiomatic expression of translation. Also, Shahraki et al (2012) found interference from English language as the main reason of manipulation while Bing (2014) discovered some inspiration and introspection for the overseas transmission of Chinese literature as the reason for manipulation. Jing (2013) concluded that the combination of skopos theory and the politics of translation bring new concepts and new perspectives to translation study, in the same way Ya-Nan (2014) emphasized on manipulation of ideology and poetics supporting the important role of Lefevere's manipulation theory to guide the translation.

Qinqin (2012) mentioned that the role patronage plays in the translation practice and provides an objective basis for evaluating the different versions. Result of this study is not in line with our findings, since popularity of the translation by Golmohammadi goes to its fame and acceptability among readers, not its association with a specific patronage.

Generally, the present study dissociates with the naïve ideas that merely relate the achievement of one translation to patronage, but not to the reader's ideological thinking. The ideology of translator is however more prominent than patronage, because it is the acceptability of translations and in turn the ideological orientation of translations as well as degrees of manipulation that determines superiority of one translation over the other, not mere dictation of patronage or publication. Since currently publishers enact due to the feedback they get from readers and orientation of market, than their authority over readers.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study, however tried to answer the fowlloing two research questions:

1. Which one of two translators might have manipulated the source text and what was his purpose?
2. The other questions indicating that: what was the skopos of each translator? And why has Golmohammadi'translation attracted more readers?

METHEDOLOGY

This study is a quantitative and qualitative analysis of translations of the book *Iran between to Revolutions.* From every 40 pages of the English book one paragraph was selected randomly. From among 20 selected paragraphs, 40 manipulated samples were introduced using manipulation theory of Lefevere, (2004b) and skopos theory of Vermeer and Reiss (1984). The

manipulation strategy contained four elements including addition, omission, explanatory note, and rewriting. In the case of skopos theory the influence of translator, audience and patronage were discussed regarding translation equivalents.

Since this study is a corpus-based analysis, in this section the original book and the two translations are introduced briefly and the method of sampling was presented. The original English book is:

Ervand Abrahamian's "Iran Between Two Revolutions" emphasizing the interaction between political organizations and social forces, Ervand Abrahamian discusses Iranian society and politics during the period between the constitutional revolution of 1905-1909 and the Islamic revolution of 1977-1979. Presented here is a study of the emergence of horizontal divisions, or socio-economic classes, in a country with strong vertical divisions based on ethnicity, religious ideology, and regional particularism. Professor Abrahamian focuses on the class and ethnic roots of the major radical movements in the modem era, particularly the constitutional movement of the 1900s, the communist Tudeh party of the 1940s, the nationalist struggle of the early 1950s, and the Islamic insurgence of the 1970s.

In this examination of the social bases of Iranian politics, professor Abrahamian draws on archives of the British foreign office and India office that have only recently been opened; newspaper, memoirs, and biographies published in Tehran between 1906 and 1980; proceedings of the Iranian Majles and Senate; interviews with retired and active politicians; and pamphlets, books, and periodicals distributed by exiled groups in Europe and north America in the period between 1953 and 1980. Professor Abrahamian explores the impact of socio-economic change on the political structure, especially under the reigns of Reza shah and Muhammad Reza Shah, and throws fresh light on the significance of the Tudeh party and the failure of the Shah's regime from 1953 to 1978.

The translations of the original book were done once by Kazem Firouzmand, Hassan Shams Avar and Mohssen Modir Shaneh Chi[1] (1998). The content of the book represents the original materials and the issues for the analysis are presented in the analysis section. The current version of the book is 18th version.

The other translation was translated in 1998 by Ahmad Golmohamadi and Mohammad Ebrahim Fatahi[2]. The book for analysis is the 22th version of the translation.

[1] For the purpose of short usage regarding the name of writers during the analysis the name of the first writer was mentioned.
[2] In the analysis the name of Golmohamadi is used as representative of their translations.

Data analysis

In this section five samples are discussed out of the entire samples as the representative of the whole study. The following samples represent the way in which the entire analysis was done practically. The samples are derived from the selected paragraphs in the analysis.

Analysis of selected Samples

1. …the first generation of nineteenth-century intellectuals…

گل محمدی: نخستین نسل از روشنفکران سده بیستم

فیروزمند: نسل اول روشنفکران قرن چهاردهم

In Golmohamadi's translation it is both omission and addition to the translation; it is omission since the intellectuals of late 19th century are addressed and the translated text addresses the intellectuals of the 20th century and this manipulation in the text causes misunderstanding or bias in the relating historical events. Though there is not correspondence between the Iranian calendar (sh) and christen calendar Firouzmand has used sh dates such as قرن سیزدهمfor 19th century and قرن چهاردهمfor 20th century. However, there is 21 year differences between the two years, and this general consideration is misleading in most of the conditions. The purpose of Firouzmand from this type of translation was cultural recreation of Persian values for Persian readers, in spite of mismatching between the two calendar systems.

2. **…one of the armed fighters…**

گل محمدی: مجاهیدین

فیروزمند: رزمندگان مسلح

In Golmohammadi's translation is written as **مجاهدین**a term that currently refers to the group against Islamic revolution after Islamic revolution of Iran. This term in Firuzmand's translation is written as **رزمندگان مسلح**carrying a positive load in the Islamic resistance. The terms were rewritten in both translations and the function of Golmohammadi's translation was to carry the meaning of those persons scarified for the Islamic goals and in Firuzmand's translation a post revolution concept is used to carry the Neo-Islamic sense. While the term جنگجویان مسلحis suggested as the term that is neither ideological nor idiosentric.

3. …the fifth national assembly…

گل محمدی: در مجلس پنجم

فیروزمند: مجلس ملی پنجم

Golmohammadi has used the term در مجلس پنجمin the translation that omitted the equivalent term for "national", while in Firuzmand's translation the term مجلس ملی پنجمis used and the original meaning is preserved. The former translation omitted the term ملی due to complementary terms such as Rezakhan which represents the type and period the assembly is referred. Accordingly, the literal error occurred but meaning is preserved.

4. … Muslim-Christian animosities…

گل محمدی: خصومت های بین مسلمانان ومسیحیان

فیروزمند: دعوای ارمنی مسلمان

This term refers to the struggles between christen people and Muslims in Tabriz. Golmohammadi has translated this term correctly as خصومت های بین مسلمانان ومسیحیانrepresenting the same sense of original, while in Firuzmand's translation it is translated into دعوای ارمنی مسلمانsince christen

people of Iran are known as ارمنیand the translator has rewritten the term aiming at writing in Persian cultural term.

5. …Church leaders…

گل محمدی: رهبران کلیسا
فیروزمند: اولیای کلیسا

The term "church leaders" is written as رهبران کلیساin Golmohammadi's translation while in Firuzmand it is translated as اولیای کلیساthe former is more faithful to the original meaning and the latter is correct, but more distanced from the discourse of the church leaders. When اولیاis used their political role is meaningless to some extent.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data was analyzed and for each paragraph several cases were specified. The selected cases from paragraphs were those cases that one of the strategies was performed in the case of them accordingly from the entire 20 paragraphs 40 terms were found falling within the strategies. That strategy which did not match and had no such strategies was regarded as equivalent term. After data analysis it was specified that in Golmohammadi's translation there is 16 cases (40%) of applying rewriting strategy, 14 (35) cases of the selected term were found with equivalent translation, 6 items (15%) were reported with omission strategy and finally for addition and explanatory notes each one were repeated in 2 (5%) frequencies. Accordingly the application of rewriting strategy was significant and considerable. In the case of Firuzmand's translation there is 24 cases (60%) of applying rewriting strategy, 6 (15%) cases of the selected term were found with equivalent translation, 6 items (15%) were reported with explanatory notes strategy and finally for addition and omission notes each one were repeated in 2 (5%) frequencies. Accordingly, the application of rewriting strategy was more than other strategies that is significant.

Table 1: frequency and percentage of applying Levfever's manipulation strategies

Translation strategies	Golmohammadi's translation	Firouzmand's translation
Omission	6 (15%)	2 (5%)
Addition	2 (5%)	2 (5%)
Explanatory notes	2 (5%)	6 (15%)
Rewriting	16 (40%)	24 (60%)
Equivalent term	14 (35%)	6 (15%)

In the following diagram the percentage of Golmohammadi and Firuzmand's translations were depicted. It shows the significant usage of rewriting the original terms. However, the percentage of rewriting in Firuzmand is more than Golmohammadi's translation.

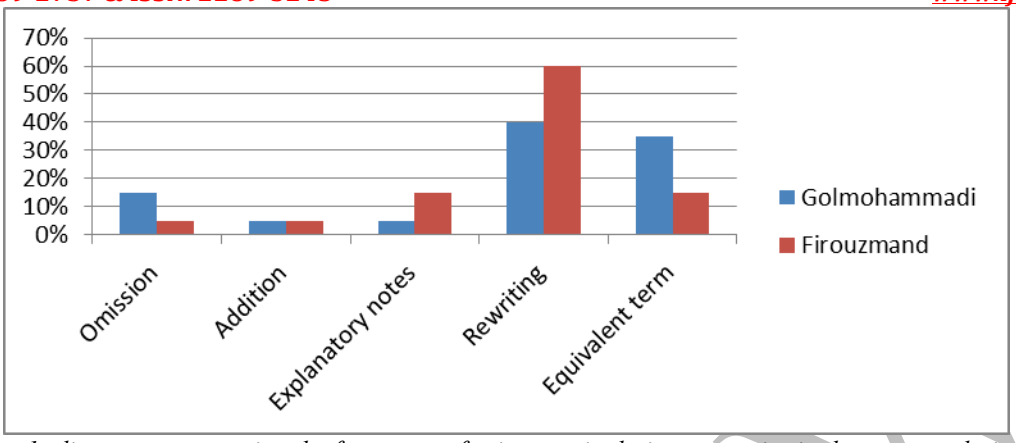

Figure 1: diagram representing the frequency of using manipulation strategies in the two translations by Golmohammadi and Firuzmand

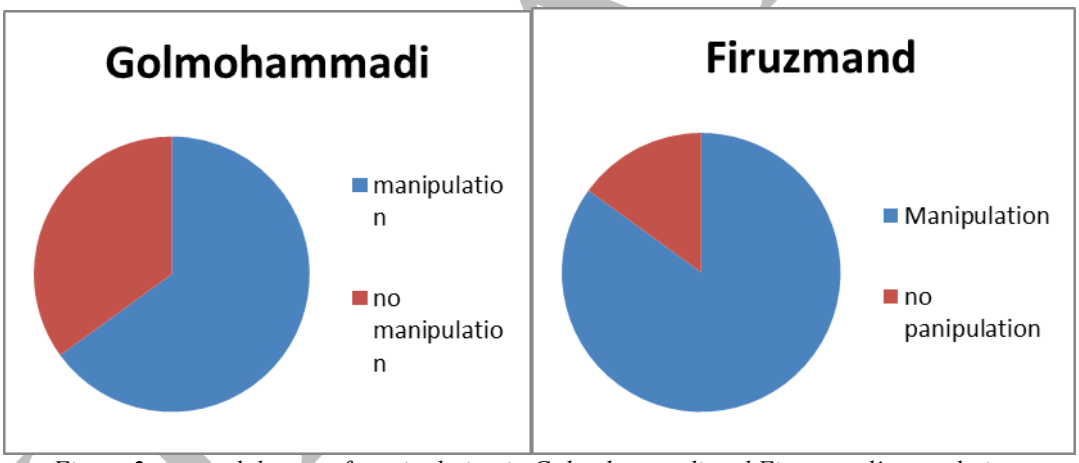

Figure 2: general degree of manipulation in Golmohammadi and Firuzmand's translations

Since this study regarded translation of a political text namely "Iran between two revolutions" by Ervand Abrahamian and its translations by Golmohammadi and Firuzmand for the native Persian people about their source history, the Lefevere's theory of manipulation was proper for the analysis which placed translation within a larger social, political and cultural context and allows us to observe the way in which translation interact with the target environment.

Manipulation of translation in the two translations with regard to omission, addition, explanatory note, and rewriting was examined and generally Firuzmand's translation used more manipulation

strategies (85%) than Golmohammadi's with 65%. And out of this amount of manipulation most of the texts were rewritten than being omitted or added. Therefore, the meaning is not changed but written in another point of view.

The skopos theory was included in the study, but due to lack of a unified structure for its theory it was used in the samples which the type of translating them was ideologically driven. However, regarding the purpose of translation, Firuzmand's translation was more target-oriented, because the translator used the entire foreignized elements as domesticated materials, regarding translation of the years that dates were preferred by Firuzmand, while Golmohammadi in some cases used Christian dates. Firuzmand has translated the text with regard to Persian equivalent terms and avoided Arabic or transliteral English terms.

CONCLUSION

Besides this superiority of one translation over the other, this study emphasized on content analysis of the translations respecting the degree of manipulation of translators in the text. There might be connection between acceptability of one translation and its frequent publication to answer the arising question indicating that which one of two translators might have manipulated the source text and what was his purpose. Results of the study after comparing the degree of manipulation in the two translations indicates that out of four strategies, rewriting strategy is used in highest degree in the two translations. The degree of rewriting in Firuzmand was 60% while in Golmohammadi it was 40%, it implies that Firuzmand has manipulated the translation 20% more than Golmohammadi's translation in the case of applying rewriting strategy. In addition to rewriting, the degree of explanatory notes in Firuzmand's translation is 15% that is more than that of Golmohammadi's translation with 5%. Accordingly, explanatory note which Firuzmand used was 10% more than Golmohammadi. In the case of addition strategy, the two translators manipulated the translation to the same extent, both used it 5%. The only higher degree of manipulation strategy by Golmohammadi goes to omission strategy which Golmohammadi applied was 15% and in Firouzmand's was 5%. Generally speaking, with regard to manipulation, the difference between degrees of manipulation is revealed in equivalent terms or mismatching of manipulation in the two translations. From the selected samples there is 85% manipulation in Firuzmand's translation, while in Golmohammadi's there is 65% manipulation.

The other questions indicating that: what was the skopos of each translator?
In response to the questions it seems obvious that Firuzmand used more manipulation strategy than Golmohammadi. The purpose of such supremacy can be related to acceptability of translations. Golmohammadi's translation with less manipulation and more publication are complementary reasons for its acceptability and superiority. The manipulation in the original text on this case caused lack of superiority of a translation over the other. Ideology of translator or patronage in Golmohammadi is less dominant than that of Firuzmand. It is due to acceptability of Golmohammadi's translation among readers, only due to lack of manipulation, not its association with a specific patronage.

Since, these studies explored different aspects of manipulation and skopos theory and emphasized on the role of patronage and the source text language, but in the present study the role of translators was more significant, since there was not matter of addition or omission, but rewriting. However, skopos theory cannot measure who decided for such a translation, but it can clarify the purpose behind such a translation, that in the case of present study the main purpose of the translations was providing a source historical book for readers, and the trace of ideological views of translators was considerable. For example, the term queen for "queen Soraya" wife of Reza Shah was deleted in Golmohammadi's translation that may represent translator's devotion to Islamic revolution.

There are several studies which emphasized on the role of patronage and translator in manipulating the text that are in line with the result of present study. Among the studies of Yan-Fei (2013), Jia-Yin (2012), Sun (2013), Xin and Song (2012), Shahraki et al (2012), Bing (2014) Jing (2013), and Ya-Nan (2014), the results of the present study was against findings of Qinqin study (2012).

The ideological issues were emphasized in previous studies, as determining factors affecting on manipulation in the text. For example Yan-Fei (2013) in his study stated that "with the social development, patronage's manipulation of translator is highlighted in the process of translation" (p. 26). Another example is sun's (2013) study "the manipulation of poetics in literary translation— a case study of journey to the west by W.j.F. Jenner" and found that "translation is not merely an act completed by the translator's personal preference, but an act influenced by various forces including ideology, poetics and patronage in the overall environment" (p. 1227). Shahraki et al (2012) study by application of skopos theory on translation of interjections from English into Persian in drama, and found that "the most common strategy used for translating interjections by the Persian translators is literal translation" (p. 1089) and then emphasized on the role of interference by English language.

Though this study emphasized on historical translation of documentary texts and no bias is imagined in writing and translation of such text, there was several limitation in studying the text. one limitation was translators field of education so that one was expert in Persian literature and better writing in Persian language but less proficient in social and historical schools, and other was socialist and more source text oriented so that causses a considerable gap between the quality of the two translations. However, this study might be a platform to study history translations in different prespectives.

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A THOROUGH REVIEW AND UNDERSTANDING OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING: PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS TO BE IMPLEMENTED

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ABSTRACT
In the realm of language teaching, reflective teaching is not something new back in the 1930s; John Dewey described the difference between impulsive action, routine action and reflective action and after him a lot of scholars and practitioners have come up with different models and frameworks of reflective practice. In this vein, lots of studies have probed the role of reflective teaching in language classrooms. This paper reviews the main surveys on reflective teaching, providing the theoretical rational for it, shedding light on different models and frameworks of reflective teaching, and encapsulating the theoretical and practical components of teacher reflection. Empirical studies conducted to investigate reflective teaching and practical suggestions to be implemented in language classrooms are offered.

KEYWORDS: reflective teaching, language teaching, language classroom, reflective models

INTRODUCTION
Language teaching and methodology has witnessed a lot of changes since the beginning of the twenties century these changes are vivid in the wax and wane of different approaches and methods which started from grammar translation method and continued till post method era during all these changes teachers have had different roles in classroom. According to kumaravadivlue (2006), the post method teacher is a teacher who needs to take into account the three parameters of particularity, possibility and plausibility. In the parameter of particularity the core emphasis is on a holistic interpretation of particular situations teachers might face in their teaching processes. The parameter of practicality focuses on teacher's reflection and action and the parameter of possibility stresses the need to develop theories, forms of knowledge, and social practices that work with the experience that people bring to the pedagogical settings. Based on these three parameters the role of the post method teacher is highlighted he is considered to be an autonomous teacher. One way of being autonomous is to be a reflective teacher. The idea of reflection is not something new. It has its roots in behaviorism and Constructivism as Cunningham (2001) explains, "Constructivism views learning as an active process where learners

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reflect upon their current and past knowledge and experiences to generate new ideas and concepts" (p. 2) As a consequence, "a shift to a constructivist perspective of teaching and teacher learning makes teachers a primary source of knowledge about teaching" (Crandall, 2000, p. 35), and this, in turn, has paved the road for facilitative approaches of teaching to emerge. Researchers have documented the importance of reflection as an appropriate way for teachers to enhance the effectiveness of their teaching practice. Reflection allows teachers to give deliberate thought about action with a view toward its improvement, face unexpected situations and individual student differences, and connect theory to practice, and acknowledge and deepen the understanding of how their own values, beliefs and experiences influence their roles as teachers (Işikoğlu, 2007; Johnson, 2001; Nolan, 2008; Ryan, Cooper, & Tauer, 2008; Schon, 1983, 1987). Since Dewey supported reflective teaching as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and further conclusion to which it tends" (Dewey, 1933, p.9), the benefit of reflective teaching practices on novice teachers has been well documented.

A fruitful literature in the area of reflective teaching exists. The works of John Dewey between 1859 and 1952 and Donald Schon between 1930 and 1997 are bedrocks for the study of reflection and reflective teaching. Also of significance are works of Ghaye and Ghaye (1998) Zeichner and Liston (1996), Hatton and Smith (1995), Cole (1997) Day (1996), Hyrkas, Tarkka and Ilmonen (2000), Farrell (2001), Coyle (2002) and many others. This paper shed lights on the definition of reflective teaching then, a brief review on the pioneers and followers of the reflective teaching is presented after that the integrated framework of pollard is presented then the components of reflection are addressed and finally the practical suggestions are offered.

THE DEFINITION OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING

According to Schön, Donald A. (1983) reflection is the capacity to reflect on action so as to engage in a process of continuous learning. Bolton and Gillie (2010) defines it as involving in "paying critical attention to the practical values and theories which inform everyday actions, by examining practice reflectively and reflexively. This leads to developmental insight". A key rationale for reflective practice is that experience alone does not necessarily lead to learning; deliberate reflection on experience is essential (Loughran, 2002; Cochran; Lytle, 1999). Reflection allows teachers to give deliberate thought about action with a view toward its improvement, face unexpected situations and individual student differences, connect theory to practice, and acknowledge and deepen the understanding of how their own values, beliefs and experiences influence their roles as teachers (Işikoğlu, 2007; Johnson, 2001; Nolan, 2008; Ryan, Cooper, & Tauer, 2008; Schon, 1983, 1987).

PIONEERS AND INFLUENCING FEATURES IN REFLECTIVE TEACHING

John Dewey the American thinker is considered to be the father of reflective teaching (Hatton & Smith, 1995; Sparks-Langer & Colton, 1991; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) Dewey considers reflective teaching as an active, persistent, and careful contemplation of any belief or Supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it. He considered the goal of education

to be the expansion of reflective, creative, responsible thought (Hatton & Smith, 1995) he was keen on how people tackle a real problem in real situations he looked at learning as a dynamic interaction between the person and context he provided a useful distinction between routine action and reflective action. Reflective action derives, according to Dewey, from the necessity of solving a problem and involves 'the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it' (1910, p6). Teachers who are not reflective about their teaching are likely to accept the everyday reality in their schools and 'concentrate their efforts on finding the most effective and efficient means to solve problems that have largely been defined for them by (some) collective code' (Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p9). Teachers who are not reflective do also think - rather, their thinking does not let them tackle a forming problem in different perspectives.

Van Manen (1977) proposed three levels of reflectivity to describe different perspectives of reflection: *technical, practical and critical,* the first one focuses on evaluating the skills, strategies, and approaches used to reach predetermined goals. The second, which focuses on examining the methods used to reach goals and also re-examining the goals themselves and *the last one,* which stresses on asking about the morality, ethicality, and social equity.

Schon (1983, 1987) highlighted the widening gap between professional knowledge (method) and actual competencies (methodology) required for practitioners. He stresses the discrepancy between the knowledge teachers gain from theory and the one they gain from practicing those theories in their classes. He separated the two terms (reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action) from each other. The first one, reflection- in- action, focuses on the teaching on the spot and making adjustments simultaneously, the second one, reflection- on- action, has a retrospective view to the process of teaching after it is done in order to have a future effect and consequences (Killion & Lasley, 1992).

Zeichner, (1987) stressed the pivotal role of critical reflection in education, highlighting that teachers must critically examine how instructional and other school practices benefit the social equity and also stressed a moral perspective to reflective action.

Smyth, (1989) proposed four types of action that can facilitate reflection on practice: *describe* (e.g., What do I do?), *inform* (e.g., What does this mean?), *confront* (e.g., How did I come to think or act like this?), and *reconstruct* (e.g., How might I do things differently?)

Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) asserted the essential role of, personal-action theories on behavior they emphasized the theories or views that individuals talk about (i.e., espoused theories) versus the theories or views that are evident in watching individuals behave (i.e., theories in use), suggesting reflective practices as a way to examine and uncover underlying theories and views that affect action.

Sparks-Langer and Colton (1993) and Langer and Colton (1994) identified multiple influences on the knowledge construction involved in reflective practice; they introduced a cyclical process,

that includes three steps: gathering, analyzing and forming the hypothesis and finally operationalizing the hypothesis in practice.

Zeichner and Liston (1996), proposed the key features of reflective practice which are:
1. Identifying a problem and tackling the problem by comparing with other similar contexts.
2. Evaluating and re-evaluating the problem to find solutions.
3. Dealing with problems to know about the final solution.
4. Examining the intended and unintended consequences of a practical solution.

Jay and Johnson (2002) suggested a typology for reflective teaching which includes descriptive, comparative and critical reflection. Descriptive reflection deals with the identification, description and recognition of the problem. Comparative reflection involves tackling the problem from different perspectives to this end the teacher tries to know other teacher's points of view in order to be able to compare them with those of themself. The last one, critical reflections, involves teachers looking at all the different perspective of a situation and all the people who are involved such as teachers, students, schools.

Farrell (2004) has a created a model which has the following stages:
1. Teachers can embark on the reflective practice by going through keeping diaries, keeping teaching profiles, discussing with peers, and observing other teacher's classrooms.
2. A clear set of rules and regulations should be established for each and every activity.
3. Reflective teacher should have a plan for four phase of teaching which are individual time that teacher should allocate for themself, the activity time, the development time and the reflection time.

POLLARDS INTEGRATED FRAMEWORK

In attempting to draw together some of the strands and traditions that inform our understanding of reflective practice, Pollard (2005) provides a framework comprised of seven characteristics. Though it leans heavily on Dewey, it presents one attempt to synthesize elements of understanding of the process of reflection that have developed through the work of both Dewey and Schön, together with studies that have extended and developed their work and those who have contributed new understandings.

1. 'Reflective teaching implies an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency.' This is not only a concern with the immediate aims and consequences of classroom practice, but also encompasses the responsibility for speaking out, on the basis of professional experience and often through professional organizations, on government aims and policies.
2. 'Reflective teaching is applied in a cyclical or spiraling process, in which teachers monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice continuously.' This highlights involvement in a dynamic, continuous reflexive process, an active researching of one's own practice leading to self-monitoring, reflection and change.

3. 'Reflective teaching requires competence in methods of evidence-based classroom enquiry, to support the progressive development of higher standards of teaching.' This involves reviewing relevant existing research, gathering evidence, using objective and subjective data, analysis and evaluation, and judgment-making that lead to decision taking.
4. 'Reflective teaching requires attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility and whole heartedness.' Open-mindedness 'is an active desire to listen to more ideas than one, to give full attention to alternative possibilities, and to recognize the possibility of error even in beliefs that are dearest to us' (Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p10). Pollard and Tann (1994) note that responsibility involves thinking about three central kinds of consequences of teaching personal, academic, and social and political (primarily the effects of teaching on the life chances of pupils). In referring to wholeheartedness, Dewey meant that open-mindedness and responsibility should be central to the professional life of the reflective teacher.
5. 'Reflective teaching is based on teacher judgment, informed by evidence-based enquiry and insights from other research.' Here Pollard highlights the work of Schön in pointing to the use of judgment in reflection-in-action and its use in reflection-on-action, the latter of which may be seen as being more strongly linked to knowledge of research, systematic enquiry and an understanding of the political framework of action.
6. 'Reflective teaching, professional learning and personal fulfillment are enhanced by dialogue with colleagues.' This refers to dialogue with specific individuals in school, to collaboration across staff groupings - an integral aspect of the 'intelligent school' (MacGilchrist, Myers & Reed, 2004) - and to communication and cooperation with individuals, organizations and agencies beyond the school.
7. 'Reflective teaching enables teachers to creatively mediate externally developed frameworks for teaching and learning.' Here, Pollard refers to the reflective teacher being able to justify protective mediation to defend existing practices; engage in innovative mediation by working within the spaces and boundaries provided by new requirements; contribute to collaborative mediation whereby externally developed ideas are scrutinized and adapted in a professional, mutually supportive environment; or even engage in conspirational mediation, where teachers' appreciative systems form the basis of a judgment or judgments that resistance to implementing external requirements through the use of subversive strategies is desirable.

COMPONENTS OF REFLECTION

1. Focus on the learner

In this perspective students are the focus of reflection: their culture, their thinking, their linguistic backgrounds and their interest as well as their likelihood for particular tasks is under study what is worth studying is their learning strategies, cognitive strategies as well as affective factors and their abilities (Hillier, 2005; Pacheco, 2005; Pollard et al., 2006; Richards & Lockhart, 1999; Richards & Farrell, 2005).

2. Focus on the teacher

A lot has been discussed about students and educational system, but unfortunately poor teachers have been ignored to a great extent. Teaching is a demanding job teachers are constantly under stress the stress comes from appraisers, students, and class atmosphere these issues as well as

teachers styles and strategies become more evident in teachers reflective context any account of reflective practice components (Akbari, 2007; Hillier, 2005; Pollard et al., 2006; Richards & Lockhart, 1999; Stanley, 1998; Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

3. Focus on practical aspects

Practical aspects of reflection here refer to the different methods of data collection, according to Chris Kyriacou (2007), there are a variety of ways in which a teacher can collect data about his/her current practice these include diary writing, recording her/himself, getting feedback from a colleague observing the class, getting feedback from pupils.

4. Focus on teachers' cognitive development

If a reflective teacher, in his/her career wants to accomplish different levels of reflection, he/she should pay attention to his/her professional development as a teacher. Doing small-scale classroom research projects, doing action research, attending the national and international conferences and workshops related to one's field of study, and reading the relevant articles will be beneficial a lot in this domain (Farrell, 2004; Richards & Farrell, 2005).

5. Focus on critical/contextual aspects

According to Bartlett (1997) reflection has got a twofold meaning. Internal and external the former one is a personal one which hinges on teacher's intellectuality and his/her practice. The latter is the connection between individual teaching actions and the purposes of education in society (p. 205). This he calls 'critical reflection'. Based on the 'social reconstructionist tradition' of reflective teaching, "instruction is embedded within institutional, cultural, and political contexts … and these contexts both affect what we do and are affected but what we do" (Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p. 59). This view of reflection has incorporated the moral and ethical aspects as well (Farrell, 2004).

6. Focus on moral/ethical parameters

Moral aspects play an essential role in the teacher's reflectivity (Hansen, 1998; Johnson & Reiman, 2007). Morally speaking, according to Meiers (2003), Reflective teaching directly engages students as participants and co-authors of a shared project – the educational, social, and moral life of their classroom. Hansen (1998) refers to Valli's (1990) three strands of reflection which take into account the notion of morality. The 'deliberative approach' which defines critical thinking based on morality. The second approach is the 'relational approach 'which is about interconnection between two individuals and how they treat each other. The third approach, the 'critical approach' is very much similar to critical reflection and is also accentuated by Adler and Goodman, Apple, and Giroux and McLaren. Within this approach, teachers are morally obliged to help the disadvantaged students to reach their goals in society.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS ON HOW TO BE A REFLECTIVE TEACHER

Kyriacou (2007) in his book (Essential Teaching Skills) has eloquently discussed the characteristics of reflectivity and has suggested some very constructive suggestions which are worth mentioning:

1. Self –evaluation

a. Setting an agenda for classroom teaching: it means assigning a list of priorities for their classes it is actually a kind of action research strategy, which would teachers to find a solution and implanting those solution in their class.

b. Portfolios and profiles: a teacher is required to build up a portfolio of his/her teaching based on his/her lesson plan , his/her notes on how the lesson went, and feedback observation of their lessons by observers.

2. Becoming an expert teacher

There are some differences between an expert teacher and a novice one .the sentences below will distinguish these differences

a. A commitment to their work that goes well beyond the call of duty

b. Some degree of charisma that flows from the quality of their interest in the work they do and in the students they teach.

c. An insightful grasp of the essence of what needs to be learned and how best to get students from where they are and now to where they need to be.

d. An insightful ability to anticipate problems and to intervene effectively when problems do occur so that pupil's learning can progress smoothly.

3. Responding to new pedagogies

All teachers need to develop new skills in response to changes in pedagogy.

Appraising the classroom by collecting data

A very good way of self- appraisal is by collecting data about your teaching process this could be done by writing a diary, making a recording of the lessons that you teach, getting feedback from other colleagues by asking them to observe your classes, getting feedback from students, doing action research in the class.

4. Teacher appraisal

Teacher's appraisal, as a part of formal observation plays a pivotal role in teachers ' development and their level of reflectivity. Teacher's appraisal should be done systematically in which the appraiser and the teachers need to be in continues interaction with each other and receives each other's feedback regularly.

5. Final remarks

The process of reflection is easier said than done. In fact, operationalizing it might be difficult because of time constraints and the various variables a teacher might encounter during his/her practice, the bulk of information a teacher needs to know might be confusing as well as tiring the solution hinges on a cooperation as well as a collaboration between the teacher, and the appraiser and the education system.

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PRACTICAL QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THOSE INTERESTED IN CONDUCTING QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Choy and Oo (2012). In their article: *Reflective Thinking and Teaching Practice*. Have designed a questionnaire, the topics for the questionnaire were created based on research by Hamilton (2005) on the development of reflective thinking. The statements cover three major areas of development; ability to self-express, awareness of how one learns and developing lifelong learning skills. Choy and Oo added another area perceived as important, influence of belief about self and self-efficacy. Each of the four areas of development was further broken down into sub-sections. The statements on the questionnaire were structured to express the four areas of development and then categorized to reflect the levels: Introductory (I), Intermediate (In) and Advanced (A). Introductory level statements (I) mean that generally a teacher seldom reflects on his or her practices and would likely just follow orders. The intermediate level statements (In) mean that a teacher sometimes reflect on his or her teaching practices but not on an in-depth level. The advanced level statements (A) mean that a teacher reflects deeply on his or her practices and is constantly making efforts to improve them. I found this questionnaire applicable for our teachers and researchers willing to conduct quantitative research about reflective practice. What follows is the questionnaire: (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree).

Ability to self-assess					
Observing own performance	1	2	3	4	5
1. I always think of what I had done during my lessons so that I can improve on it further.(A)					
2. I tend to follow orders rather be innovative because I do not want to get in trouble. (I)					
3. I try to think of what I teach my students in terms of my own area of discipline so as to enhance my lesson. (In)					
Using feedback and evidence					
4. I feel very anxious about feedback given to me by students, it is as though they are evaluating and judging me as a person.(I)					
5. I think student's feedback is important as it will help me understand them better. (I)					
6. I feel that students' feedback is important as this would give me an indicator of the areas of my strengths and weaknesses. (A)					
Finding and analyzing patterns					
7. I always think that what and how I did during my lesson is an important indicator of my effectiveness.(I)					
8. I know that in a lesson there are many areas, like content and context that can make or break a lesson.(In)					
9. I always try to look for areas of connectivity between what and how I teach with my life experiences.(A)					
Making judgments					
10. whenever I am faced with a mistake that I have made I try to make connections and learn from my experience and then use it to move forward. (A)					
11. I know I make mistakes but sometimes I feel I cannot do anything about it. (I)					
12. As a teacher I know that the mistakes I make can have an influence on the lives of my students. (In)					
Awareness of how one learns					
Concepts and misconceptions					
13. When students give me feedback I do not take it much into consideration because I feel that it is just their opinions anyway. I do not worry about it as long as I feel I am doing my job. (I)					
14. I think that it is important that I take students' feedback into consideration as that will help me improve on what I am doing now so that I will perform better in the future.(In)					
15. I like to take into consideration my past performance and integrate it with what I am doing in the present to help me better prepare for the future. (A)					
Knowledge construction					
16. I am only interested in getting my assigned classes done properly, I basically do not have the time or interest in talking to my colleagues about their strategies and goals for their classes. (I)					
17. I like to know how I do in my teaching , so every opportunity I get I want feedback from my supervisors so that I can improve the way I deliver my lessons. (In)					
18. Students learn very differently from when I was in school, I need to look into new strategies to better deliver my lessons so that I can remain relevant now as well as in the future.(A)					
Metacognition					
19. I have a certain way of delivering my lessons that I am comfortable with, I do not know I do it the way I do it, I just do. (I)					

20. I am always interested in self-discovery so that I can apply the knowledge to how I do things and perhaps hone myself to be a better teacher. (In)					
21. I try to reflect on what I do during my lessons so that I can enrich the strategies I used with new and more effective ones. Sometimes I can get inspirations by to my colleagues from other fields.(A)					
Developing lifelong learning skills					
Developing identify as a learner					
22. Sometimes the feedback I get from my students and supervisor are so confusing I do not know what to make of them, I do not think it is actually going to help me learn anything about the way I conduct my lessons. (I)					
23. I know I am still learning to be a better teacher and the feedback I get from students and supervisors could be helpful in improving my future performance. (In)					
24. I know that I am learning about my profession all the time and I have already a set of practices which I am comfortable with, although the feedback I get from students and my supervisor will help me improve those practices even more. (A)					
Transferring learning to other contexts					
25. I generally get good comments from students so I think I am doing quite well as a teacher overall.(I)					
26. I know that all feedback are just opinions of others about me. There must be some truth in what they see, if not they will not make them . I need weigh the feedback I get against some of the opinions and assumptions I have about myself.(In)					
27. I know I make assumptions about a lot of things and when others give me their opinions about how I am teaching I must put into perspective . after all a can learn from all the feedback I get.(A)					
Understands learning as a lifelong process					
28. I know what I am doing as a teacher and I do not spend much time reflecting on my practices as a teacher. (I)					
29. I know I have my strengths and weaknesses and teaching is a difficult job to carry out. I need to constantly look at my practices in order to be more effective with my lessons.(In)					
30. I know how I present my classes will influence how my students will behave towards the subject. Every time I present a class I need to be cognizant that I need to reflect on how I have taught and makes changes the next time if necessary.(In)					
Influence of belief about self and self-efficacy					
Developing a personal belief system					
31. I believe that I need to take care of my own needs first before I can take care of other people's needs.(I)					
32. I know that what I believe about myself and others will ultimately control my behavior.(In)					
33. I am aware of my beliefs and know that these beliefs will influence my behavior towards myself and others.(A)					
A: Advance In: Intermediate I:Introductory					

CONCLUSION

This paper introduced the definition of reflective teaching, it provided a brief overview of the pioneers, followers and models of reflective practice and finally some practical suggestions were offered but what is worth mentioning is that apart from some potential merits and demerits, reflective teaching provides English practitioners with a host of techniques and strategies to become more conscious of their own practices both inside and outside of their classes provided that teachers believe in the change, teachers who delves in to their own practice critically will certainly develop changes in attitudes and awareness which they believe can benefit their professional growth as teachers as well as improve the kind of support and motivation they provide their students. once more it is necessary to mention the quintessential role of the teacher and the burden upon his/her shoulder which determines the key factor in how he/she is willing to apply the role of reflection in his/her own class.

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THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL STUDENTS' LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND THEIR USE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Masoumeh Dastmardi

ABSTRACT

This study aims at studying the type of strategy students of three universities in Iran including Tehran University, Shahid Beheshti University and Azad University (Tehran Branch of Science and Research) used. It investigates the relationship between the type of strategy and English language proficiency of EFL students in Iran. For this study, sample of 120 students ranging from 23 to 28 was selected from aforementioned universities through random sampling and cluster sampling. Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and Nelson English Language Proficiency Test were employed for data gathering. Analyzing data through MANOVA, it was revealed that there was a significant relationship between the age and gender variables with the use of language learning strategies as the male younger students used more language learning strategies.Furthermore, the findings represented that there would be a significant relationship between the use of language learning strategies and the language proficiency in since the students with high level of language proficiency used more memory strategies compared to students with intermediate or elementary level. The situation was reported the same for cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

KEYWORDS: *Proficiency, Language learning strategies, Iran*

INTRODUCTION

Teachers assumed that if they did their job well, students would actually learn the target language. However, it became clear that if students were not motivated to learn or not learning, it may not matter how well the teachers are teaching. A gradual significant shift has taken place, resulting in less stress on teachers and greater emphasis on learners (Amini Farsani & Nikoopour, 2010; Al-Buainain, 2010; Eslami & Al-Buainain, 2009; Aziz Khalil, 2005; El-Dib, 2004; Liu, 2004; Abu Shmais, 2003) consequently an effort has emerged to improve language teaching methodology by shifting the domain of language teaching to focus on the learner and influenced by the cognitive view of learning, which regards language learning as a dynamic, creative process and the learner as an active strategy user and knowledge constructor (Nikoopour et al., 2011; Shen, 2005; Cohen, 2005; Abedi, 2004; Parks & Raymond ,2004; Siebert, 2003; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Eslami-Rasekh & Ranjbari, 2003; YU, 2003; Phakiti, 2003). Within the area of foreign language research, a number of studies indicate that learning strategies play a significant role in successful language learning (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985).

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Strategies can also assist learners in promoting their achievement in language proficiency (Amini Farsani & Nikoopour, 2010; Al-Buainain, 2010; Eslami & Al-Buainain, 2009; Dhanapala, 2006; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). Hence, emphasis on helping students to take more responsibility for meeting their own language learning needs was also heightened. Students were asked to self-direct and become less dependent on the classroom teacher. Extensive investigation has shown the importance of language learning strategies in producing a positive effect on learners' language proficiency (Amini Farsani & Nikoopour, 2010; Eslami-Rasekh & Ranjbari, 2003; Phakiti, 2003). The findings reported in Iran revealed that EFL learners are strategy users (Nikoopour et *al*., 2011) however; it has not been studied on relation between language learning strategies and English language proficiency in Iranian EFL learners.

LITERATURE REVIEW

language learning strategies

Research into language learning strategies began in the 1960s; particularly development in cognitive psychology influenced much of the research done on language learning strategies (Williams & Burden 2000). Since then, there has been a prominent shift within the field of language learning and teaching with greater emphasis being put on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching. In parallel to this new shift of interest, how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand, learn or remember the information has been the primary concern of the researchers dealing with the area of foreign language learning. Therefore, a lot of researchers have been devoting themselves to the area, among who best represented by Rubin (1975), Cohen (1981), O'Malley & Chamot (1990), . Rubin and Stern published research on the use of language learning strategies (LLS). Following that, much research and argument emerged focusing on language learning strategy in ESL/EFL. The earlier studies focused on attempting to identify what might be good language learning strategies, and tried to establish a relationship between them and successful language learning. Rubin (1975) identified seven strategies in which good language learners were actively engaged. Stern (1975) also attempted to examine the behaviors of good language learners and identified 10 contributing behaviors. In the1980s, more attempts were made to classify the contributing strategies into general categories.

Factors affecting language learning strategies use

There are many different factors which might potentially influence a student's choice of language learning strategies (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). Some nationalities, for instance, are often considered more reserved than others, women are often thought to be more cautious than men, and older people are often believed to be more conservative than younger people. It these preconceptions are true (or if other characteristics of nationality, sex or age not mentioned here apply), these factors could well influence responses to the research situation. Caution also needs to be exercised regarding the possibility of a national/sex/age bias in the research instrument or situation.

Studies of language learning strategy use according to nationality are not easy to find. This may, possibly, reflect the perception that it is often considered not "politically correct to generalize" about such issues (Pierson, 1996). Two studies, however, which produced findings on

nationality-related differences in language learning strategies incidental to the main research thrust were those reported by Politzer and McGroarty (1985) and by O'Malley (1987). Politzer and McGroarty discovered that Asian students exhibited fewer of the strategies expected of "good" language learners than did Hispanic students while O'Malley ascribed the lack of success of Asian students to the persistence of familiar strategies. In a study involving a questionnaire and group interviews in Taiwan, Yang (1998) made some interesting discoveries about her students' language learning strategy use, including strategies for using dictionaries. In a later study, Yang (1999) discovered that, although her students were aware of various language learning strategies, few of them actually reported using them. As a result of her research, Yang produced recommendations aimed at helping teachers adapt programmes to students' needs more effectively.

Language learning strategies and proficiency

A rich body of empirical studies has investigated the relationships between EFL learners' proficiency and strategy use with the majority indicating that use of strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency, and successful learners employ a wider variety of strategies to improve their language skills and performance (Oxford 1996). In Bialystok's (1981) study on a group of grade 10 and 12 students learning French in Toronto, she found that monitoring strategies and strategies for functional practice affected learning outcome in a positive way as measured by achievement tests in writing, listening, reading and grammar. The large scale investigation of 1200 university foreign language students in the US by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that greater strategy use was associated with learners' higher perceptions of proficiency in reading, listening, and speaking. Ehrman and Oxford's (1989) experimental study of 78/79 optimal adult learners at the US Foreign Service Institute indicated greater strategies use among professional language educators than the students. Dreyer and Oxford's (1996) study of Afrikaans university ESL majors reported significant positive correlations between strategy use and proficiency. The study of Jordan high school EFL learners by Kaylani (1996) revealed that the use of Memory, Cognitive and Metacognitive strategies was significantly higher for successful students than less successful ones. Wharton's (1997) study of 678 bilingual university students studying Japanese and French course in Singapore showed significant correlation between strategy use and French/Japanese proficiency, with more successful learners employing more frequently the learning strategies than do poor proficiency learners. Study by Bremner (1999) on Hong Kong English majors also found that out of the 50 specific strategies, 11 were significantly correlated to proficiency. Hoang (1999) found more proficient learners use more strategies and more effectively than the ones with lower levels. By analyzing diaries from 12 learners, Halbach (2000) reported that subjects who got higher marks during their final term exam reported using strategies more frequently than did the less successful students. A study on university medical majors in China by Yu (2003) found that learners' strategy use was strongly correlated with listening proficiency. The study by Shmais (2003) among a group of 99 university English majors in Palestine revealed that there is significant Memory strategies use difference between very good and good learners in favor of very good learners.

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RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study tries to answer the following questions:

1. What are the most/least frequently used strategies?
2. Is there any significant difference between strategies use versus participants age, sex etc.?
3. Is there any significant relationship between language learning strategies and participants proficiency?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

A sample of 120 MA students (females and males) was selected from faculty of foreign language, Department of English Language Teaching from Tehran University and Islamic Azad University (Tehran Branch of Science and Research), Beheshti University. A sample of 90 students was out of 120 students, according Nelson English language proficiency .Random sampling was conducted. Nelson English language proficiency test was used to homogenize the participants in the study. Their age ranged from 23 to 28.

Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study: **1)** Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989), which is an instrument for assessing the frequency of use of Language Learning Strategies by ESL learners. As documented in literature, the SILL is one of the most useful manuals of learner strategy assessment tool currently available. Recent studies have used the SILL which appears to be the only language learning strategy instrument that was checked for reliability ranging from %85 to %98 and validated in multiple methods (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995). There is a version consisting of 50 items for EFL/ESL learners. Each item is a statement saying "I do..." (e.g., "I try to talk like native SL speakers") and students respond on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Never or almost never true of me") to 5 ("Always or almost always true of me"). The strategies used in the version of the SILL used in this study are grouped into two types: Direct and Indirect.

Direct strategies are classified into: a) Memory strategies (9 items; Part A: Qs 1-9), which are used for entering new information into memory storage and for retrieving it when needed for communication. They are designed to help the learner to create schemata that will allow new information, mainly vocabulary, to enter and remain in long-term memory; b) Cognitive strategies (14 items; Part B: Qs 10-23), that are responsible for deep processing, forming and revising internal mental models and receiving and producing messages in the target language, and c) Compensation strategies (6 items; Part C: Qs 24-29), which include guessing and using gestures which are needed to overcome limitations in language learning since they are intended to make up for missing knowledge. Indirect strategies "those which provide indirect support for language learning such as planning, co-operating and seeking opportunities" are divided into: a) Metacognitive strategies (9 items; Part D: Qs 30-38), which are techniques used for organizing, planning, monitoring, focusing and self evaluating. They "allow learners to control their own cognition"; b) Affective strategies (6 items; Part E: Qs 39-44), which are used for handling feelings, attitudes and motivations, and c) Social strategies (6 items; Part F: Qs 45-50), which are used for interaction by asking questions, and cooperating with others in the learning process. **2)**

Nelson English language proficiency test was used to determine the relationship between strategies used and students' proficiency (Appendix 2).

Design and procedures

The participants who attended this study were 90 MA students (females and males) that were selected from faculties of foreign language, Department of English Language Teaching from Tehran University and Islamic Azad University (Tehran Branch of Science and Research) ,Shahid Beheshti University . Ex post facto design was used, because there wasn't any treatment. Ex post facto design is non experimental research technique. Nelson English language proficiency test was used to homogenize the participants in the study. They included three levels: Elementary (24), intermediate (33), Advanced (33). Their age ranged from 23 to 28.

Then, Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was given to participants to find out the relation between language learning strategies and English proficiency. Questionnaire was distributed by the researcher during students 'regular English classes in the academic year 2013-2014. The students that participated in this survey were informed that there was no right or wrong answers to any questions and that their confidentiality was secured, and their responses were used for research purposes only. The participants were informed that their participation is entirely voluntary. They didn't give their names; only their age, gender, university average and year were required. The researcher got back questionnaires and their responses were analyzed .

Data analysis

In the quantitative data analysis, SPSS version 13 was used to compute descriptive statistics, MANOVA and Pearson product moment correlations were conducted to simply investigate the relationship between strategies used and the student's proficiency.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter analyzes the data through statistical methods. This process can help us in categorizing data, identifying variables and their relationships which finally lead to research conclusion. It should be mentioned that data analysis would be done in two phases: descriptive and inferential statistics, the former was used for making the gathered data categorized in tables while the latter represented the conclusion based on the sample characteristics. This study employed descriptive statistics at the first stage and the inferential one afterwards. Consequently, the descriptive statistics included the mean, standard deviation and so on whereas Friedman test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were utilized in inferential statistics.

Descriptive statistics

Data, in this section, were analyzed through descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage and other statistical indices. Research population included all MA students who studied TESOL in Tehran University, Shahid Beheshti University and Azad University (Tehran Branch of Science and Research) in 2012-2013. Regarding the population size taken as 120, the sample of 90 students was out, According Nelson English language proficiency and it was used to homogenize. Also, the applicants were selected through random sampling.

Table 1: Frequency distribution of sampling applicants based on University Variable

Index / Variable		Frequency	Percent
University	Tehran University	15	16.7
	Shahid Beheshti University	15	16.7
	Azad University	60	66.7
Total		90	100

Table 1 shows the distribution of applicants based on their universities. As it is seen, 16.7% of applicants studied in Tehran University, 18.7% in Shahid Beheshti University and 66.7% in Azad University.

Table 2: Frequency distribution and percentage of sampling based on Gender Variable

Index / Variable		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	22	24.4
	Female	68	75.6
Total		90	100

As table 2 shows, 75% of applicants are women while just 24.4% of them are men.

Table 3: Frequency distribution and percentage of sample based on Age Variable

Index / Variable		Frequency	Percent
Age	Over 25	30	33.3
	Below 25	60	66.7
Total		90	100

Table 3 illustrates the distribution of applicants regarding their age. As it is seen, 33.3% of applicants aged below 25 and 66.7% were over than 25 years old.

language proficiency variable

Table 4: Frequency distribution and percentage of sample based on Language Proficiency Variable

Index / Variable		Frequency	Percent
Language Proficiency	Elementary	24	26.7
	Intermediate	33	36.7
	Advanced	33	36.7
Total		90	100

Table 4 shows the distribution of applicants on the basis of their language proficiency. As it is observable, 26.7% of applicants have weak language proficiency, 36.7% have intermediate language proficiency and 36.7% with advanced level of language proficiency.

Q1**.** What learning strategies students of Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran University and Azad University use? This question would be answered through Friedman Test.

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Table 5: Results of Friedman Test for students' priorities in learning strategies in Tehran University

	Variable	Point	Priority
1	Memory Strategies	3.77	First
2	Cognitive Strategies	3.40	Fourth
3	Compensation Strategies	3.40	Fourth
4	Metacognitive Strategies	3.47	Third
5	Affective Strategies	3.57	Second
6	Social Strategies	3.40	Fourth

Findings represented that students of Tehran University selected Memories Strategies as their first learning strategies, then Affective Strategies which ranked second and finally Metacognitive Strategies were the third priority of Students in Tehran University. Thus, they set their main priority over Memories Strategies.

Table 6: Results of Friedman Test for students' priorities in learning strategies in Shahid Beheshti University

	Variable	Point	Priority
1	Memory Strategies	3.90	Second
2	Cognitive Strategies	4.07	First
3	Compensation Strategies	3.67	Fourth
4	Metacognitive Strategies	3.77	Third
5	Affective Strategies	3.50	Fifth
6	Social Strategies	2.10	Sixth

Regarding the table, it can be concluded that the applicants studying at Shahid Beheshti University gave the highest priority to Cognitive Strategies. Afterwards, Memories Strategies were chosen as their second priority and Metacognitive Strategies as the third selection. Therefore, students of Shahid Beheshti University preferred Cognitive Strategies to other learning strategies.

Table 7: Results of Friedman Test for students' priorities in learning strategies in Azad University

	Variable	Point	Priority
1	Memory Strategies	3.78	First
2	Cognitive Strategies	3.55	Third
3	Compensation Strategies	3.60	Second
4	Metacognitive Strategies	3.55	Third
5	Affective Strategies	3.23	Fifth
6	Social Strategies	3.29	Fourth

Students of Azad University, as the table shows, placed their key priority on Memories Strategies, Compensation Strategies as their second learning strategies and Metacognitive Strategies as the third ones. So, cognitive Strategies are of the most important for applicants studying in Beheshti University.

Q2. Is there any significant difference between learning strategies and research variables such as age, gender?
To answer this question, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was utilized.

Table 8: Descriptive statistics on learning strategies scores used by students based on Age variable

		Number	Mean	SD
Memory Strategies	Younger than 25	31	2.2258	0.31195
	25 or Older	59	2.1695	0.34877
Cognitive Strategies	Younger than 25	31	2.1532	0.40660
	25 or Older	59	2.1864	0.31689
Compensation Strategies	Younger than 25	31	2.1290	0.31538
	25 or Older	59	2.2203	0.32525
Metacognitive Strategies	Younger than 25	31	2.2419	0.25400
	25 or Older	59	2.1441	0.34803
Affective Strategies	Younger than 25	31	2.3226	0.35469
	25 or Older	59	2.0169	0.41488
Social Strategies	Younger than 25	31	2.0968	0.45496
	25 or Older	59	2.0678	0.37666

Table 9: The results of analysis of variance for comparing learning strategies scores based on Age variable

Index / Source of Variation		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance
AGE	Memory Strategies	0.064	1	0.064	0.569	0.453
	Cognitive Strategies	0.022	1	0.022	0.183	0.670
	Compensation Strategies	0.169	1	0.169	1.635	0.204
	Metacognitive Strategies	0.195	1	0.195	1.912	0.170
	Affective Strategies	1.898	1	1.898	12.143	0.001
	Social Strategies	0.017	1	0.017	0.104	0.748
Error	Memory Strategies	9.974	88	0.113		
	Cognitive Strategies	10.784	88	0.123		
	Compensation Strategies	9.119	88	0.104		
	Metacognitive Strategies	8.961	88	0.102		
	Affective Strategies	13.757	88	0.156		
	Social Strategies	14.438	88	0.164		
Total	Memory Strategies	441.250	90			
	Cognitive Strategies	436.563	90			
	Compensation Strategies	440.500	90			
	Metacognitive Strategies	436.000	90			
	Affective Strategies	421.000	90			
	Social Strategies	403.000	90			

Regarding the table, it can be claimed that there would be a significant difference (F = 12.143 and DF= 1 and 88) between the students who used Affective Strategies in different ages. Consequently, applicants younger than 25 have used this kind of learning strategies more than the students over 25 years old. There would not be any significant difference in other factors.

Table 10: Descriptive statistics on learning strategies scores used by students based on Gender variable

		Number	Mean	SD
Memory Strategies	Male	22	2.2273	0.33549
	Female	68	2.1765	0.33751
Cognitive Strategies	Male	22	2.3295	0.27153
	Female	68	2.1250	0.35749
Compensation Strategies	Male	22	2.2045	0.29516
	Female	68	2.1838	0.33351
Metacognitive Strategies	Male	22	2.3182	0.24618
	Female	68	2.1324	0.33028
Affective Strategies	Male	22	2.0909	0.29424
	Female	68	2.1324	0.45398
Social Strategies	Male	22	2.1818	0.39477
	Female	68	2.0441	0.40275

Table 11: The results of analysis of variance for comparing learning strategies scores based on Gender variable

Index / Source of Variation		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance
Gender Effect	Memory Strategies	0.043	1	0.043	0.378	0.540
	Cognitive Strategies	0.695	1	0.695	6.053	0.016
	Compensation Strategies	0.007	1	0.007	0.068	0.795
	Metacognitive Strategies	0.574	1	0.574	5.886	0.017
	Affective Strategies	0.029	1	0.029	0.161	0.689
	Social Strategies	0.315	1	0.315	1.961	0.165
Error	Memory Strategies	9.996	88	0.114		
	Cognitive Strategies	10.111	88	0.115		
	Compensation Strategies	9.282	88	0.105		
	Metacognitive Strategies	8.582	88	0.098		
	Affective Strategies	15.627	88	0.178		
	Social Strategies	14.140	88	0.161		
Total	Memory Strategies	441.250	90			
	Cognitive Strategies	436.563	90			
	Compensation Strategies	440.500	90			
	Metacognitive Strategies	436.000	90			
	Affective Strategies	421.000	90			
	Social Strategies	403.000	90			

As table shows, there is a significant difference (F= 6.503 for Cognitive Strategies and F= 5.886 for Metacognitive Strategies) between Cognitive Strategies and Metacognitive Strategies regarding the gender (DF = 1 and 88 and the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$). Thus, men used these strategies more than women. There would be no other significant difference in factors given in tables.

Q3. Is there any significant difference between learning strategies and language proficiency in students?

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Table 12: Descriptive statistics on learning strategies scores used by students based on Language Proficiency variable

Variable		Number	Mean	SD
Memory Strategies	Elementary skills	24	1.7500	0.27584
	Intermediate skills	33	2.2424	0.17099
	Advanced skills	33	2.4545	0.09792
Cognitive Strategies	Elementary skills	24	1.7917	0.28233
	Intermediate skills	33	2.1515	0.26472
	Advanced skills	33	2.4773	0.07298
Compensation Strategies	Elementary skills	24	2.1667	0.35098
	Intermediate skills	33	2.1212	0.25095
	Advanced skills	33	2.2727	0.35556
Metacognitive Strategies	Elementary skills	24	1.9583	0.20412
	Intermediate skills	33	2.0758	0.33357
	Advanced skills	33	2.4394	0.16572
Affective Strategies	Elementary skills	24	2.0208	0.49955
	Intermediate skills	33	2.0606	0.36992
	Advanced skills	33	2.2576	0.37752
Social Strategies	Elementary skills	24	2.0208	0.49955
	Intermediate skills	33	1.9848	0.31832
	Advanced skills	33	2.2121	0.37563

Table 13: The results of analysis of variance for comparing learning strategies scores based on Language Proficiency variable

Index / Source of Variation		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance
AGE	Memory Strategies	7.046	2	3.523	102.432	0.000
	Cognitive Strategies	6.560	2	3.280	67.204	0.000
	Compensation Strategies	0.395	2	0.197	1.932	0.151
	Metacognitive Strategies	3.758	2	1.879	30.284	0.000
	Affective Strategies	0.977	2	0.488	2.894	0.061
	Social Strategies	0.958	2	0.479	3.089	0.051
Error	Memory Strategies	2.992	87	0.034		
	Cognitive Strategies	4.246	87	0.049		
	Compensation Strategies	8.894	87	0.102		
	Metacognitive Strategies	5.398	87	0.062		
	Affective Strategies	14.679	87	0.169		
	Social Strategies	13.497	87	0.155		
Total	Memory Strategies	441.250	90			
	Cognitive Strategies	436.563	90			
	Compensation Strategies	440.500	90			
	Metacognitive Strategies	436.000	90			
	Affective Strategies	421.000	90			
	Social Strategies	403.000	90			

Analysis of variance in table 13 shows that there would be significant difference in using Memory Strategies. In addition, it is observable that there would be a significant difference in the extent students employed Memory Strategies, F =102.432, p< 0.001. Analyzing the means in groups, it could be inferred that the students with high level of language proficiency used more Memory Strategies compared to students with intermediate or elementary level. Furthermore, students who had intermediate level in language proficiency used more Memories Strategies than those with low level of language proficiency.

The results of Analysis of variance given in table 13 represented a significant difference in Cognitive Strategies. Findings revealed that there would be significant difference between three levels of Cognitive Strategies (P<0.001 and F=67.204). Examining the means of groups, it could be concluded that students with high level of language proficiency used more Cognitive Strategies compared to students with intermediate or elementary level. Furthermore, students

who had intermediate level in language proficiency used more Cognitive Strategies than those with low level of language proficiency.

The results of Analysis of variance given in table 13 revealed that a significant difference existed in Metacognitive Strategies. Findings revealed that there would be significant difference between three levels of Metacognitive Strategies ($P<0.001$ and $F=30.284$). Examining the means of groups, it could be concluded that students with high level of language proficiency surpassed students with intermediate or elementary level in using more Metacognitive Strategies. There would not be any other difference between the data given in table.

Table 14: The results of post-hoc Scheffé Test for comparing the extent students used learning strategies based on Language Proficiency Variable

Variable			Mean difference	SD	Significance
Memory Strategies	Elementary skills	Intermediate skills	-0.4924*	0.04975	0.000
		Advanced skills	-0.7045*	0.04975	0.000
	Intermediate skills	Elementary skills	0.4924*	0.04975	0.000
		Advanced skills	-0.2121*	0.04566	0.000
	Advanced skills	Advanced skills	0.7045*	0.04975	0.000
		Intermediate skills	0.2121*	0.04566	0.000
Cognitive Strategies	Elementary skills	Intermediate skills	-0.3598*	0.05927	0.000
		Advanced skills	-0.6856*	0.05927	0.000
	Intermediate skills	Elementary skills	0.3598*	0.05927	0.000
		Advanced skills	-0.3258*	0.05439	0.000
	Advanced skills	Advanced skills	0.6856*	0.05927	0.000
		Intermediate skills	0.3258*	0.05439	0.000
Metacognitive Strategies	Elementary skills	Intermediate skills	-0.1174	0.06682	0.219
		Advanced skills	-0.4811*	0.06682	0.000
	Intermediate skills	Elementary skills	0.1174	0.06682	0.219
		Advanced skills	-0.3636*	0.06132	0.000
	Advanced skills	Advanced skills	0.4811*	0.06682	0.000
		Intermediate skills	0.3636*	0.06132	0.000

According to table 14. Analyzing the means in groups, it could be understood that the students with high level of language proficiency used more memory strategies compared to students with intermediate or elementary level. Furthermore, students who had intermediate level in language proficiency used more memories strategies than those with low level of language proficiency.

Regarding the results of the first research question, it could be claimed that memory strategies were of the highest priority for students of Tehran and Azad University and of the second priority for Shahid Beheshti University. Also, applicants in Tehran and Azad Universities placed their key priorities over affective and compensation strategies respectively. Metacognitive strategies, on the third priority, were employed by all students in the three studied universities. Totally speaking, it can be claimed that the extent to which students in different universities employed strategies were of fluctuation and no exact rule to determine the domination of a specific learning strategy over other ones.

Some researchers (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985) speculated that what constitute good strategies might indeed be ethnocentric and context-based (as their findings revealed that Spanish learners preferred affective and memory strategies more frequently than other strategies). However,

existing research on LLS has heavily relied on learners' strategy use in language learning contexts.

These findings might be in accordance with the idea of Bremner (1998) who proved that "the Hong Kong students used compensation strategies more than any other strategy, and this was followed by metacognitive strategies". ". Although research findings on the relationship between types of learning strategies used by learners are different in conclusion (for example, Cohen (1998) proved that Chinese students mostly used compensation strategies whereas the Puerto Rican and Egyptian students reported only a moderate use of compensation strategies (ibid)). This section findings completely disagree with findings of Nikoopour, Amini Farsani and Kashefi Neishabouri (2011) which revealed that, "in terms of overall strategy use, Iranian EFL learners are, in general, moderate strategy users'. Their results showed that "Iranian EFL learners preferred to use metacognitive as the most frequently used language learning strategy and memory as the least frequently one" (p. 359).

In general, results of this research showed that learning strategies played a significant role in successful language learning and consequently language proficiency. However, taking the data analyzed through statistical methods (Descriptive and Inferential) into account, it was revealed that there would be a significant difference between Cognitive Strategies and Metacognitive Strategies regarding the *gender*. Thus, it was revealed that men used these strategies more than women. These results have put a question mark over the findings of Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) who indicated that women are often believed to be better language learners than men. Also, it disagree with the Ellis's research findings (1994, p.202) in which she suggested women were of superior language learning ability beacons they might be more "open to new linguistic forms" and "more likely to rid themselves of interlanguage forms that deviate from target language norms". Additionally, it disagrees with findings of Mousapour Negari and Solaymani (2013) who found that "analyzing the difference of strategy use between male and female learners, the results on the strategy use of male and female learners showed that female learners used language learning strategies more than male learners in all subcategories except cognitive strategy" (p.343).

Regarding the memory strategies, analysis related to language proficiency variable showed that there would be significant difference in using this strategy. Analyzing the means in groups, it could be understood that the students with high level of language proficiency used more memory strategies compared to students with intermediate or elementary level. Furthermore, students who had intermediate level in language proficiency used more memories strategies than those with low level of language proficiency. These findings are in line with the results of the study of Kaylani (1996) which revealed that EFL learners with higher proficiency in Jordan high school used memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies by far much more than less proficient ones. In the same study, Hoang (1999) found more proficient learners use more strategies and more effectively than the ones with lower levels.

The situation in this research is similar for cognitive and metacognitive strategies for which students with high level of language proficiency used more cognitive strategies compared to students with intermediate or elementary level although some studies (Green, 1991 and Mullines,

1992) revealed that there wouldn't be any significant relationship between language proficiency and using learning strategies. Therefore, these results are in line with Park (1997) who showed that there would be a linear correlation between language learning strategies use and language proficiency.

CONCLUSION

This study will facilitate to aid English language learners in the classroom and the effective strategies that prove successful in achievement, along with developing valuable professional development training to serve English language learner teachers and students. Also findings of the study would have implications for effective learning as well as for effective teaching English by Iranian. The study can add more to our understanding of the relationship between learning strategies and ESL learners' achievement.

Limitation of the study

Due to the generalizability limitations of the present study, more research can be done by subjects with different language backgrounds, age ranges and proficiency levels. A future research can measure some internal aspect of the learners, such as conduct a standardized interview with the teachers, and incorporate the data in the interpretation of the results. The observation instrument can be modified to better match the context of Iranian classes, which seem to be different from those initially observed using the research instrument utilized in this study. The research might be replicated with higher and/or lower proficiency-level participants, for a profile of such classes, and comparison with the findings of this study.

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CHILDREN'S ATTITUDE IN READING STORY BOOK ACTIVITIES OUT OF SCHOOL

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ABSTRACT
Children's attitudes serve as guides to behavior and profoundly affect the progress made toward educational goals and degree of children's participation in educational activities. A positive attitude produces a motivational stimulus that promotes and sustains learning. On the other hand, a negative attitude results in a lack of persistent effort, motivation, an abundance of avoidance maneuvers and various misbehavior problems. Family literacy does not merely have to be restricted to the school environment, early childhood literacy programs, or home literacy bags provided by teacher. It can be implemented in home by families through their everyday lives and routines. Children who participate in reading story activities realize that print differs from speech and that it carries messages, reading stories to children is a social activity, children almost never encounter simply an oral rendering of text. The method of research used in this research was quantitative method, where the data collected and analyze through questionnaire. The results of this research are children in FSB (Family Story Book) agree that reading is enjoying rather same as children in FWSB (Family Without Story Book) and frequency of students of FSB in reading novel is little bit often than FWSB.

KEYWORDS: Family literacy, Children, Reading, Story Book.

INTRODUCTION

Today's teachers are confronted with children who display a poor attitude toward school in general and reading in particular. This situation is anxiety-producing for the teachers, as well as for the administrators. Attitudes vary among students and cause children to respond to a situation either favorably or unfavorably. Thus children's attitudes serve as guides to behavior and profoundly affect the progress made toward educational goals and the level and degree of children's participation in educational activities. A positive attitude produces a motivational stimulus that promotes and sustains learning. On the other hand, a negative attitude results in a lack of persistent effort, a lack of motivation, an abundance of avoidance maneuvers, and various misbehavior problems.

Some educators believe that the child's positive attitude is the foundation upon which reading growth and improvement are built. For example, Alexander stated that "if attitude, the first prerequisite for reading, is not positive, then it is likely that the others (motivation, attention, comprehension, and acceptance) will not occur at all or will occur haphazardly" (Smith, 1968). Likewise, Smith (1968) found "that the relationship between general reading ability and attitude

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toward reading as a school activity approached a substantial level". Obviously, the teacher must take steps to ensure the development of constructive attitudes among the children if progress is to be made in attaining the goals of reading.

Children are not born with positive or negative attitudes, for attitudes are developed as children become involved with people and things in their environment. Interests, tastes, and habits cause attitudes to evolve as children grow, mature, and interact with others during the preschool years. Therefore, attitudes are developed during the preschool period and condition the children to like or dislike reading. These attitudes become evident as the children enter the elementary classroom. Although modification is difficult, teachers can bring about change in children's attitudes. Consequentially, "one of the most important aims of the beginning reading period is to help the child develop a positive attitude toward reading' (Smith, 1968).

Because the environment has such a big impact, the home life is all-important in helping children develop a positive attitude toward reading. Carter and McGinnis stated that the "attitudes of parents of superior readers emphasize the value of communication and the development of language skills" (Teale, 1981). Children who see individuals reading books and enjoying the activity will have a different attitude toward reading from children who never see their parents, brothers, sisters, or playmates looking at or reading books. Over a period of time, children gradually assimilate attitudes from the actions and beliefs of those with whom they regularly come in contact. Significant other~ -children and adults held in high esteem by children—play important roles in attitude formation. No doubt, children who have developed a positive attitude toward reading have "probably acquired that attitude over a long period of time in direct contact with books and people who read" (Teale, 1981).

Walberg and Tsai (1983) concluded that factors contributing to a positive attitude toward reading among adolescents included believing that reading is important, enjoying reading, having a high self-concept as a reader, and having a verbally stimulating home environment where verbal interaction takes place regularly.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Family Literacy in the Home Environment

As research has well established, family involvement has tremendous potential for school readiness and enriching a child's literacy development (Crawford & Zygouris-Cole, 2006; Santos et al., 2012). Family literacy does not merely have to be restricted to the school environment, early childhood literacy programs, or home literacy bags provided by teacher. It can be implemented in the home by families through their everyday lives and routines. Teachers can encourage families to create literacy-rich home environments that will support their child's literacy development (Santos et al., 2012). Families should be encouraged to notice and make use of the print material around their home and community environment, such as food labels, cookbooks and recipes, magazines, newspapers, and books (Santos et al., 2012). Families can help their children understand print environment by pointing to it and reading the print to their child.

Families can use their daily routines to encourage emerging literacy and social-emotional growth (Santos et al., 2012). One daily routine that can enrich literacy development is meal time. Preparing a meal, eating together, and cleaning up afterwards are a great opportunities for literacy enhancement. As children engage in these routines they are learning self help skills, the ability to read and follow a recipe, and cooperative social skills. Families can introduce and encourage new vocabulary words during conservations around the table. Running errands such as going to the grocery store is another literacy opportunity for literacy development. Children can help write and read a grocery list, as well as point out when they see the item on the list. During a car or bus ride, on a walk, families can share stories, sings songs, read a book or listen to audio books (Santos et al., 2012). Families can use all their resources around them to encourage and expand their child's literacy and language development.

The Benefits of Reading Story Book

Numerous correlation studies have documented the relationship between reading stories to children and their subsequent success on reading readiness tasks and reading achievement in school (Burroughs, 1972; Chomsky, 1972; Durkin, 1974-75; Fodor, 1966; Irwin, 1960; Moon & Wells, 1979). These studies found, for example, that being read to at home correlates positively with levels of language and vocabulary development of pre-readers. Wells' research (1982, 1985) with the Bristol Language Development Project examined the effect of the most frequently occurring literacy activities and found that listening to stories was the only activity among them that was associated with reading achievement in school.

Children who participate in reading story activities realize that print differs from speech and that it carries messages. They approach reading with the expectation that it will be meaningful (Clay, 1979; Smith, 1978). Holdaway (1979) notes that reading to children helps them learn: (a) where a book begins and ends, (b) that the message begins with the print at the top of the page and carries over to the next page when it is turned, and (c) that the message moves from left to right and line by line. Because storybook reading is a pleasurable experience, it also helps children develop positive attitudes toward reading.

Snow and Ninio (1986) conclude from their research that reading to children contributes significantly to their literacy development as they learn the basic rules related to the use of books and the meaning of texts. Teale (1984) agrees with these researchers; he reports that reading to children helps to foster four areas of early literacy development that seem to be crucial in the initial phases of learning to read. He suggests that reading to children develops: (a) their awareness of the functions and uses of written language or what reading is all about and what it feels like, (b) concepts about print, books, and reading, and the form and structure of written language itself, (c) positive attitudes towards reading, and (d) children's self monitoring and predictive strategies as a result of being read to.

The Importance of Verbal Interaction during Reading Story book

It has also been found that almost all early readers (defined as children who have learned to read before entering school) have been read to frequently by parents or older siblings (Clark, 1976; Teale, 1984). Similarly, children who learn to read successfully in school also tend to be children to whom stories have been read at home (Durkin, 1974). Generally, these studies have involved children from middle-class homes, where reading to children and verbal interaction with them tend to be more prevalent than in other homes (Teale & Sulzby, 1987). Teale (1981) questions what it is about the read aloud event that enhances literacy development. Those who have asked such questions have tended to do so from a perspective of social interaction. Bloome (1985), for instance, notes that reading aloud to a child is a social process as well as a process of communication. A read-aloud event involves social relationships among people: teachers and students, parents and children, authors and readers. Social integration surrounds and influences interaction with printed text.

Because reading stories to children is a social activity, children almost never encounter simply an oral rendering of text. Rather, the author's words are augmented and shaped by the interpretation and social interaction of the adult reader and the child as they cooperatively negotiate and reconstruct meaning from the text (Morrow, 1988; Teale, Martinez, & Glass, 1989). Teale and Sulzby (1987) feel that what the adult and child talk about in the interaction holds the key to the effects of storybook reading..

A number of studies of shared book experiences, both in home and in school environments, have illustrated the interactive nature of story reading and point to implications for developing the use of story reading as an instructional strategy in the classroom (Flood, 1977; Heath, 1980; Morrow, 1987, 1988; Ninio & Bruner, 1978; Roser & Martinez, 1985; Yaden & McGee, 1983). The results of these investigations demonstrate ^that reading a book to a child may not be sufficient for maximum literacy growth. Rather, it is the talk that surrounds the text that is read that may be the key.

An analysis of the concept 'attitude'

The concept 'attitude' is defined as the way in which a person thinks (cognitive component) feels (affective component) and intends to behave (behavioral component) towards something. It is the summation of the three components that is emphasized for determining the overall attitude and not a particular component (Rajecki, 1982).

Modifying one's attitude and assumptions is not an easy matter and those held in respect of language are held more tenaciously because many of them have been acquired as a result of growing up in a particular community or as part of acquiring the language itself. They are a very intimate part of people's way of viewing the world. Therefore, arguments must be put forward for a new perspective in such a way that people will not feel that their existing attitudes and assumptions are under attack and therefore need defending, but be encouraged to rethink them in the light of new understanding the language study has to offer (Doughty and Thomton, 1973). Allport (1967) defines attitude as emotional and mental readiness or a preliminary tendency based on experience, knowledge, emotion or motivation on any subject, social topic or event. An attitude is attributed to an individual and it is a tendency that arranges in an orderly manner that

individual's thoughts, feelings, and behaviours in relation with a psychological object (Smith, 1968).

Most of the researches show that the success in reading skills is closely correlated to the attitude towards reading (Guthrie and Wigfield, 2000; Wigfield and Asher, 2002; Morgan and Fuchs, 2007). In this regard, it has been concluded that students' attitudes towards reading are the leading factor that directly affects their reading performances (McKenna and Kear, 1990; Kush, Marley and Brookhart, 2005). While some researchers state that the positive attitudes towards reading make academic success increase, the others state that success in reading comprehension makes students develop positive attitudes towards reading (Kush and Watkins, 1996; Kush, Matley and Brookhart, 2005).

However, it is known that the longer the time spent on reading the greater the probability that students' reading comprehension success is affected positively (Mazzoni, Gambrell and Korkeamaki, 1999). According to the researches (Altunay, 2000; Kılıç, 2004; Balcı, 2009) carried out in the literature, as the level in students' attitudes towards reading rises the marks they obtain from exams on reading comprehension also increase and the time devoted to reading increases as well.

The factors of attitude toward reading

Walberg and Tsai (1983) concluded that factors contributing to a positive attitude toward reading among adolescents included believing that reading is important, enjoying reading, having a high self-concept as a reader, and having a verbally stimulating home environment where verbal interaction takes place regularly. Spiegel (1994) reported that what parents do in their homes (their literacy environment) significantly affected the development of positive attitudes toward reading in their children. According to Spiegel, home literacy environments included, among other things, artifacts (books, newspapers, pencils, paper, letters, junk mail) and events (reading to children).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

How is children's attitude of family with story book reading practice and without it?
How often do children engage in literacy activities out of school?

METHODOLOGY

This research was quantitative method, where the data collected and analyzed through questionnaire. In this research, the writer wanted to measure reading short story in children's attitude toward reading and engaging in literacy activities out of School in SMP Muhammadiyah 02. The place of research was located on Jl. Pahlawan No. 67.

The data of this research was analyzed based on calculating the percentage of following the pattern of Muhajir (1979), the calculation is based on the answers we receive. The consideration that the questions arise may not be answered by the respondents. After analyzing the data, this research will be arranged in tabular form. The arrangement of this table is an advanced form of

data analysis. Incoming data are recorded initially and then adjusted to the grouping that has been done then pulled in a combined figures used as the basis for analysis. The result of this research will be seen in the tables.

According to Uma (2006) numerical scale (numerical scale) similar to the semantic differential scale, with per differences in terms of numbers on a scale of 5 points or 7 points provided, with bipolar adjectives on both ends. This is an interval scale with composition as follows:
Numerical scale used to measure attitudes, opinion, and perception of person/group of people about social phenomena.

No	Item	Score			
		1	2	3	4

1. Number 4 states for the highest positive statement *(strongly agree)*
2. Number 3 states for a high positive statement *(agree*)
3. Number 2 States for low positive statements *(disagree)*
4. Number 1 states for the lowest positive statement *(strongly disagree)*

The scale of measurement to analyze the data in this research was used nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio scale (Nasution: 2007). In this case, the nominal scale is merely a label given to the categories of gender of respondents. The next interval scale in this study is a classification of the object of research, in this case the researchers wanted to examine, how the male and female teacher communicates to the student. As for any questions, indicators are provided to respondents answered using the answer choices.

The method which is using to analyze the data through a list of structured questions to obtain information from a number of respondents. List of structured questions to obtain information from a number of respondents. The question list is then distributed to the respondents, the completed questionnaires into data ready to be processed:

Children's Attitudes toward Reading

1. I read only if I have to (reverse coded).
a. *strongly agree* b. *agree* c. *disagree* d. *strongly disagree*
2. I like talking about books (novel, magazine, etc) with other people.
a. *strongly agree* b. *agree* c. *disagree* d. *strongly disagree*
3. I would be happy if someone gave me a book as a present.
a. *strongly agree* b. *agree* c. *disagree* d. *strongly disagree*
4. I think reading is boring (reverse coded).
a. *strongly agree* b. *agree* c. *disagree* d. *strongly disagree*
5. I enjoy reading.
a. *strongly agree* b. *agree* c. *disagree* d. *strongly disagree*

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How often do you read these things after school?

1. I read books that explain things.
a. *every day or almost every day*,
b. b. *once or twice a week*,
c. *once or twice a month*, and
d. *never or almost never*,

2. I read magazines.
a. *every day or almost every day*,
b. b. *once or twice a week*,
c. *once or twice a month*, and
d. *never or almost never*,

3. I read newspapers.
a. *every day or almost every day*,
b. *once or twice a week*,
c. *once or twice a month*, and
d. *never or almost never*,

4. I read novel.
a. *every day or almost every day*,
b. *once or twice a week*,
c. *once or twice a month*, and
d. *never or almost never*,

5. I read brochures or catalogs.
a. *every day or almost every day*,
b. b. *once or twice a week*,
c. *once or twice a month*, and
d. *never or almost never*,

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of this research will be presented as research findings as follows:

Attitude Toward Reading

Table 1: I read only if I have to (reverse coded): Negative Question

No	Educational Background	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	1	10%	2	20%	6	60%	1	10%
2.	FWSB	-	0%	5	50%	1	10%	4	40%

Note:
FSB = Family Story Book
FWSB = Family Without Story Book

Students were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement on a 4-point scale, as follows: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. Responses to each statement

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were averaged for each student. Students who, on average, agreed a strongly or agreed with the statements were assigned to the low category of the index. Students in the high category disagreed strongly or disagreed, on average, with the statements. Students in the medium category had other combinations of responses.

From the data above, the family with storybook reading, there are one (10%) students strongly agreed that he read only if he had to and two (20%) agreed. A relatively high number, six (60 %) of them disagreed and one (10 %) strongly disagreed. Meanwhile, the family without story book reading, there are no one (0%) students strongly agreed that he read only if he had to and five (50%) agreed. A relatively high number, one (10%) of them disagreed and four (40%) strongly disagreed. Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it, positive attitude of FSB toward this question is higher than FWSB with total of high category 70%>50%. It means that most of FSB don't agree that someone read only if he/she has to more than FWSB.

Table 2: I like talking about books (novel, magazine, etc) with other people

No	Educational Background	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	3	30%	4	40%	2	20%	1	10%
2.	FWSB	4	40%	6	60%	-	0%	-	0%

Students were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement on a 4-point scale, as follows: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. Responses to each statement were averaged for each student. Students who, on average, agreed a strongly or agreed with the statements were assigned to the high category of the index. Students in the low category disagreed strongly or disagreed, on average, with the statements. Students in the medium category had other combinations of responses.

From the data above, A relatively high number, there are three (30%) students of family with storybook reading strongly agreed that he like talking about books (novel, magazine, etc) with other people and four (40%) agreed, two (20 %) of them disagreed and one (10 %) strongly disagreed. Meanwhile, A relatively high number, there are four (40%) students of the family without story book reading strongly agreed that he like talking about books (novel, magazine, etc) with other people and six (60%) agreed, no one (0 %) of them disagreed and strongly disagreed. Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it, positive attitude of FSB toward this question is lower than FWSB with total of high category 70% < 100%. It means that most of FWSB agree that someone like talking about books (novel, magazine, etc) with other people more than FSB.

Table 3: I would be happy if someone gave me a book as a present

No	Educational Background	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	4	40%	5	50%	1	10%	-	0%
2.	FWSB	1	10%	5	50%	4	40%	-	0%

Students were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement on a 4-point scale, as follows: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. Responses to each statement

were averaged for each student. Students who, on average, agreed a strongly or agreed with the statements were assigned to the high category of the index. Students in the low category disagreed strongly or disagreed, on average, with the statements. Students in the medium category had other combinations of responses.

From the data above, A relatively high number, there are four (40%) students of family with storybook reading strongly agreed that they would be happy if someone gave me a book as a present., etc) with other people and five (50%) agreed, one (10 %) of them disagreed and no one (0 %) strongly disagreed. Meanwhile, A relatively high number, , there are only one(10%) students of the family without story book reading strongly agreed that he like would be happy if someone gave me a book as a present and five (50%) agreed, four (40 %) of them disagreed and no one (0%) strongly disagreed. Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it, positive attitude of FSB toward this question is higher than FWSB with total of high category 90% < 60%. It means that most of FSB agree that someone would be happy if someone gave me a book as a present more than FWSB.

Table 4: I think reading is boring (reverse coded)

No	Educational Background	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	-	0%	4	40%	6	60%	-	0%
2.	FWSB	-	0%	2	20%	4	40%	4	40%

Students were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement on a 4-point scale, as follows: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. Responses to each statement were averaged for each student. Students who, on average, agreed a strongly or agreed with the statements were assigned to the low category of the index. Students in the high category disagreed strongly or disagreed, on average, with the statements. Students in the medium category had other combinations of responses.

From the data above, the family with storybook reading, there is no one (0%) students strongly agreed that they think reading is boring and four (40%) agreed. A relatively high number, six (60 %) of them disagreed and no one (0 %) strongly disagreed. Meanwhile, the family without story book reading, there is no one (0%) students strongly agreed that they think reading is boring and two (20%) agreed. A relatively high number, four (40%) of them disagreed and four (40 %) strongly disagreed. Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it, positive attitude of FSB toward this question is lower than FWSB with total of high category 60% < 80%. It means that most of students in FWSB don't agree that reading is boring more than FSB.

Table 5: I enjoy reading

No	Educational Background	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	4	40%	5	50%	1	10%	-	0%
2.	FWSB	3	30%	6	60%	1	10%	-	0%

Students were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement on a 4-point scale, as follows: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. Responses to each statement

were averaged for each student. Students who, on average, agreed a strongly or agreed with the statements were assigned to the high category of the index. Students in the low category disagreed strongly or disagreed, on average, with the statements. Students in the medium category had other combinations of responses.

From the data above, A relatively high number, there are four (40%) students of family with storybook reading strongly agreed that they enjoy reading, etc) with other people and five (50%) agreed, one (10%) of them disagreed and no one (0 %) strongly disagreed. Meanwhile, A relatively high number, there are three (30%) students of the family without story book reading strongly agreed that they enjoy reading, and six (60%) agreed, one (10 %) of them disagreed and no one (0%) strongly disagreed. Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it, positive attitude of FSB toward this question is little bite same with FWSB with total of high category 90%. It means that students in FSB agree that reading is enjoying rather same as students in FWSB.

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Table 6: The books that explain things

No	Educational Background	*every day or almost every day*		*once or twice a week*		*once or twice a month*		*never or almost never*	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	7	70%	3	30%	-	0%	-	0%
2.	FWSB	7	70%	2	20%	1	10%	-	0%

From the data above, a relatively high number, there are seven (70%) students of family with storybook reading read the books that explain things *every day or almost every day*, three (30%) once or twice a week, and no one (0%) did it once or twice a month and never or almost never. Meanwhile, A relatively high number, there are seven (70%) students of the family without story book reading read the books that explain things *every day or almost every day*, two (20%) once or twice a week, one (10%) once or twice a month and no one (0%) of them never or almost never did it Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it, frequency of students of FSB in reading books that explain things is more often than FWSB with total of high frequency 100% > 90%.

Table 7: Magazine

No	Educational Background	*every day or almost every day*		*once or twice a week*		*once or twice a month*		*never or almost never*	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	2	20%	3	30%	4	40%	1	10%
2.	FWSB	-	0%	4	40%	5	50%	1	10%

From the data above, a relatively high number, there are two (20%) students of family with storybook reading read magazine, three (30%) once or twice a week, four (40%) once or twice a month and one (10%) of them never or almost never did it. Meanwhile, A relatively high number, there is no (0%) students of the family without story book reading read the magazine, four (40%) once or twice a week, five (50%) once or twice a month and only one (10%) of them never or almost never did it. Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it,

frequency of students of FSB in reading the magazine is more often than FWSB with total of high frequency 50% > 40%.

Table 8: Newspaper

No	Educational Background	*every day or almost every day*		*once or twice a week*		*once or twice a month*		*never or almost never*	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	4	40%	5	50%	1	10%	0	0%
2.	FWSB	3	30%	4	40%	2	20%	1	10%

From the data above, a relatively high number, there are four (40%) students of family with storybook reading read the newspaper, five (50%) once or twice a week, one (10%) once or twice a month and no one (0%) of them never or almost never did it. Meanwhile, A relatively high number, there is three (30%) students of the family without story book reading read the newspaper, four (40%) once or twice a week, two (20%) once or twice a month and only one (10%) of them never or almost never did it. Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it, frequency of students of FSB in reading the newspaper is more often than FWSB with total of high frequency 90% > 70%.

Table 9: Novel

No	Educational Background	*every day or almost every day*		*once or twice a week*		*once or twice a month*		*never or almost never*	
		Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent	Data	Percent
1.	FSB	4	40%	4	40%	2	20%	0	0%
2.	FWSB	5	50%	3	30%	2	20%	0	10%

From the data above, a relatively high number, there are four (40%) students of family with storybook reading read the novel, four (40%) once or twice a week, two (20%) once or twice a month and no one (0%) of them never or almost never did it. Meanwhile, A relatively high number, there is five (50%) students of the family without story book reading read the novel, three (30%) once or twice a week, two (20%) once or twice a month and no one (10%) of them never or almost never did it. Comparing between family with storybook reading and without it, frequency of students of FSB in reading the novel is little bit same as FWSB with total of high frequency 80%.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of this research on reading short story in children's attitude toward reading and engaging in literacy activities out of school in SMP Muhammadiyah 02, the conclusions are stated as follows: (1) Attitude Toward Reading; most of FSB don't agree that someone read only if he/she has to more than FWSB, most of FWSB agree that someone like talking about books (novel, magazine, etc) with other people more than FSB, most of FSB agree that someone would be happy if someone gave me a book as a present more than FWSB, most of children in FWSB don't agree that reading is boring more than FSB and children in FSB agree that reading is enjoying rather same as children in FWSB. (2) Children Engage in Literacy Activities out of School; frequency of children of FSB in reading books that explain things, magazine and newspaper is more often than FWSB and frequency of children of FSB in reading novel is little bit often than FWSB.

Limitations of the study

The scope of this study are 20 students of SMP Muhammadiyah 02 which located on Jl. Pahlawan No. 67. In this case, the researcher chooses 20 samples from the population based on purposive sampling. According to Margono (2004), the selection of group of the subjects in purposive sampling is based on certain characteristics that are considered to have a close bearing on the characteristics of the population that has been known previously. In other words, the sample is adapted to certain criteria were applied based on the research objectives. The samples were 10 students with storybook reading activity in family literacy practice and 10 children without it.

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THE STRATEGIES IN TRANSLATING THE YOUTUBE SLOGAN

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this study is to determine the translation strategy on the advertising slogan. Data obtained by drawing research technique called photo documentation. Research method is descriptive qualitative method. The results of study showed that all advertising slogans that have been investigated are written clearly. Most translators translated the slogan by paraphrasing. This paper describes the translation strategies on YouTube slogans by presenting several studies on a variety of language theories on advertising and its translation.

KEYWORDS*: Advertising, Translation, Slogans*

INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is a country where most people with the needs of the market live. Therefore Indonesia has become one of the target markets in this world. It can be seen from the phenomenon of the existence of many foreign products in Indonesian market. In terms of trade, advertising is an important aspect in developing a product, both inside and outside the country. In making the advertising slogan, manufacturers are required to consider the language more because in the world of advertising, language is a very important tool to convey the intent and purpose better. Today, advertising does not only take place in a single language, but more than one. Currently, appearing slogans have interesting language that is actually because of the creativity of the translators in translating the foreign slogans.

However, when the advertising is created, the language barrier, sometimes, can be a problem. As known, the manufacturer usually delivers the product they sell through existing slogan on advertising. This is done so that the consumers know and recognize the products they sell; and expected to make them interested and buy the products. The problem is when the original slogan cannot be understood by consumers, manufacturers' goal cannot be achieved. So this is where the role of the translator to convey the desired message by the producer to the consumer needed.

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METHODOLOGY

Advertising

Advertising is an important aspect to influence the potential customers. It is an important tool in communicating and promoting the product. All companies, from large multinational corporations to small retailers increasingly rely on advertising to sell their products and services. Moreover, customers have also started to make purchase decision based on the advertisement they see or hear. Evidence for the increase in the importance of advertising is clearly reflected from the increase in advertisement expenditure of almost all business units. Advertising influences consumer attitudes toward the product or services. Advertisement increases brand-familiarity, develops brand-image and help the organization in increasing its market share.

Advertising helps the marketers in selling the goods and services. Firms engaged in selling their products and services throughout the country are very well aware of the importance of advertising. Advertising plays an important role in promoting sale of goods by persuading the target audience. But advertising by itself cannot sell the product. It cannot sell products with poor quality or products which are not up to the expectations of public. It only helps in selling by giving information about the product, persuading the potential consumers, reminding the old customers etc.

There are some important definitions about advertising as follow:
Aiwei (2009) wrote to do business and to sell well, you naturally needs to introduce your product to the foreign consumers and to do this; you inevitably have to have resource to advertisement. There are eight features of the advertisement style, they are concision, clarity, comparative and superlative constructions, neologism, repetition, non-sophistication, promise function, and rhetorical devises.

1. *Concision.* The first principle may be put on the top of the list is the KISS principle-Keep it Short and Sweet (Guo, 1992). 'Short' can be replaced with words like 'concise' or 'brief' or 'terse' or 'succinct' or 'pithy,' while the word 'sweet' is somewhat ambiguous. Put in another way, it means "hit the nail on the head" with as fewer words as possible. Examples are many, all following this principle: Choose once and choose for good (durables); Give Timex to all, and to all a good time (wrist watch); Nokia--Connecting People (mobile phone); Fresh up with Seven-up (soft drink); Let's make things brighter (lighting appliances); Ask for More (More as a brand name of cigarette designed for female consumers).
2. *Clarity.* Clarity means 'clear expressions' and 'avoiding ambiguity,' for which purposes it uses concrete words more than abstract ones, thus achieving a kind of directness and straightforwardness. 'No Smoking Except in Designated Areas'; 'Keep Clear of the Edges'; 'Recycle Your Rubbish; It's a Resource'; 'We have but only one Earth'. These are more commonly seen in public signs, which, if clearly stated and manifestly displayed, benefit all people though they have nothing to do with selling a product. Often these are called 'advertisement for public benefit' and are usually the government's responsibility. So if the government wishes to improve and promote public consciousness in collective welfare it better for keep its advertisement style clear and straightforward. 'When it comes to your safety, we don't overlook the smallest details' is the advertisement slogan of the automobile maker Toyota, lucidly manifesting their priority in making their cars, thus sending an unmistakable message to potential consumers.

3. *Comparative and Superlative Constructions.* It goes without saying that only by comparing and contrasting can consumers make the decision which product is of better quality and more satisfactory. They naturally would choose the best. Sometimes advertisers make tactful use of certain expressions to produce the desired effect. 'We are not the best; we are better' is a witty slogan to imply that the company is not satisfied and complacent with the 'now' but aims at the 'future,' i.e., persistent improvement and progress.

4. *Neologism*. It refers to a new word, term, or expression newly created or an old word with new meanings (in the latter case, for instance, 'mouse' before the computer age referred only to a little furry rodent). It is a not an uncommon phenomenon to find neologisms from time to time as language is developing with the development of the society. Its attractiveness lies in its novelty and multiplicity of meanings. 'Americanly,' for instance, may mean democracy in a political context, assimilation in a cultural context, and preponderance in a technical context. So it is advisable for advertisers to utilize such a device if they wish to attract the eyeballs of their customers.

5. *Repetition*. It is usually used for reinforced meaning and effect, which can still be further divided into two cases: repetition of the same words and words of the same semantic field. 'Faster, higher, stronger' is a handy example in question. As the Olympiad slogan it advocates sportsmanship and competitive skills that all people aspire to in sports. The same technique in a commercial advertisement writing should be similarly helpful and useful.

6. *Non-sophistication*. By non-sophistication it is meant that advertisement style more often than not avoids technical terms, so it can also be termed as non-technicality. The reason for this is simple because advertisement for the major part is intended for 'men in the street' rather than professionals. Technical terms are seldom used in advertisements, even if the product is sophisticated. 'The genius is in the details' and 'no color print film in the world gives you the detail as we do' are two slogans of Kodak films, using no difficult vocabulary, just plain words. Another example is 'I love what you do for me' (Toyota), though it could also describe the technical improvements on the former model. Yet it chooses to remain simple. Non-sophistication can also mean short and concise, but I put it into another category for the sake of clarity. When words such as short or concise are used, what they first bring to mind is the idea that there are fewer words in a sentence. Non-sophistication is also manifested in simple syntax, which refers to simple sentence structures. It is rather uncommon to find complex sentences in advertising, namely, coordinated, subordinated sentences and parataxis (juxtaposition), which are usually used for argument and logical presentation. Advertisement aims to persuade, not to argue. And persuasion seems to be done in this style in the simplest way possible. The examples presented above share one important feature-simple syntax.

7. *Promise function.* The 'promises' feature belongs to a different category. It stresses a functional point of view as contrasted with the previously mentioned lexical or grammatical points of view. Commercial advertisements make promises, among other things, related to either their services or the quality of their products, as opposed to public advertisements, which seem to be marked with a purpose of promotion of public consciousness. 'We have but one earth' is a public advertisement calling attention to protect mother earth; 'Water is getting scarcer, and water is our life' is another case in point. Unlike this line of persuasion, commercial advertisements make promises. Again this category can be overlapping with the previous ones in that while

making a promise it can simultaneously be short and clear. For example, 'enjoy it or return it' is a promise of quality of the product.

8. *Rhetorical devices*. Advertisement style is full of rhetorical devices (or traditionally figures of speech), which as I mentioned earlier is why it can be classified as literary or aesthetic. Rhetorical devices never fail to create aesthetic pleasure in us while simultaneously they catch our attention and force themselves into our memory. Figures of speech, to provide an all-inclusive list, are as follows: simile, metaphor, analogy, personification, hyperbole, understatement, euphemism, metonymy, synecdoche, antonomasia, pun, syllepsis, zeugma, irony, innuendo, sarcasm, paradox, oxymoron, antithesis, epigram, climax, anti-climax, apostrophe, transferred epithet, alliteration, and onomatopoeia (Bai & Shi, 2002). Of course no advertisement uses all devices listed here. 'Gillette Sensor--the ONLY razor that senses and adjusts to the individual needs of your face'; this is a hyperbole in that it stresses ONLY. It, of course, is by no means the only razor that does so but it does not do too much harm to brag a little bit to attract attention. 'Drive with care if you care about life,' 'Don't drive your life away when you are driving,' and 'Limit your speed, or limit your life' (Liao, 2001); these are convincing examples of how puns are cleverly employed. They seem to be more interesting than the direct warning: 'Drive carefully--the life you save may be your own,' although the latter one is no less clear, short and forceful.

Those features can be categorized into five categories: point (1) and (2) can be included into the category of text features, point (4) and (5) can be put into the general category of lexical features, point (3) and (6) can be put into the grammatical features, point (7) in the category of functional feature, and the last point (8) traditionally in the category of rhetoric feature.

Consumer

Mukesh (2010) stated that consumers are the central point in every business. Sellers have to make a lot of efforts to attract and persuade the customer to purchase their product or services, because attracting and satisfying customers are more difficult than producing the goods.

Slogan

A slogan or tagline is a short phrase that is in part used to help establish an image, identity, or position for a brand or an organization, but it is most often used to increase memorability of the key benefit or a brand. Thomas (2009) wrote that slogan is established by repeating the phrase in a firm's advertising and other public communication as well as through salespeople and event promotions. Slogans are often used as a headline or subhead in print advertisements, or as the tagline at the conclusion of radio and television advertisements. Slogans typically appear directly below the brand or company name, on the brand website, or spoken in broadcast commercials.

A good slogan or tagline can show several positive and important purposes for a brand or a firm. First, a slogan can be an integral part of a brand's image and personality and it establishes and maintains the personality and image of the brand. Second, if a slogan is carefully and constituently developed over time, it can act as shorthand identification for the brand and provide information or important brand benefits.

Translation

Kridalaksana (1985) defined that translation as the transfer of a message from the source language into the target language by first revealing the meaning and then style of language. There are several reasons why this definition widely used. Because, first is a concept that can be expressed in two different languages, for example a car and *mobil* (Indonesian), both of them have the same concept but they are in different languages. Second, each message transferred in the form language both orally and in writing. And the last one, style and strategy are the important aspects to be considered in the translation.

According to Baker (1992) cited in Rahmagati (2015) in translation, there are four strategies that can be applied:

1. Using an idiom of *similar meaning and form*

The point of the use of this strategy is to deliver roughly the same meaning by using an idiom in the target language and the translation must consist of equivalent lexical items. (Baker, 1992)

2. Using an idiom of *similar meaning but dissimilar form*

This is the opposite of the first strategy. By using this strategy, the translator are required to think of an idiom in the target language that has the same meaning to the one in the source language but different lexical items.

3. Translation by *paraphrase*

When an expression in the target language whose the same meaning as in the source language cannot be found and when it does not seem right to use such an idiomatic language because the stylistic preferences of the source language and target language are different, the translator can paraphrase the advertisement. (Baker, 1992)

4. Translation by *omission*

When there is no close equivalent in the target language and when its meaning cannot be paraphrased easily are the common reasons why the translator omits an idiom in the target text all together. However, this strategy can also be applied if s/he wants the different style. (Baker, 1992).

RESEARCH FINDINGS

This research used descriptive qualitative research method. The subject was taken from the advertisings in the internet, exactly YouTube. Which all of the advertising using the English language, and has been translated into Indonesian.

1. MILO

Milo is a brand of beverage with chocolate flavor. The advertisement of this product is about a young athlete, who loves sports and always strives to become champion. The slogan is short and clear. In the slogan, the translator concerned more about the target language, rather than the source language. Therefore, he used an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form. This strategy uses different lexical items to express more or less the same idea. The example is presented below:

SL : Energy to build champions
TL : *Energi untuk menang tiap hari*

2. DETTOL

Dettol is an antiseptic liquid and soap to kill germs. "100%" here, it convinces the customers to choose this product because it is definitely going to protect consumers totally. The slogan is short and clear. In this slogan, the translator used an idiom of similar meaning and form. This strategy involves the use of an idiom in the target language which conveys almost the same meaning as the source-language idiom and even consists of equivalent lexical item.

SL : Be 100% sure
TL : *100% yakin*

3. OREO

Oreo is a biscuit brand in which the product is two chocolate biscuits with cream in the middle. One popular way to eat an Oreo is to dip it in milk. The latest advertisement of this product tells us that the message of harmony in the world is not impossible, and because it was a real miracle for those who share, as its slogan that says, 'Penuh Keajaiban'. The slogan is short and clear. In this slogan, the translator translated the slogan in the source language by paraphrasing. As far, this is the most common way to translate idioms when an equivalent cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of the differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target language.

SL : Wonderfilled
TL : *Penuh keajaiban*

4. PAMPERS

Pampers is one of the diapers that have been very popular all over the world. Because of its popularity some people think that Pampers is the name of an item, not a brand. The slogan is clear and repetitive. According to the producer of this brand, sleep is an activity that is important to a child's growth. Pampers is expected to be able to create comfort and convenience all night when the children sleep. Therefore, the use of the diaper pants should always be considered, if the diapers used can't absorb the urine perfectly, then good sleep expected cannot be achieved, and that is why they use slogan "Because better sleep, helps better growth". The translator translated it by paraphrasing. As far, this is the most common way to translate idioms when an equivalent cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of the differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target language.

SL : Because better sleep, helps better growth
TL : *Tidur nyenyak sepanjang malam, bermain ceria sepanjang hari*

5. COCA COLA

Coca-Cola is a carbonated drink, which is very familiar all over the world. The pleasures of drinking Coca-Cola makes every moment in life becomes more special. The slogan is short. In the slogan, the translator is short and clear. The Pragmatic translation is used in Indonesian slogan for this product. The only reason for that is because the translator paid more attention to the target language than the source language. The word "momen" used to replace the word

"feeling". This is because in this advertisement, coca cola says that every little thing can be celebrated, no need to wait for big events.

SL : Taste in feeling
TL : *Rasakan momennya*

6. KFC

KFC is a fast food brand that is highly in demand in Indonesia. It can be seen from the number their outlet in this country. The main menu in this restaurant is fried chicken. Therefore they focus on selling the word "chicken" in their slogan. The slogan is short and clear. In the slogan, the translator used translation by omission. Not only a single word, an idiom may sometimes be omitted all together in the target text. It is because it has no close equivalent in the target language --its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or it can be only for stylistic reasons. The example is presented below.

SL : We do chicken right
TL : *Jagonya ayam*

7. KITKAT

Kitkat is a kind of wafer that is usually enjoyed by breaking it into two parts. The slogan short, clear and repetitive. In this slogan, the translator translated the slogan to Indonesian by paraphrasing. As far, this is the most common way to translate idioms when an equivalent cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of the differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target language.

SL : Break time, anytime
TL : *Ada break, ada kitkat*

8. KOKO KRUNCH

Koko Krunch is a grain breakfast cereal with chocolate flavor. The slogan is short and clear. In the slogan, the translator used an idiom of similar meaning and form. This strategy involves the use of an idiom in the target language which conveys almost the same meaning as idiom in the source language and even consists of equivalent lexical item.

SL : Great chocolate taste
TL : *Rasa cokelat yang dahsyat*

9. INTEL 2 in 1

Intel is a largest processor printer company in the world. Recently, they present a laptop that can instantly turn into a tablet. Consumers have two devices in one item, with the minimum costs. The slogan is short, clear and repetitive. In this slogan, the translator used an idiom which has the similar meaning with the idiom in the source language, but has different form. This strategy used different lexical items to express more or less the same idea. The example is presented below:

SL : A laptop when you need it, a tablet when you want it
TL : *Tenaga laptop dengan fleksibilitas tablet*

10. WINDOWS

Windows 8 is the name of Microsoft Windows that is usually used in personal computers. The slogan is short, clear and repetitive. The translator translated the slogan into Indonesian by paraphrasing. As far, this is the most common way to translate idioms when an equivalent cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of the differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target language.

SL : Work, play, together
TL : *Semuanya bersamaan*

The Table of Research Findings

NO	BRAND	ENGLISH SLOGAN	INDONESIAN SLOGAN	STRATEGIES OF TRANSLATION	VARIETIES OF ADVERTISING
1.	MILO	"Energy to build champions!"	*"Energi untuk menang tiap hari!"*	Using an idiom in similar meaning but dissimilar form	-Short -Clear
2.	DETTOL	"Be 100% sure"	*"100% yakin"*	Using an idiom in similar meaning and form	-Short -Clear
3.	OREO	"Wonderfilled"	*"Penuh keajaiban"*	Paraphrasing	-Short -Clear
4.	PAMPERS	"Because better sleep, helps better growth"	*"Tidur nyenyak sepanjang malam, bermain ceria sepanjang hari"*	Paraphrasing	-Clear -Repetitive
5.	COCA COLA	"Taste in feeling"	*"Rasakan momennya"*	Paraphrasing	-Short -Clear
6.	KFC	"We do chicken right"	*"Jagonya ayam"*	Omission	-Short -Clear
7.	KITKAT	"Break time, anytime"	*"Ada break, ada kitkat"*	Paraphrasing	-Short -Clear -Repetitive
8.	KOKO CRUNCH	"Great chocolate taste"	*"Rasa cokelat yang dahsyat"*	Using an idiom in similar meaning and form	-Short -Clear
9.	INTEL 2 in 1	"A laptop when you need it, a tablet when you want it"	*"Tenaga laptop dengan fleksibilitas tablet"*	Using an idiom in similar meaning but dissimilar form	-Short -Clear -Repetitive
10.	WINDOWS	"Work, play, together"	*"Semuanya bersamaan"*	Paraphrasing	-Short -Clear -Repetitive

CONCLUSION

Based on the research above, the strategy of translation used the most here is paraphrasing. Five of ten slogans were translated by paraphrasing, two slogans were translated by using an idiom in similar meaning but dissimilar form, and two slogans were translated by using an idiom in similar meaning and form and one slogan was translated by omission. The slogan used by the producer has fulfilled the standardization of advertising, such as short, clear, repetitive.

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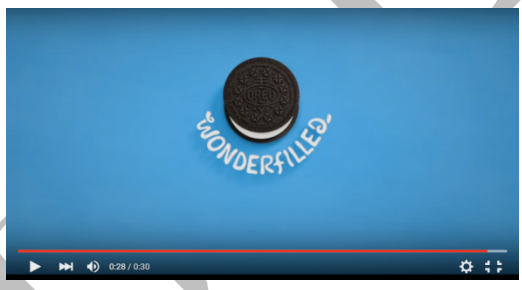
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7ZhArw0p90c
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YNdmPJFjiUI
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CTDssI5cpE8
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ljz_Tq4JPbg
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qUZMXfwDQ-0
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lKDYsXOOpDw&ebc=ANyPxKoSiSXdfdSz6w7zyJ37hYOQplR-U7IuvBRPdU9VK0d48ceL4jlzxiryudXwkTAafqsWC5oWUsw88CghirmOPOY1jat_iQ
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jjUd5XBBzqQ
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AIaPNLRmKgA

IJLLALW

Milo : Energy to build champions https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kuYR72q_grs
Energy untuk menang tiap hari https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s0c2m1rsGRg

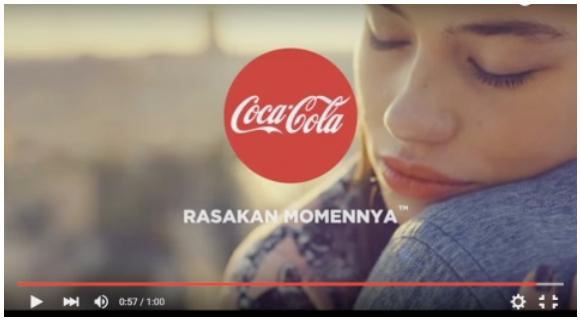
Dettol: Be 100% sure https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=REo7-R6lhcA
100% yakin https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=on13Y-Yz8Fk

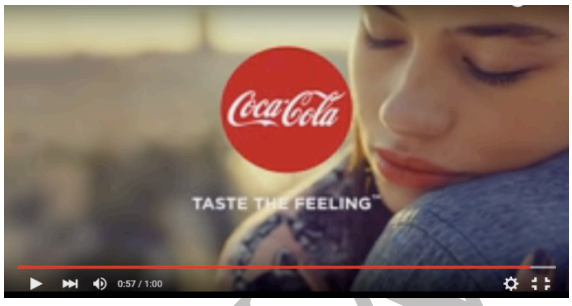
Oreo : Wonderfilled
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WimQ_15fakY
Penuh keajaiban https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7eACDNPITPk



Pampers: Tidur nyenyak sepanjang malam, bermain ceria sepanjang hari https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lIxStFEb-GU
Because better sleep, helps better growthhttps://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FdT_BJkOhVE

Coca cola : Taste the feeling https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-AmKP9VE2Ms
Rasakan momennya https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hog7SLT1rWk



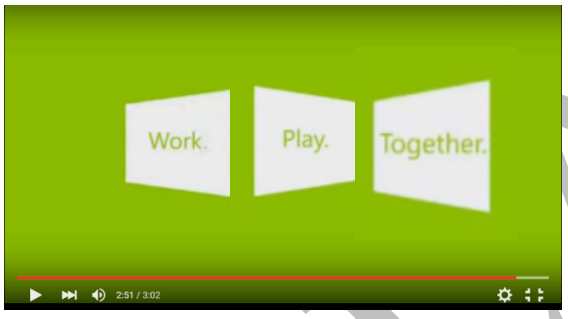


KFC : We do chicken right https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5XOMPfmqbcM
Jagonya ayam https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7eACDNPITPk

Kitkat : Break time anytime https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7ZhArw0p90c
Ada break, ada kitkat https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YNdmPJFjiUI

Intel : Tenaga laptop dengan fleksibilitas tablet
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CTDssI5cpE8
A laptop when u need it, a tablet when u want it
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ljz_Tq4JPbg

Windows 8 : Semuanya bersamaan https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qUZMXfwDQ-0
Work play together
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lKDYsXOOpDw&ebc=ANyPxKoSiSXdfdSz6w7zyJ37hYOQplR-U7IuvBRPdU9VK0d48ceL4jlzxiryudXwkTAafqsWC5oWUsw88CghirmOPOY1jat_iQ



Coco crunch: Rasa cokelat yang dahsyat https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jjUd5XBBzqQ
Great chocolate taste https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AIaPNLRmKgA

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THE ACCEPTANCE OF STANDARDIZING LANGUAGE IN SOCIETY

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ABSTRACT
This research dealt with the acceptance of standardizing Indonesian language in society. The objective of this study was to describe the application of the standardizing of Indonesian language in society. This research applied qualitative research design. It was conducted in Setia Budi Makmur I Residence. There were 20 participants in this study. The instrument used by the researcher in this research was a test, while a recorder also was used to record the participants' answer. The data were collected through observing, interviewing and testing the participants. The findings of this study have revealed that: the participants in society were more familiar to non-standardizing language (50.5%).
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KEYWORDS: Language Planning, Language Standardization, Society

INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is the fourth most populous nation in the world, with an estimated population of nearly 250 million. It consists of over 13,000 islands, stretching along the equator between Southeast Asia and Australia. There are a significant number of distinct ethnic groups, speaking an estimated 600 languages. The size and diversity of Indonesia's population has presented challenges for uniting the nation and developing a national language. The selection of the language variety, which could provide the basis for the standard, is an intentional act that also involves political, demographic and economic factors. Therefore, the process of standardization, from a socio-political standpoint, according to Moreno Cabrera (2008: 50), involves the choice of the language varieties associated with high-prestige centres of power.

Moreover, only the most powerful social groups will be capable of imposing language codifications, promoting and ensuring the use and dissemination of the standard. Thus, standardization, as well as being a complex process in linguistic terms, is an ideology (Milroy

1991), the goal of which is to ensure that a given linguistic variety is codified via the selection of a series of grammatical, orthographic, lexical and phonetic rules in order to create a common language, intended to become the standard, and to expand its sphere of use.

But, most Indoensian people do not apply the standardization of language in formal or non formal situation, they mostlikely use non standardizing language. For example, local society in Setia Budi Makmur I Residence, most of them still use their own language than the standardizing language. This study was to answer how was the application of standardizing Indonesian language in society. This research was limited on standardizing language in society in Setia Budi Makmur I Residence. The specific investigation and discussion of this study were accordingly in line with the research problems.

However, as far as the researcher knows, the acceptance of standardizing language in society has not been studied earlier. This phenomenon was interesting to be explored more deeply. The objective of this study was to describe the application of the standardizing of Indonesian language in Setia Budi Makmur I Residence.

RIVIEW OF LITERATURE

Language Planning

Kaplan (2013) state that language planning is an activity, most visibly undertaken by government (simply because it potentially involves such massive changes in a society), intended to promote systematic linguistic change in some community of speakers.

Language Standardization

Wolf (2000:332) stated language standardization is means in language development, selection and promotion of variants with a language. It is one of the major concern of language planning. it usually involves development of language related activities like grammars, spelling books, and dictionaries, and literature. It is also changing some spoken from of a particular language to be written down in an offial manner with the intention of making this particular veriety the preferred variety.Herbert (1995: 2) stated “standardization concerns the establishment and promulgation of language norms. the norms typically concern issues of ‘correctness’ in matters of orthography, word voices, and usage”. Language standardisation refers to the development of a given dialect or group of dialects as a norm for the language in question” Bamgbose (1991:109) “Standardization as an activity goes beyond mere selection or allocation of function to a variety or varieties, but it has to involve the actual fixing of the norm by elaborating and by implication prescribing rules of ‘correct’ usage”. Based on those it can be concluded that language standardization is one of the major concerns of language planning thatconcerns establishment and promulgation of language norms.In Addition, process by which conventional forms of a language are established and maintained.

Process of Standardization

According to Haugen (1996), the process of standardization of Indonesian language, they are:
Selecting

Selecting means the language that will be standardizing is chosen from certain language or dialect. It also can be from a language that has already been used in the past and has been popular in trading and so on. Example, Indonesian language that is adopted from Malay language and Malay dialect.

Codification
The process of codification relates to make a role for a language that will be standardizing. It might be the pronunciation or utterance and grammar as well. The purpose is in order to the user has guidance in using that language appropriately. It is not only for the spoken language that is used in daily activity but also in literary and journalistic terms. In the process of standardizing of Bahasa Indonesia, codification is marked by *appearing Ejaan yang Disempurnakan (EYD)*. It is one of the guidance in using Bahasa Indonesia as nation language of Indonesia. It contains many things about Bahasa Indonesia. For example; the use of appropriate grammatical function.Another, the appearance of KamusBesarBahasa Indonesia of famous with KBBI is being one process of codification in Bahasa Indonesia. Since, KBBI contains groping of vocabulary that is usually used by Indonesians. Through KBBI, we may know any word about Bahasa Indonesia.

Further, many studies that gain aspect of language from Bahasa Indonesia in order to make a perfect language in usage. Even this is for academic importance.

Elaboration
In this process we have to know the appearance of new terms of language. In other hand, the original language is explore more; can be enrich by new words or terms. They may be taken from local language or foreign language. Moreover, in this process we will take a term called "borrowing". George Yule (1987) stated that borrowing is take new word for certain language from another language.

Further elaboration of Bahasa Indonesia is marked by appearing of literary works, such as in writing a letter, newspaper, religious books, and canonical literature. For this matter, Bahasa Indonesia appears as the creative and rich language. Since, appear many role and new terms in Bahasa Indonesia.

Acceptance
In the end of the standardization of a language there are process called acceptance.It is after all the process has been passed, the new language must be approved by the society as their nation language. If it has been in this stage, standard language has power to unite a nation, it can be a symbol of independency, and it must be an identity of a nation that differ a country to another. In short, Haugen (1966)also stated that acceptance is the standard language that can be approve by the community at large of the code as the standard form.

Based on Indonesia Language history in the first page, Bahasa Indonesia has started to be used by Indonesians since pra- independency. Further, it has become familiar since the Youth Oath day in

28 October 1928. It is in line with the three statement of the Youth oath, which says Bahasa Indonesia is as the national language of Indonesia.

Society

According to Talcott Parsons "society is a total complex of human relationships in so far as they grow out of the action in terms of means-end relationship intrinsic or symbolic". Morris Ginsberg defines "society as a collection of individuals united by certain relations or mode of behavior which mark them off from others who do not enter into these relations or who differ from them in behavior.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

How was the application of standardizing Indonesian language in society?

METHODOLOGY

This study was analyzed by using qualitative design which understanding the phenomenon based on the collection data and analysis of non-numerical data. According to Gay and Eurasian (2000), Qualitative approach is based on the collection data and analysis of non-numerical data such as observations, interviews, and other more discursive sources of information. Furthermore, Lexy J Moleong stated (2009) "Qualitative research is the research that's means to understand the phenomenon about what is the subject research undergone by using natural method".Based on the objective of research, this research was conducted by using descriptive qualitative to explore and clarify one phenomena or social reality by describing some variables related to the problem identified.

According to Gay and Peter (2000) "Descriptive research is a descriptive study determines and describes the way thing are". Bogdan and Biklen (1982) stated "qualitative research is descriptive, the data collected are in the form of words. The written results contain quotations from data to illustrate and substantiate the presentation. The data include the interview transcripts, field notes, personal, documents, and official records".

The researcher conducted purposive sampling as the sampling to determine the subjects. According to Riduan (2005) "purposive sampling is one of technical that can be used by researcher if researcher have some considerations take the certainly sampling to get the aim". So, the researcher decide 20 persons of all of society in Setia Budi Makmur I Residence which have the different background of education as the subject and ask them to determine which one of standard and non standard words based on KBBI.

The technique of collecting data used in this research are:

Observation

According to Anne (2010) "observation is used to get information about phenomenon that occurs". In this study, the researcher used direct observation which is assessment team collects

data on naturally occuring behavior within their usual context. This is achieved by observing conditions and specific features of an affected site from arrange of viewpoints and locations to provide an overall view of the affected area.

Interview

According to Fontana (2005) "interviews are a widely used tool to acces people's experiences and their inner perceptions, attitudes, and feeling of reality". In collecting the data, the researcher applied an unstructured interview because there is no a specific set of predetetermined questions, unstructured interviews flow like an everyday conversation and tend to be more informal and open-ended, so the interviewee will answer the question effortlessly and accurately without feeling intimidating.

Test

Brown (2004) defines "test as a method of measuring a person's ability; knowledge or performance in a given domain". In this study the researcher decided 20 words which consist of standard and non standard based on KBBI and asked 20 persons as subject to determine which one of standard or non standard words.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data of standardizing language was taken from *Kamus Bahasa Indonesia* (Indonesian Dictionary) that released by *Pusat Bahasa Departemen Pendidikan Nasional* (Language Center of Ministry of National Education) in Jakarta on 2008. This dictionary contains around 91000 word of standardizing language. The table below shown the list of standardizing and non standardizing language as instrument for the correspondence in determining standardizing and non standardizing language.

Table 1: List of Standardizing and Non-Standardizing Language

No	**Standardize Language**	**Non- StandardizeLanguage**
1.	*Atlet*	*Atlit*
2.	*Atmosfer*	*Atmosfir*
3.	*Diferensial*	*Differensial*
4.	*Ekspor*	*Export*
5.	*Ekuivalen*	*Ekwivalen*
6	*Ekstrem*	*Ekstrim*
7.	*Embus*	*Hembus*
8.	*Esai*	*Esay*
9.	*Frekuensi*	*Frekwensi*
10.	*Insaf*	*Insyaf*
11.	*Impor*	*Import*
12.	*Standardisasi*	*Standarisasi*
13.	*Jendral*	*Jenderal*
14.	*Khotbah*	*Khutbah*
15.	*Konkret*	*Konkrit*
16.	*Kualitas*	*Kwalitas*
17.	*Kuitansi*	*Kwitansi*
18.	*Menerjemahkan*	*Menterjemahkan*
19.	*Nasihat*	*Nasehat*
20.	*Risiko*	*Resiko*

**For further explanation about standardizing language can be seen in appendix.*

The researcher took 20 participants to determine which one was standardizing and non standardizing language in society around Setia Budi Makmur I Residence, Medan. All of the participants were from different background, such as university students, teacher, house wives, businessman and government employee. The table below had shown the participants' answer in determining standardizing and non- standardizing language

Table 2: Percenatage of Standardizing and Non-Standardizing Language

No	Standardizing Language			Non – Standardizing language		
	Item word	The number of people	%	Item word	The number of people	%
1.	*Atlet*	15	3.75	*Atlit*	5	1.25
2.	*Atmosfer*	11	2.75	*Atmosfir*	9	2.25
3.	*Diferensial*	11	2.75	*Differensial*	9	2.25
4.	*Ekspor*	11	2.75	*Export*	9	2.25
5.	*Ekuivalen*	12	3	*Ekwivalen*	8	2
6	*Ekstrem*	5	1.25	*Ekstrim*	15	3.75
7.	*Embus*	7	1.75	*Hembus*	13	3.25
8.	*Esai*	8	2	*Esay*	12	3
9.	*Frekuensi*	15	3.75	*Frekwensi*	5	1.25
10.	*Insaf*	10	2.5	*Insyaf*	10	2.5
11.	*Impor*	9	2.25	*Import*	11	2.75
12.	*Standardisasi*	9	2.25	*Standarisasi*	11	2.75
13.	*Jendral*	11	2.75	*Jenderal*	9	2.25
14.	*Khotbah*	7	1.75	*Khutbah*	13	3.25
15.	*Konkret*	10	2.5	*Konkrit*	10	2.5
16.	*Kualitas*	12	3	*Kwalitas*	8	2
17.	*Kuitansi*	10	2.5	*Kwitansi*	10	2.5
18.	*Menerjemahkan*	10	2.5	*Menterjemahkan*	10	2.5
19.	*Nasihat*	9	2.25	*Nasehat*	11	2.75
20.	*Risiko*	6	1.5	*Resiko*	14	3.5
Total		**198**	**49.5**		**202**	**50.5**

From the table above, it could be seen that the standardizing language of *atlet* (athlete) and *frekuensi* (frequency) were more popular or dominant in which around 15 people got correct answers (3.75 %), meanwhile non standardizing language of *ekstrim* (extreme) was familiar for them (3.75%). There were 15 people got the incorrect answers (3.75%), they just thought *ekstrim* (extreme) as the standardizing language. So it could be seen that society in Setia Budi Makmur 1 Residence were more familiar with non standardizing language (50.5%) based on the percentage above, meanwhile there were around 49.5 % people familiar with the standardizing language.

CONCLUSION

After analyzing all the data based on the theory used, the study now can draw the following conclusions.

1. The standardizing language that most familiar used by the society are *atlet and frekuensi* around 3.75%.
2. The standardizing language that most unfamiliar used by the society is *ekstrem* around 1.25%.
3. The non standardizing language that most familiar used by the society is *ekstrim* around 3.75%.

4. The non-standardizing language that most unfamiliar used by the society are *atlit and frekwensi* around 1.25 %.

So it could be seen that society in Setia Budi Makmur 1 Residence more familiar with non standardizing language based on the percentage around 50.5 % meanwhile there were around 49.5% people familiar about the standardizing language. The findings of this research were expected to be useful as a means deploying and supporting the theories presented in the study of linguistics, especially in the field of language planning and language standardization. Finally, this study suggests that the society in Setia Budi Makmur 1 Residence Medan should more recognize the standardizing language than non standardizing.

Limitation of the Study

This study focused on the on standardizing language in society in Setia Budi Makmur I Residence. The researcher tried to find out standardizing language in society in Setia Budi Makmur I Residence based on the theory proposed by Wolf (2000).

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TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTION TOWARD 'FLOW THEORY' IN EFL CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT
The role of flow experiences, characterized by a balance between challenge and skills and by a person's interest, control and focused attention during a task, has been understood necessary for optimal learning (Egbert, 2003). Due to the importance of flow theory and the lack of research, the present study addressed flow to see if flow occurs in EFL classrooms and how students and teachers perceive learners' engagement. To do so, 83 students and 20 teachers are asked to fill out the flow questionnaire including 32 items ranging from never to always. The findings of the study reveal that the students have experienced the necessary concentration, interest and enjoyment for flow during their works and activities. In addition, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between flow state and the achievement of skills in the process of language learning. The active and meaningful participation in the activities depends on the level of tasks and the learners' ability. Therefore, due to the importance of flow state the practitioners are suggested to create such a condition in which students can flourish.

KEYWORDS: Flow Theory, Experience, Optimal Learning, Intrinsic Motivation

INTRODUCTION
It is very important to us that teaching generates enthusiasm, enhances concentration and favors creativity, which are very distinct but somehow interconnected phenomena. Rieber (1998) convincingly argues that the learning process itself - and not just the result - should be interesting, if one seeks higher motivation among learners. "Serious play" and "hard fun" are intense learning situations where learners engage large amounts of "energy" and time and that do provide equally intensive pleasure at certain moments which have been identified as "flow" or

"optimal experience" by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi in 1990. Flow situations have been mainly noticed and studied in play or artistic creation and are defined as states of happiness and satisfaction that arise when "carried" by an automatic and spontaneous activity. It is interesting for teachers to know that "flow states" go along with the impression of discovery and creation and boost performance in conjunction with important cognitive efforts. "Flow states" are therefore highly desirable, both for the individual student and the teacher. Conditions in which flow happens are characterized in the literature by an optimized level of challenge, a feeling of control adapted to the learner, a touch of fantasy, and feedback of the system. The Flow-theory is a concept which states activities that are in the balance between difficulty and skill which are creating a *state of flow*. This state is mostly for non-routine tasks, where over time skills and difficulty can be increased.

Various Definitions of 'Flow'

Flow, according to Csikszentmihalyi (1990), is a joyful experience. Each individual creates it, and it is the state in which people find themselves so involved in an activity in which nothing else matters (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). It is completely focused motivation in performing and learning. It is an alignment or match between the person and the task at hand. The key components of "flow," "in the zone" or "optimal" experiences are thus summarized as follows:

1. Clear goals.
2. Immediate feedback.
3. Balance between challenges and skills.
4. A sense of control.
5. Highly focused concentration/attention.
6. Transformation of time.
7. The loss of self-consciousness.
8. Autotelic or self-rewarding.

The first five elements are basic prerequisites that could be coined as "external conditions" for flow to occur, with "Challenge vs. Skills" being fundamental; a challenge or task to perform must be present, in order for skills to match it. The last three elements address the subjective experience that takes place during an activity in flow. In other words, they are the "outcomes" that characterize flow.

While Csikszentmihalyi thinks that the original flow definition rather describes components of a mental state (including perception of a situation), some researchers have attempted to narrow down the flow experience and rather conceptualize the other dimensions as some sort of contextual variables. According to Novak et al. (1997), "in Hoffman and Novak (1996), flow is defined in terms of the experience of flow (intrinsic enjoyment, loss of self-consciousness), behavioral properties of the flow activity (seamless sequence of responses facilitated by interactivity with the computer and self-reinforcement), and its antecedents (skill/challenge balance, focused attention, and tele-presence)."

Schaffer (2013) defined 'flow' in another way and proposed seven flow conditions:

1. Knowing what to do
2. Knowing how to do it
3. Knowing how well you are doing
4. Knowing where to go (if navigation is involved)
5. High perceived challenges
6. High perceived skills
7. Freedom from distractions

Schaffer also published a measure, the Flow Condition Questionnaire (FCQ), to measure each of these 7 flow conditions for any given task or activity.

Achieving the flow-state

The flow state can be achieved if these characteristics are involved:
a) Creativity, b) Autonomy, c) Learning, d) Progress, d) Increase of skills & difficulty

Components of the Flow Theory

Csikszentmihalyi (1975) originally identified four flow components: a) control, b) attention, c) curiosity, d) intrinsic interest.

Elements of Flow and Second Language Learning

The following is a list of elements of flow also found in SLA research and theories:

Motivation. This principle has been defined as key for achieving a balance between individuals' skills and activities (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei 2001; Gardner 2005; Keller, 1983). In addition, Gardner (2005) expounds on motivated individuals, defining them as follows: They are goal-directed. Motivated individuals express effort in attaining the goal, they show persistence, and they attend to the tasks necessary to achieve the goals. They have a strong desire to attain their goal, and they enjoy the activities necessary to achieve their goal. They are aroused in seeking their goals, they have expectancies about their successes and failures, and when they are achieving some degree of success they demonstrate self-efficacy; they are self-confident about their achievements. (p. 3)

A majority of Csikszentmihalyi's most recent work surrounds the idea of motivation and the factors that contribute to motivation, challenge, and overall success in an individual. One personality characteristic that Csikszentmihalyi researched in detail was that of intrinsic motivation. Csikszentmihalyi and his colleagues found that intrinsically motivated people were more likely to be goal-directed and enjoy challenges that would lead to an increase in overall happiness. Csikszentmihalyi identified intrinsic motivation as a powerful trait to possess to optimize and enhance positive experience, feelings, and overall well-being as a result of challenging experiences.

Flow theory is very much linked to the concept of intrinsic motivation. Therefore, instructional designers should ask how to create instructional design models that favor intrinsic motivation. Chan & Ahern (1999) state that "At its most basic, flow is simply a description of people

enjoying themselves. They are in a state of enjoyment because they have situated themselves in an optimal environment. This should strike a resonate chord for any instructional designer. The goal of any instruction is to help students acquire the requisite knowledge or skill under optimal conditions." (p.152).

Play: Children at play are naturally *engaged* and *active* with the task at hand; they are *interested* in it and can be engaged in one activity for long periods of time. They have a joyful experience; therefore don't mind repeating the tasks that bring this satisfaction. Their skills match the challenges of the tasks, and their interest and attention are focused and centered (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

Enjoyment: Deci (1992) makes clear that it is not only children who become invested and engaged in tasks they enjoy and interest them, but adults also. He emphasizes that the key to this interest is the match between the person's abilities and the task at hand.

Challenge and skills: A good balance between challenge and skills is the main component necessary for supporting flow experiences. *Challenges* are the target language (TL) tasks that students are asked to do while *skills* refer to the TL skills and tools that students have in order to complete those tasks (Egbert, 2003). A match between these two refers to the degree in which a person's skills are adequate for meeting the demands of a situation. Flow research summarized by Whalen (1997) shows that the optimal balance between challenge and skill is a fundamental condition for flow to occur, and Deci (1992) also affirms the importance of person-task match in order to keep interest alive. This fair match, as if it were a game increasing in levels and complexity, invites repetition and requires a constant adjustment as the learners improve their skills. This idea is parallel to Krashen's (1985) Comprehensible Input Theory, in which he postulates that in order to acquire language successfully, learners need input that only slightly exceeds the skill level of the learner at any given moment (level i+1).

Concentration: This is another key component of flow experiences. "Focus in language acquisition […] is characterized by intense concentration and automaticity" (Egbert, 2003, p. 504). At the same time, one of the conditions in flow theory is that individuals who can become engaged in an activity, are also capable of diminishing their self-concern, and center their focus on the task at hand. In this regard, researchers have conflicting opinions on whether students should consciously focus on incoming language, or whether unintentional acquisition should be allowed to permit their attention to focus on the task, rather than on the specific details of language. Egbert (2003) suggests a balance between attention to accuracy (noticing language details) and fluency (flow in the use of language).

Interest: In flow theory, there should be a balance between "threat-free environments" and "anxiety"—a person needs safety to perform at their best ability, but also sufficient challenges to be alert. Egbert (2003) believes that the same applies to the FL classroom; a safe environment does not imply a challenge-free environment. She affirms that students will be more engaged when tasks spark students' personal interests, and therefore, including student-generated topics and ideas into tasks will create higher interest.

Control: A sense of autonomy and control is always present in flow experiences. This characteristic is also considered a key aspect in the acquisition of a second language (Dickinson, 1987), where learners take responsibility for their learning (self-management, self-monitoring, setting goals, collaborating, etc.). However, Whalen (1997) reports there is also a need for rules and structure in the classroom, rather than complete freedom. Rules provide opportunities for the individual to exercise autonomy and feel "in control." These principles seem to be at the core of motivated individuals and successful learning experiences.

Feedback: "Positive feedback strengthens the self, and more attention is freed to deal with the outer and the inner environment" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 39). These aspects of Flow Theory coincide with Dörnyei's (1994) suggestions to "giv[e] positive competence feedback, pointing out the value of the accomplishment; and not overreacting to errors" in order to not cause anxiety to the language learner (p. 282).

Goal-setting: Cognitive engagement is strongly related to research on goals and self-regulated learning (Bandura, Martinez-Pons, & Zimmerman, 1992). Fredericks et al. (2004) state that, "students who endorse mastery goals are more likely to use deep-level strategies" (p. 67). In addition, Dörnyei (1994) affirms the positive effect of promoting students' self-efficacy in setting and achieving realistic language goals. Furthermore, he indicates the benefits of group goal-orientedness in second language acquisition.

Activities in Flow Theory

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) states that there are some activities that can put any human in an *state of flow* that is motivational. Lots of these are derived from activities like making music, climbing, dancing and so forth. It is because these activities require the player to learn, set up goals and also because these activities are providing feedback and they make control possible. These activities also are enjoyable because they are making the player cease to act in terms of common sense, and start acting for the purpose of the activity.

To understand better, the flow state is a balance between the skill level and the challenge of a task. The Flow state will never occur if the challenge will be insignificant in balance with the individual skill. State of flow which is motivational is more likely to occur when the activity has an above-average skill. When a task is too difficult, it causes people to be anxious. When a task is too easy, it causes boredom. When the task is just right, we are in a state of heightened focus and immersion, or in other words a state of Flow.

Challenges to staying

Some of the challenges to staying in flow include states of apathy, boredom, and anxiety. Being in a state of apathy is characterized when challenges are low and one's skill level is low producing a general lack of interest in the task at hand. Boredom is a slightly different state in that it occurs when challenges are low, but one's skill level exceeds those challenges causing one to seek higher challenges. Lastly, a state of anxiety occurs when challenges are so high that they exceed one's perceived skill level causing one great distress and uneasiness. These states in general differ from being in a state of flow, in that flow occurs when challenges match one's skill

level. Consequently, Csíkszentmihályi has said, "If challenges are too low, one gets back to flow by increasing them. If challenges are too great, one can return to the flow state by learning new skills."

Flow in education

In education, the concept of overlearning plays a role in a student's ability to achieve flow. Csíkszentmihályi states that overlearning enables the mind to concentrate on visualizing the desired performance as a singular, integrated action instead of a set of actions. Challenging assignments that (slightly) stretch one's skills lead to flow.

In the 1950s British cybernetician, Gordon Pask designed an adaptive teaching machine called SAKI, an early example of 'e-learning'. The machine is discussed in some detail in Stafford Beer's book "Cybernetics and Management". In the patent application for SAKI (1956), Pask's comments (some of which are included below) indicate an awareness of the pedagogical importance of balancing student competence with didactic challenge, which is quite consistent with flow theory:

1. If the operator is receiving data at too slow a rate, he is likely to become bored and attend to other irrelevant data.
2. If the data given indicates too precisely what responses the operator is required to make, the skill becomes too easy to perform and the operator again tends to become bored.
3. If the data given is too complicated or is given at too great a rate, the operator is unable to deal with it. He is then liable to become discouraged and lose interest in performing or learning the skill.

Ideally, for an operator to perform a skill efficiently, the data presented to him should always be of sufficient complexity to maintain his interest and maintain a competitive situation, but not so complex as to discourage the operator. Similarly these conditions should obtain at each stage of a learning process if it is to be efficient. A tutor teaching one pupil seeks to maintain just these conditions.

Around 2000, it came to the attention of Csíkszentmihályi that the principles and practices of the Montessori Method of education seemed to purposefully set up continuous flow opportunities and experiences for students. Csíkszentmihályi and psychologist Kevin Rathunde embarked on a multi-year study of student experiences in Montessori settings and traditional educational settings. The research supported observations that students achieved flow experiences more frequently in Montessori settings.

Performance and learning

Flow experiences imply a growth principle. When one is in a flow state, he or she is working to master the activity at hand. To maintain that flow state, one must seek increasingly greater challenges. Attempting these new, difficult challenges stretches one's skills. One emerges from such a flow experience with a bit of personal growth and great "feelings of competence and

efficacy". By increasing time spent in flow, intrinsic motivation and self-directed learning also increases.

Flow has a documented correlation with high performance in the fields of artistic and scientific creativity;, teaching, learning, and sports. Flow has been linked to persistence and achievement in activities while also helping to lower anxiety during various activities and raise self-esteem. However, evidence regarding better performance in flow situations is mixed. For sure, the association between the two is a reciprocal one. That is, flow experiences may foster better performance but, on the other hand, good performance makes flow experiences more likely. Results of a longitudinal study in the academic context indicate that the causal effect of flow on performance is only of small magnitude and the strong relationship between the two is driven by an effect of performance on flow. In the long run, flow experiences in a specific activity may lead to higher performance in that activity as flow is positively correlated with a higher subsequent motivation to perform and to perform well.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In 1975, Mihaly Csikszentmihályi and his fellow researchers began researching flow after Csikszentmihályi became fascinated by artists who would essentially get lost in their work. Artists, especially painters, got so immersed in their work that they would disregard their need for food, water and even sleep. Thus, the origin of research on the theory of flow came about when Csikszentmihályi tried to understand this phenomenon experienced by these artists. Flow research became prevalent in the 1980s and 1990s, with Csikszentmihályi and his colleagues in Italy still at the forefront. Researchers interested in optimal experiences and emphasizing positive experiences, especially in places such as schools and the business world, also began studying the theory of flow at this time. The theory of flow was greatly used in the theories of Maslow and Rogers in their development of the humanistic tradition of psychology. Flow has been recognized throughout history and across cultures. The teachings of Buddhism and of Taoism speak of a state of mind known as the "action of inaction" or "doing without doing" (*wu wei* in Taoism) that greatly resembles the idea of flow. Also, Hindu texts on Advaita philosophy such as Ashtavakra Gita and the Yoga of Knowledge such as Bhagavad-Gita refer to a similar state.

Although Flow Theory has not yet been tested in the area of foreign or second language learning, Egbert (2003) tried to establish the foundation for a research stream addressing flow in language learning and investigate whether flow exists in foreign language (FL) classrooms. Findings revealed that flow does exist in the FL classroom and also Flow Theory offers an interesting and useful framework for conceptualizing and evaluating language learning activities.

Another study was done by Eisenberger et al. (2005) who applied Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) Flow Theory of optimal experience to the workplace. This study examined the relationship of employees' perceived skill and challenge at work and the need for achievement with their positive mood, intrinsic task interest, and extra-role performance. Among achievement-oriented employees only, high skill and challenge was associated with greater positive mood, task interest,

and performance than other skill/challenge combinations. Additionally, positive mood mediated the interactive relationship of skill/challenge and need for achievement with performance.

Furthermore, Clarke and Haworth (1994) investigated whether the experience of situations where high challenge is matched by skill (termed 'flow') can be classed as 'optimal experience'. The results showed that the positive poles of subjective experience tended to cluster in 'control' (skills exceeding moderate challenge) rather than flow. However, more optimal experience (considered as high enjoyment) occurred in flow than expected. In addition, optimal experience in flow was characterized by high cognitive involvement. Subjects who experienced flow as optimal experience were found to score significantly higher on measures of psychological well-being than those who did not experience flow as highly enjoyable.

In the field of education, a different study was conducted by Stormoen et. al (2016) which identified factors that promote positive experiences in high school physical education (PE). The study combined elements of Self-determination Theory (SDT) with the theory of "flow. The majority of the students reported having flow experiences, although this was truer for boys than for girls. Those who had experienced flow also tended to be like those who had experienced the fulfillment of basic psychological needs and were characterized by a high level of autonomous motivation. In boys, the need for competence was a stronger predictor of flow than other factors, while for girls the need for relatedness was the stronger predictor of flow.

Moreover, Chan & Ahern (1999) investigated the effect of activity content, its presentation, and the interactions between the two on flow experience (intrinsic motivation) in instructional activity. Results suggested that the activity content had major influences on motivation, but argued that while Hypermedia presentation added appeals to instructions that motivate students, complex presentations can be distracting and should be used gradually."

Asakawa (2004) examined whether flow theory's most basic and general hypothesis, that quality of experience is a function of perceived challenges and skills, was applicable to a Japanese sample. Furthermore, whether autotelic and non-autotelic groups' perceptions of challenges and skills affected the quality of these two groups' experiences, and how these two groups balanced their perceived challenges and skills when engaged in daily activities. The results showed that high challenge/high skill situations created an optimal state of mind for the Japanese college students, as flow theory postulates.

Besides, Rathunde and Csikszentmihalyi (2005) compared the time use and perceptions of schools, teachers, and friends of approximately 290 demographically matched students in Montessori and traditional middle schools. Their study revealed that Montessori students spent more time engaged with school-related tasks, chores, collaborative work, and individual projects, while traditional students spent more time in social and leisure activities and more time in didactic educational settings (e.g., listening to a lecture, note taking, watching instructional videos). These results are discussed in terms of current thought on motivation in education and middle school reform.

In another study, Shernoff et al. (2003) presented a conceptualization of student engagement based on the culmination of concentration, interest, and enjoyment (i.e., flow). It was investigated how adolescents spent their time in high school and the conditions under which they reported being engaged. Participants were also more engaged in individual and group work versus listening to lectures, watching videos, or taking exams. They concluded that increased engagement, such as focusing on learning activities that support students' autonomy and providing an appropriate level of challenge for students' skills are so effective.

Finally, Meyer and Turner (2006) discussed how the research findings about motivation in classrooms have led to a closer examination of emotions. They described how motivation theories such as Academic Risk Taking, Flow Theory, and Goal Theory have helped them better understand emotions in their classroom research. Their research findings suggested that engaging students in learning requires consistently positive emotional experiences, which contribute to a classroom climate that forms the foundation for teacher–student relationships and interactions necessary for motivation to learn. They concluded that integration of emotion, motivation, and cognition theoretically and methodologically to move the research forward was mandatory.

THE RESEARCH QUESTION

How do students' evaluations of their engagement in the tasks coincide with or differ from their teachers'?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

To answer the research question and perceive how students and teachers evaluate their students' engagement in the tasks, the study was conducted with two groups of participants. One group would be the teachers' group with 20 participants and the other would be the group of 83 students. The participants were selected from sophomores studying 'English translation' at Shiraz Azad University and the teachers were veteran in TEFL. They were asked to fill out the flow questionnaire including 32 items ranging from never to always.

Instrument

The main source of data was a questionnaire with 5-point Likert scale regarding students' and teachers' perceptions toward flow in the classrooms. It was used for the purpose of measuring the overall level of their engagements while performing the tasks. The Likert-scale questionnaire developed by Jackson and Marsh (1996) followed heavily the flow state. It included eight components of the flow as Challenge-Skill Balance, Clear Goals, Clear Feedback, Concentration on the Task at Hand, Sense of Control, Loss of Self-Consciousness, Transformation of Time, and Autotelic Experience. To better measure the students' engagements in the tasks and activities, four questions proposed corresponding to each component of the flow state. The results for each component of the questionnaire from both groups were analyzed to provide an answer to the research questions regarding the extent of students' engagement and flow occurring in English language classes.

Procedure of the study

The current study implemented a qualitative methodology to understand the EFL students' experiences in regards to engagement in the completion of the target tasks in language classes. Moreover, a quantitative approach was used to compare the level of engagement experienced by students from the viewpoints of both teachers and students.

RESULTS AND DISSCUSSION

Based on data analysis, the following table represents the findings for all the components of the questionnaire in both groups. As table shows, both groups verify the existence of flow state in the classroom. The mean scores obtained for both teachers and students are 3.20 (representing students' engagements midway between 'often' and 'usually'), 2.59 (representing very close to 'often'). Comparing all components of flow in both groups shows consistency between the elements, only with some exceptions. The highest mean score was recorded for the element 'clear feedback'. The mean scores of 3.23 was for teachers and 2.50 was for students. While the other components were nearly close, the feedback item showed a slight difference between teachers and students. In addition, all components had low standard deviation (SD < 1) except three components of challenge-skill balance, loss of self-consciousness, and autotelic experience (SD >1).

Table 1: Flow State

Components of Flow	Groups	N	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Challenge-skill balance	teachers	20	2.7500	1.00656	.22507
	students	83	2.3293	.77467	.08555
Clear goals	teachers	20	2.9875	.99166	.22174
	students	83	2.6738	.70567	.07793
Unambiguous feedback	teachers	20	3.2333	.91830	.20534
	students	83	2.5020	.73873	.08109
concentration	teachers	20	2.9625	.90784	.20300
	Students	83	2.2620	.75193	.08254
Sense of control	Teachers	20	2.9250	.90721	.20286
	Students	83	2.3102	.91364	.10029
Loss of self-consciousness	Teachers	20	2.7000	1.13149	.25301
	Students	83	2.3765	.78123	.08575
Transformation of time	Teachers	20	2.7750	.96621	.21605
	Students	83	2.4699	.69886	.07671
Autotelic experience	Teachers	20	2.9000	1.00459	.22463
	Students	83	2.3765	.93327	.10244
Overall Flow	Teachers	20	3.20	1.005	.225
	Students	83	2.59	.663	.073

To examine any probable difference between teachers' perception and students' perception, independent samples *t*-test was run. The results showed that there was significant difference (p> .05) regarding challenge-skill balance, clear feedback, concentration, sense of control, loss of consciousness, and autotelic experience. But the amount of P was lower than .05 for two components of 'clear goals' and 'transformation of time'. Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups of teachers and students do not differ in their perception toward their engagement in the flow state.

Table 2: Independent Sample t-Test for Flow Components

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t*-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
1st item	Equal variances assumed	2.563	.113	2.048	100	.043	.42073	.20544	.01315	.82832
	Equal variances not assumed			1.747	24.765	.093	.42073	.24078	-.07541	.91687
2nd item	Equal variances assumed	2.759	.100	1.637	100	.105	.31372	.19159	-.06640	.69383
	Equal variances not assumed			1.335	23.898	.195	.31372	.23504	-.17148	.79892
3rd item	Equal variances assumed	.064	.801	3.785	101	.000	.73133	.19322	.34803	1.11462
	Equal variances not assumed			3.313	25.246	.003	.73133	.22077	.27687	1.18578
4th item	Equal variances assumed	1.484	.226	3.588	101	.001	.70045	.19520	.31323	1.08767
	Equal variances not assumed			3.196	25.638	.004	.70045	.21914	.24970	1.15120
5th item	Equal variances assumed	.267	.606	2.705	101	.008	.61476	.22728	.16389	1.06563
	Equal variances not assumed			2.717	29.020	.011	.61476	.22629	.15195	1.07757
6th item	Equal variances assumed	3.170	.078	1.513	101	.133	.32349	.21375	-.10053	.74752
	Equal variances not assumed			1.211	23.544	.238	.32349	.26715	-.22843	.87542
7th item	Equal variances assumed	4.152	.044	1.619	101	.108	.30512	.18842	-.06865	.67889
	Equal variances not assumed			1.331	24.004	.196	.30512	.22926	-.16805	.77829
8th item	Equal variances assumed	.100	.753	2.219	101	.029	.52349	.23592	.05550	.99149
	Equal variances not assumed			2.120	27.449	.043	.52349	.24689	.01731	1.02968

According to above tables, the participants approved the balance between 'challenge and skills' provided in the classroom. Creating flow state depends on this element and the similar perceptions between teachers and students revealed that the level of tasks meet the level of students' skills and abilities. Thus, there was an overall match between 'challenges or the difficulty of skills' and their skills. Having clear goal was an important element for creating high engagement experience, implying that the students had a strong sense of what needed to be done during the tasks. The results showed that students understood the clarity of goals and purpose in the tasks. Considering 'the feedback', findings from teachers were higher than those of students. It showed that the feedbacks were useful in teachers' term. However, students felt that they had received the needed support 'nearly often' and the difference between both groups' understanding was bigger than the other components.

Moreover, here, a question has been arisen: "How students concentrated and attended the tasks?" The results revealed that it happened 'often' to them and teachers approved it too. Both groups, also, supported the sense of control among learners. It revealed that they felt much involvement, creativity, and decision-making. Besides, the extent to which learners feel safe and comfortable during the task referred to loss of self-consciousness in the state of flow. The registered scores revealed that the students felt midway between 'seldom and often' whereas teachers understood it rather high. It means that loss of self-consciousness occurred 'often' during their performance.

Furthermore, the component of transformation of time referred to the quality of immersion and enjoyment. The close relationship between the groups revealed similar perceptions in the groups. The results for the last component 'autotelic experience' revealed that the overall experience left the majority of the students feel good about their work and the activities. However, the most interesting result gained from both groups was that all components classified under "conditions of flow" (challenge – skill match, feedback, clear goals, concentration, sense of control, loss of self-consciousness, and autotelic experience) had similar scores, just with the highest score for 3rd component in both groups. In fact, the findings indicated the existence of flow and the students' engagements in language classes. According to the principles of flow, the engagement during the work intensifies the students' engagement at behavioral, emotional and cognitive levels and it is the main goal in applying flow state.

CONCLUSION

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) emphasizes that flow is experienced when *concentration*, *interest* and *enjoyment* are experienced simultaneously. The findings of the study revealed that students experienced the necessary concentration, interest and enjoyment for flow during their works and activities. In addition, it was concluded that there is a relationship between flow state and the achievement of skills in the process of language learning. The active and meaningful participation in the activities depends on the level of tasks and the learners' ability. Therefore, due to the importance of flow state, the practitioners are suggested to create such a condition in which students can flourish. The key goal in education is to design learning experiences that stimulate students' interests and give them a better perspective of involvement in real situations. It seems that other researchers interested in the interplay between flow state and the affective domains

EFL can carry out a research to delve into this issue as well as the achievement of language components.

Limitations of the study

The study was conducted among English translation students and their instructors, so the obtained results are not generalizable to other EFL learners. The age, gender, and experience of both teachers and learners have been taken into account, but due to the space constraints, the researchers did not mention them in data analysis section.

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AN INVESTIGATION ON MANIPULATION OF TRANSLATION ON SELECTED PLAYS OF HAROLD PINTER BASED ON DUKATE S MODEL

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ABSTRACT
The present study attempted to investigate, the manipulative side of translation with the help of selected theoretical framework, Aiga Dukate (2007) typology of manipulation. It was based on the important statement by Theo Herman's (1985), "From the point of view of the target literature all translation implies a degree of manipulation of the source text for a certain purpose" (p.11), which was also become known as the manipulation hypothesis. Here special attention is on the concept of manipulation in translation, concentrated on both positive and negative side of them, both negative side of manipulation, text-internal manipulation as conscious distortion which contains addition, deletion, attenuation and substitution, and positive side of it, text-internal manipulation as conscious improvement which contains explicitation were covered in this study, which was an important issue in the science of translation. Actually the corpus of the study were three absurd play that were selected among the works of Harold Pinter.

KEYWORDS: manipulation, absurd play, conscious manipulation, unconscious manipulation

INTRODUCTION
From 1990s ahead translation studies have been encounter with growing interest between researchers, scientists and scholars therefore the study of translation, as well as its related topics became popular and assuming high figure as a result different aspects of translation comes under closer investigation in various studies. One of the most inspirational claims ever said about translation is the statement by Theo Hermans (1985), "From the point of view of the target literature all translation implies a degree of manipulation of the source text for a certain purpose". (p. 11), which is later known as the manipulation hypothesis. Such a claim raises an important movement in the world of translation studies. In 1985 the concept of manipulation in translation was introduce to the world of translation studies by a group of scholars, they reject the traditional, idealized idea that the target text is a faithful reproduction of the source text. They rather try to see translation as a manipulation of the source text for a certain purpose. This makes their approach both functional and target-oriented. Hermans (1985) regards other beliefs of the group, explains that the members of the manipulation school share, a view of literature as a complex

dynamic system; a conviction that there should be a continual interplay between theoretical models and practical case studies; an approach to literary translation which is descriptive, target oriented, functional and systemic; and an interest in the norms and constraints that govern the production and reception of translations, in the relation between translation and other types of text processing, and in the place and role of translations both within a given literature and in the interaction between literatures. (p. 10-11)

It can be claimed that as Dukate mentioned (2007) everything is manipulation, political speeches, advertisement, sermons, everyday conversations, but it is translation that is in an unfortunate position, because it is always compared with the original. (p.115). In translation, like in other professional area of activity such as finances, computing, medicine, manipulation results not only in distortion, but also in improvement. Bassnett and Lefevere (1992), when speaking about the results of manipulation, claim, that manipulation, "In its positive aspect can help in the evolution of a literature and a society. It can introduce new concepts, new genres, new devices and the history of translation is the history also of literary innovation. "Finally, it can be claim that manipulation in most of specific professional field, have a larger scope and may be of positive, negative or neutral nature but not in translation, so this study is an attempt to scrutinize positive side of the concept of manipulation, beside the negative side of it seems more complete in studying this issue.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The name of Manipulation School as Tymoczko and Gentzler (2002) stated, is used to refer to the group of scholars, who propagate this view to translation, they are mainly worked on literary texts, and they see culture-related aspect of translation and know it as a branch of comparative literature. Considering this approach, translations are not regarded as a secondary or derivative activity, but considered as one of the primary literary tools that can extend social-educational systems, publishing companies and even governments had their disposal to manipulate the society in order to construct the kind of culture they had intended.(p.xiii). Lefever (1992) declared that manipulation school of translation is an inventory of literary devices, genres, motifs, prototypical characters and situations, and symbols; the other a concept of what the role of literature is, or should be, in the social system as a whole. (p.26)

The manipulation school of translation studies

Manipulation school as Dukate (2007) mentioned, represents an approach to translation as manipulation or more precisely as rewriting of texts for a specific target audience in conformity with target language norms and under various constraints. Some of its most prominent members are James Holmes, André Lefevere, José Lambert, Theo Hermans, Susan Bassnett and, Itamar Even-Zohar, Gideon Toury. (p.39)

The beginnings of this new paradigm can be traced back to the Russian Formalists and the Prague Structuralists and to the activities of James Holmes, Jiri Levý, Anton Popovič and František Miko. The Tel Aviv scholar Itamar Even-Zohar and his Polysystem Theory has exerted a particularly strong influence on this group. The group has also been known under various other

names, translation studies, the Low Countries group, the descriptive, Empirical or Systemic school, the Polysystems approach, the Tel-Aviv-Lueven axis, each of which describes certain aspects of the group's composition or views. (Dukate, 2007, p.39)

Translation as manipulation

It can be claimed that translation is manipulation because no translation can ever be the same as the original. It seems that the view adopted on translation as manipulation depends on the way one see or perceives translation. Still, the arguments for translation as manipulation seem to be stronger. Certainly, it cannot be claimed that everything a translator does to translation is manipulation, but certain strategies under certain constraints and due to various factors result in manipulation. (Kramina, 2004, p. 37-38). Rabassa (1984) speaks about the impossibility of translation, without manipulation in the text, if one expects that there might be a perfect equivalence between the source and the target texts, because even phonemes, not to mention words, used to denote certain phenomena or concepts, differ in various languages. Even if the corresponding words in the two languages were found, the connotations these words carry would be different. This is especially true of culture specific items, such as cultural realia and dialects. (As cited in kramina, 2004, p.37)

Manipulation, definition and description

The issue of manipulation is one of the contentious issue in the world of translation studies; since there is no agreement on the definition of it scholars studied and define it differently or only concentrate on one aspect of it. In fact various scholars have attempted to describe and discussing it differently and used different terms referring to the concept of manipulation, Herman (1991) believes that, manipulation is a type of text handling on a part of translator aimed at bringing a target text in to the line with a particular model and hence a particular correctness notion in so doing secure social acceptance. (As cited in Shuttleworth & Cowie, p.101).

Katan (1999) believe that "manipulation is part and parcel of translation he believe that the very act of translating involves skillful manipulation". (p.140); then Farahzad (2000) defines manipulation as "any deliberate or unconscious altering and controlling of the source language concept in target text for ideological reason". (p. 24). According to Bassnett and Lefevere (1990), believe translation, like all (re)writing is never innocent; there is always a context in which the translation takes place, always a history from which a text emerges and into which a text is transposed. Reference to the manipulative aspect in translation underscores the ideological dimension present in any translations.

Finally, Dukate (2007) believe that , manipulation is considered to be the translator's or interpreter's handling of a text which results in the adaptation of the text for the target audience, considering the cultural, ideological, linguistic and literary differences between the cultures in contact, which takes place within a particular cultural setting and is carried out by a human agent, with the consequence of a possible influence of individual or psychology-related factors upon the end product (p.3).

Reasons for manipulation

If one assumes that translation is manipulation, then it is necessary to clarify what are the reasons for manipulation. Lefevere (1992) believes that translation, "being the most obvious recognizable type of rewriting", (p.9), can never free itself from the political and literary power structures existent within a given culture. More often than not, if translators want their work to be published and well received at the target pole, they cannot disregard those constraints. Farahzad (1999) mentioned, "The conscious process leads to conscious manipulation intentionally carried out by the translator because of various social, political and other factors", and the unconscious manipulation is mostly a psychological phenomenon, and occurs under the influence of psychological factors". (p.156)

Another reason as Dukate (2004) is Toury's (1995) translation laws. Thus the law of growing standardization states that, "in translation, textual relations obtaining in the original are often modified, sometimes to the point of being totally ignored, in favor of habitual options offered by a target repertoire".(p.268). Toury explains that the translator's behavior is influenced by a multitude of variables such as "biological and bilingual age, or previous experience in translation of different kinds and for different purposes". (p.270). According to Toury, another influential factor, is the position of translation within a particular culture. Thus, "the more peripheral this status, the more translation will accommodate itself to established models and repertoires". (p.270-271).The second Toury's translation law, is the law of interference, which states that "in translation, phenomena pertaining to the make-up of the source text tend to be transferred to the target text." (p.275) "the more the make-up of a text is taken as a factor in the formulation of its translation, the more the target text can be expected to show traces of interference". (p.276)

As Toury added (1995) another reason for manipulation certainly is financial considerations; many texts are not translated or translated only partly because of the lack of time or money for carrying out the particular task. Ideological considerations play a considerable role in defining translation policy. During certain periods of history some texts were not translated at all or had to be translated according to certain requirements; As lefever (1992) mentioned whatever the translator produce translation, literary, histories, anthologies, criticism or editors rewriting adopt, manipulate the originals they work with to some extent, to make them fit in with the dominant, or one of the dominant ideological and poetological current of their time. (p.8)

Result of manipulation

Katan (1999) thinks that manipulation is part and parcel of a translation. And then he mentioned, that "the very act of translating involves skilful manipulation" (p.140).The next question that needs to be answered concerns the perception of manipulation. How to perceive it, as something good or bad? It seems useful here to adopt Katan's approach, although he refers only to distortion, the idea seems worth considering. Besides, distortion could be perceived as a type of manipulation, especially in the light of Katan's own description of this phenomenon, namely that "distortion can occur through a faithful, literal translation and by making explicit what was originally implicit". Distortion in itself is neither good nor bad. It is a way of directing the addressee to what the speaker or writer considers is important; it does not give us an objective

picture of reality, but functions like a zoom lens allowing the reader to focus on certain aspects, leaving other aspects in the background. (Katan, 1999, p.138).

Lefevere (1992), in the preface of his book Translation, Rewriting and the Manipulation of Literary Fame states, rewriting is manipulation, undertaken in the service of power, and in its positive aspect can help in the evolution of a literature and a society. Thus, also in relation to manipulation, it might be claimed that, in general, it is neither good nor bad. It simply exists, especially in the case of unavoidable manipulation. (p. xii)

As Dukate (2007) indicate, also if one assumes that in literary translation manipulation is always unavoidable it cannot be considered within the categories of good and bad. As considers unconscious manipulation and manipulation due to ignorance can be argued that they are bad and undesirable. Whether it can be avoided at all and how? It depends on the cultural context, on the literal, political and economic power structures as well as on the translator's professionalism and experience. (p. 117)

Different types of manipulation

The scholar s from different school of thought that can be called non-manipulationist see manipulation from different point of view and distinguishing different types of manipulation, In 1995 Javier Franco Aixelá s in his book, Specific Cultural Items and their Translation, mentioned intercultural manipulation, he concentrates on the translation of specific cultural items. He offers a classification that range from lowest degree to highest degree of manipulation, repetition, transcription or transliteration is the lowest degree of manipulation and an autonomous creation is the highest degree of manipulation. (As cited in Dukate, 2007, p.59).

Sirku Aaltonen in 1997 her book, Translating Plays or Baking Apple Pies, views manipulation as relationship between the source and the target text. She believes that the target text can manipulate the source text in three different ways she which she classified them in to 'transformation', 'intersection' and 'borrowing'. (p.1984). Farahazad (1999) in her book A Gestalt Approach to Manipulation propose a theory which see manipulation from the perspective of Gestalt psychology, she divided manipulation in to two category, conscious and unconscious manipulation and according to that describe two type of process. (p.153)

Zauberga (2001) in her book The Text-Book For translation Students mentioned to ideological rewriting. Then In one of her latest book, Theoretical Tools for Professional Translators in 2004 she also concentrates on ideological manipulation and distinguishes between deliberate and unconscious manipulation. According to Zauberga ideological manipulation can take the following forms that can be exemplified as: deletion, substitution, addition, attenuation. (As cited in Dukate, 2007, p.54).

Nitsa Ben-Ari in 2002 write the book, The Double Conversion of Ben-Hur, and propose, didactic manipulation, he explain, Didactic manipulation of texts can be exercised for ideological reasons, and can take various forms. It can take the form of conversion of small-scale units (words or

phrases), or the form of small-scale omissions. It can also take the form of large scale omissions. (As cited in Dukate, 2007, p.60).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

According to the problem and purpose of the study, the following research questions are brought forth,

Q1. Which side of manipulation is the most frequent one in the translation of Harold Pinter's play, the negative side, text-internal manipulation as conscious distortion (addition, deletion, attenuation and substitution), or positive side of it, Text-internal manipulation as conscious improvement(explicitation)?

Q2. Which side of manipulation is more influential in the translation of above mentioned plays? Are they improve the quality of translated text or cause distortion?

METHODOLOGY

This project is qualitative and comparative study, because its aim at describing the quality of translation in some enlightening way, also it will be comparative too, because comparative research methods have long been used in cross-cultural studies to identify, analyze and explain similarities and differences. Also this study could be descriptive because this type of research describes what exists and may help to uncover new facts and meaning, finally it should say that, it's an empirical and corpus based kind of research in which the translated Persian play text compared to the original one in English to extract and study the manipulative strategies applied by the translator.

The Corpus of the Study

The corpuse of the study were selected from English play which have an English writer so, they are include the original plays as their translation (the whole play text along with translated version were studided in each case) ,three absurd play of Harold Pinter and their translations are selected. The plays are, The Birthday Party (1930), , the Dumb Waiter (1930), and Betrayal (1980), and the translation in to persian s are جشن تولد و تک گویی (1388) traslated by Reza Dadooi, خیانت و دو نمایشنامه ی دیگر(1386) , with the translation of Shole Azar and دو نمایشنامه، مستخدم ماشینی و درد خفیف (1387) translated by GholamReza Sarraf.

Theoretical Framework ,Dukate Typology of Manipulation

According to Aiga Dukate (2007), manipulation as a whole divided in to two major type which called conscious and unconscious manipulation. Then in the next step, she divided the manipulation in to two category, text external and text internal manipulation. Each of these mentioned type is classified in to improvement, distortion and handling which comes under the branches of conscious and unconscious manipulation.

So, she make this classifications, text internal or text external manipulation as conscious improvement, and unconscious improvement, Text internal or text external manipulation as conscious handling, and unconscious

handling, Text internal or text-external manipulation as conscious distortion, and unconscious distortion. In this study the researcher tries to work on text-internal manipulation as conscious distortion which contains addition, deletion, attenuation and substitution, and, text-internal manipulation as conscious improvement which contains Explicitation. Here in this study the researcher is decided to work on, text-internal manipulation as conscious improvement which contains explicitation and then on, text-internal manipulation as conscious distortion which contains addition, deletion, attenuation and substitution.

The Design of the study

In order to do this study, Aiga Dukate typology of manipulation is chosen, because this theory has covered all aspect of the concept of manipulation. Firstly it should say that the unit of analysis ranged from lexical choice to clause and sentences, the researcher tries to study all sentences of chosen plays, all of them were extracted to study for the purpose of the research. Secondly the extracted sentences evaluated according to Dukate typology to find and study, text-internal manipulation as conscious improvement which contains explicitation and then on, text-internal manipulation as conscious distortion which contains addition, deletion attenuation and substitution. The plays are studied sentences by sentences with their translation and then compared with each other according to their translator, to see which of them are more used and more effective.

RESULT AND DISSCUSSION

Here, each of the manipulation strategy describe through examples found in the study that is also tabulate for the sake of convenience.

English Text	PersianTranslation	Strategy
1. Ben, Things have tightened up, mate. They've tightened up.	1. بن: اوضاع قمر در عقرب شد رفیق قمر در عقرب.	Explicitation
2. Meg, I've got your cornflakes ready.	2. مگ: واسه صبحانه ات برشتوک حاضر کردم.	Addition
3. Stanley, I'd say that was plain stupid.	3.استنلی: منکه میگم کاراحمقانه ایه.	Deletion
4.Meg, I like cigarettes	4. مگ: منم ازسیگاربدم نمیآد.	Subsitution
5. Meg, (Kissing him) oh, Stanny	5.مگ: (با محبت به سمت او می رود). اوه استن	Attenuation

Explicitation, as Klaudy explain, it is the technique of making explicit in the target text information that is implicit in the ST and it is usually improves the comprehensibility of the text. ' In the example, Ben, Things have tightened up, mate. They've tightened up. بن: اوضاع قمر در عقرب شد رفیق. قمر در عقرب 'Things have tightened up' s translate in to a common expression in Persian ,here the translator using some semantic changes in order to explicit the SL sentences for the TL reader.

Addition, is another kind of strategies of manipulation, Zuberga mentioned, it's a type of lexical transformation whereby the missing elements are introduced in the text. In the example, Meg,

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I've got your cornflakes ready. مگ: واسه صبحانه ات برشتوک حاضر کردم the word 'صبحانه ات' is added in Persian translation, here the translator manipulate the ST by adding a word to the TL , 'cornflakes' is also used for breakfast in Iran and there no need to add such a word to the TL.

The next strategy is deletion, it is a type of lexical transformation when some ST units are omitted in the translation for different reasons, grammatical, semantical or ideological that can distort the meaning of the TL. In the example, Stanley, I'd say that was plain stupid. استنلی: منکه میگم کاراحمقانه ایه the word 'plain' omitted in Persian translation that is used to expressing on the stupidity of that work in the SL but it's not transfer to TL.

Substitution is another type of strategies, it is a type of grammatical transformation when either separate language units or whole constructions are replaced by other forms. Meg, I like cigarettes. مگ: منم ازسیگاربدم نمیآد. In this sentences, a positive sentences is change in to a negative one in Persian so the whole construction is change.

Attenuation is the last strategies, which is applied due to moral considerations to mitigate taboo words or 'upgrade' substandard language as well as rude and swear words that is omitted in the translation. In this example, Meg, (Kissing him) oh, Stanny. مگ: (با محبت به سمت او می رود).او استن it's obvious that the clause 'Kissing him' is translated 'با محبت به سمت او می رود' because of the social and cultural paradigm and moral consideration in the Target culture, Iran.

As indicated in previous section according to the typology of manipulation proposed by Aiga Dukate (2007) which was adopted for this study, the most frequently used type of manipulation in translation of selected plays of Harold Pinter is, Text-internal manipulation as conscious improvement, 'explicitation' with the frequency of 49. 36%. The next strategy which come in second place is 'substitution', with the frequency of 23.8%. Another strategy which is come in the third place is belong to the categories of distortion, 'Text-internal manipulation as conscious distortion' is 'deletion 'with the frequency of14.74%. The next strategy of these categories is 'Addition', with the frequency of 7.05%. The last strategy which have the less frequency is 'attenuation', its frequency is 5.77%. Of 156 cases 9 case is for attenuation, which 6 is belongs to the Birthday Party, 3 to Betrayal and in the Dumb Waiter the translator did not have any case attenuation.

As mentioned earlier, this study try to work on 'text-internal manipulation as conscious improvement' which contains 'explicitation' and then on, 'text-internal manipulation as conscious distortion' which contains 'addition', 'deletion', 'attenuation' and substitution. According to Aiga Dukate (2007) typology, conscious manipulation, which can be ideological and linguo-cultural. In the first case ideological manipulation, it is carried out in the name of a certain ideology and it is the agent's attempt to present the source text to the target audience in a distorted way. In the second case linguo-cultural manipulation, the translator's attempt to overcome the linguistic and/or cultural differences it is the translator s attempt to deal with the linguo-semantic and cultural differences between the SL and TL language and culture. This type of manipulation shows itself in differences between the ST and the TT, which is due to ideological, linguistic or cultural considerations. The reasons why text-internal manipulation,

occurs can be explained by paying attention to Toury's (1995) translation laws. The law of growing standardization as mentioned in chapter two, mentioned "In translation, textual relations obtaining in the original are often modified, sometimes to the point of being totally ignored, in favor of (more) habitual options offered by a target repertoire". (p.268). He added, the translator's behavior is influenced by a multitude of variables "such as biological and bilingual age, or previous experience in translation of different kinds and for different purposes". (p.270).As it's obvious in the result of the present study, the more peripheral and secondary this status, the more translation will adopt itself to established models and repertoires.

The second Toury's (1995) translation law, the law of interference, he states that "in translation, phenomena pertaining to the make-up of the source text tend to be transferred to the target text" (p.275), also might be used to explain why manipulation occurs. Thus Toury explains, that the constant tension between the desire to produce a translation as close as possible to the original and the desire to comply with the dominant requirement for fluent, native-sounding texts often results in manipulation, or in other words positioning the translation between acceptability and adequacy, therefore as the result of the study shows, the more this make up of a text used in the translation, the more the TT can be expected to show traces of interference.

Another influential factor, is in Toury's (1995) norms, the improvement or the distortion of the translation is depend on the case of translations between the minor and major cultures or 'the position of translation within a particular culture'. Thus, "the more peripheral this status, the more translation will accommodate itself to established models and repertoires." (p. 270-271); A translator must decide which of the norms take priority in translation whether the cultural norms of the source language or the cultural norms of the target language community, or perhaps a combination of the two. (Which seems very difficult in the process of translation). According to the finding of this study, the translator try to choose target language cultures and put it in priority and use 'explicitation' in order to make more coherent and readable text for the TL audience, In the major case the readers of the TL might perceive the translation as an improvement of the original, because now it has become understandable for them, but the source culture readers of the TT would see the domesticated translation as a distortion of the original.

So, the reason why a translator is doing the text-internal manipulation can be ideological or linguo-cultural, as it's obvious in some of the example's the translator adopt the strategies like 'attenuation' and softening the rude word, because the ideological reason which s/he must consider, the reason can be personal, institutional or collective. Text-internal manipulation as conscious distortion is a type of manipulation, usually is dues to the dominant ideology. Another reason is linguo-cultural, here the translator attempt to overcome the linguistic and cultural differences and try to overcome the linguistical, semanticl and cultural differences between the SL and TL language and culture. In some of the above mentioned example, it's obvious that the translator, substitute, delete or add the linguistically element to produce a translation as close as possible to the original but most of the time in distorting way.
It can be concluded that in general, text-internal manipulation as conscious improvement' which contains 'explicitation' have the most commonly used strategy in so called plays, as discussed earlier improvement is a change made that makes the quality or state of something better, it make

the text more clear, comprehensible and acceptable for the TT audience. Attenuation which have the less frequency shows that the translator didn't try to produce a translation as close as possible to the original by softening many taboos and swear word and use them in the translation and does not distort the text.

CONCLUSION

As the result of the research carried out and the research conclusions received, the researcher of this study asserts, the main aim of the study is manipulation in translation and distinguishing it as generally believed in everyday situation; that most of the time bears a negative connotation and is usually identify as the use of distortion means to achieve certain deviousness. But in this study it's achieved that in translation, just like any other fields, manipulation in translation can take the forms of improvement and it can have positive side. The research tries to study the main translation strategies and investigating which strategies have the most commonly used in translation of so called plays. The results of the study prove that the most frequently used strategies is manipulation as an improvement, and the strategies of distortion have the less frequency.

Another important point that is shown by the result of the study, is translating with the cultural difference that is actually controversial task when translator facing with it in translation, Nida (1964) believes in equal importance to both linguistic and cultural differences between the SL and the TL and concludes that "differences between cultures may cause more severe complications for the translator than do differences in language structure". (p.130).This difficulty of the so called translation is because of the differences between cultures which Nida (1964) explain, "culture is a complex collection of experiences which conditions daily life; it includes history, social structure, religion, traditional customs and everyday usage". In the result of the study it's obvious that in translating taboos and swear word, translator deleted or softening that word or terms which called attenuation. Therefore the role of culture in translation is unavoidable. Because in today's world translation is no longer regarded as just a linguistic activity but it's an activity in cultural communications.

Many people assume that if on can speaks in a languages well, he or she can be able to translate easily, but this is not always the case. Actually, proper understanding and rendering of a text is more likely to be a problem of cultural diversity than that of linguistic differences. Before the process of translating surveying and scrutinizing about of both source and target languages and cultures is necessary. The more a translator is aware of complexities of differences between cultures, the better a translator s/he will be.

Limitations of the study

Like any other piece of research, the current research has faced up with some limitation . One of the issue which the researcher is encountered during her study is finding the complete and all-embracing definition of manipulation because, as mentioned before the concept of translation as manipulation and attitudes towards it is very wide as a result only some aspects of this concept (negative side or ideological side of the issue) is discussed most of the time, so the researcher try

to study different scholars definition from manipulation to find and write all-embracing and complete definition for it. Another limitation of the researcher arises from the fact that, very few researcher have been carried out about manipulation as mentioned earlier the scholars covered only some aspect of manipulation in translation like Farahazad (1999) conscious and unconscious manipulation or Zauberga (2001), just concentrated on ideological side of manipulation therefore there was only one comprehensive framework proposed by Dukate (2007) as a general manipulation typology, which covered every side of manipulation, so the same framework is chosen for the purpose of the study.

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THE EFFECT OF GENDER ON HEMISPHERIC DOMINANCE AND THE USE OF COGNITIVE STRATEGIES AMONG IRANIAN EFL UNDERGRATUALES

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationship between gender and cognitive strategies as well as two types of styles which are pertinent to cognitive learning styles, namely, left brain and right brain dominance among EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners at Shiraz Azad University. This research targets at figuring out preferences of applying these styles and strategies by males or females among the above-mentioned university students. Therefore, 60 EFL university learners majoring in 'English Translation' at the intermediate level of proficiency studying at Shiraz Azad University are selected as the sample of the study. They are chosen based on the convenience sampling which consists of 60 sophomores. Then, two instruments for collecting data are administered. First, Brain Dominance Survey (Davis et al., 1994) has been used to discover the hemispheric preferences of the participants. Then, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is administered to identify the language learning strategies used by the same participants. This research targets at figuring out the differences between two genders in relation to the application of cognitive strategies and two cognitive styles. After administering the above-mentioned instruments, it is revealed that there is no significant difference between males and females and applying the cognitive strategies; but, in accordance with preferences of two cognitive styles, namely, left-brain and right-brain dominance, findings indicate that males are more right-brain dominant and females are more left-brain dominant.

KEYWORDS: Gender - Cognitive styles - Left/ right brain dominance - Cognitive strategies

INTRODUCTION
Language learning styles and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how well our students learn a second or foreign language. Just as learners possess various cognitive style preferences, which may change depending on circumstances, they may employ different learning strategies depending on the situation. When learning a second language (L2), the learner might select the best strategies (e.g. actions or behaviors) for apprehending, internalizing, and using the

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L2 (Oxford, 1990). Good L2 learners, according to Rubin (1987), are willing and accurate guessers; have a strong drive to communicate; are often uninhibited; willing to make mistakes; focus on form by looking for patterns and analyzing; take advantage of all practice opportunities; monitor their speech as well as that of others; and pay attention to meaning.

On the other side, understanding brain behavior has been a significant phase of exploring the learning process. Brain behavior has especially been associated with learning styles and personality traits (Saleh, 2001). Investigation an individual's brain behavior and relating it to his performances has been primarily in the form of examining functions of the various parts of the individual's brain. Studies tapping this area of research preferred various terminology such as brain hemisphericity, brain dominance, split brain research, hemisphere specialization research, or lateralization in the research literature (Saleh, 2001; Baynes & Long, 2007). Basically, the tendency of an individual to process information through left or right hemisphere (or even both in combination) has been the focus of such studies.

The human brain is a complex organ responsible for intelligence, senses, movement, and behavior (National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, 2007, p. 1). The halves of the brain – the 'right brain' and the 'left brain' – perform different functions and communicate information with each other through a band of nerves that connect them. The right side of the brain controls most of the movement and functions of the left side of the body, and the left side of the brain controls most of the movements and functions of the right side of the body. People may hear that someone is a 'right-brained' or 'left-brained' individual. This is called 'brain dominance,' meaning that an individual has a natural preference for processing information on one side of the brain. The right side is considered the intuitive or spontaneous side, while the left side is logical. Knowing an individual's brain dominance can help one understand his/her 'ways' of thinking, behaving, speaking, and functioning. Also, it can help parents and educators tailor activities to a child's natural learning preferences.

Right-brain characteristics include creativity, the ability to see patterns, spatial awareness, and the understanding of how things relate to one another in different contexts. One may find that individuals with this brain dominance are good at recognizing faces, places, and objects (Sousa, 1995, p. 88). These individuals seem to 'have a knack for':

a) "Out-of-the-box" thinking
b) Art, including the ability to draw, paint, sculpt, etc.
c) Imaginative thinking
d) Music, including the ability to play instruments with ease or to recognize a song melody and play it back upon "hearing it"

Left-brain characteristics include a gift for language, analytical skills, and mathematical concepts such as time and sequence. One may find that individuals with this brain dominance are good with letters, numbers, and words (Sousa, 1995, p. 88). These individuals seem to 'have a knack for':

a) Language skills including reading, writing, and speaking
b) Math
c) Logic and reasoning

d) Science

How can educators help the right brain/left brain students?

For many students, particularly those who are 'right-brained', a visual, such as a picture or 3-D model, can help them better understand a concept. Another way to help "right-brained" students is to pair music with learning. Teachers can have students make up a song about history facts and sing it to the melody of a familiar song such as "On Top of Old Smoky." Also, teachers can permit these students see, feel, and touch things. 'Right-brained' students also seem to thrive when doing group or hands-on activities, such as: a) shared learning, b) group discussions, c) role-play/simulations, and d) experiments**.** (Quantum Learning, 1999, p. 31)

To help 'left-brained' students, teachers can provide information in very logical sequences – for example, they can make (numbered) lists for them. Another way to help students with a left-brain preference is to give them typed or printed directions. Their teachers can permit these students do their work step by step. 'Left-brained' students seem to thrive when following plans and having structure with activities, such as: a) analysis, b) research, c) realistic projects, and d) worksheets. (Quantum Learning, 1999, p. 31)

Before proceeding to different stages of the research, it is appropriate to provide a greater representation of the functions of the left and right hemispheres of the brain. The following table (adapted from Torrance, 1980) presents a list of the functions of the left and the right hemispheres of the brain:

Table 1: Left and right brain characteristics (adapted from Torrance, 1980)

Right brain dominance	**Left brain dominance**
Intuitive	brain Intellectual
Remembers faces	Remembers names
Responds to demonstrated, illustrated, or symbolic instructions	Responds to verbal instructions and explanations
Experiments randomly and with less restraint	Experiments systematically and with control
Makes subjective judgments	Makes objective judgments
Fluid and spontaneous	Planned and structured
Prefers elusive, uncertain information	Prefers established, certain information
Synthesizing reader	Analytic reader
Reliance on images in thinking and remembering	Reliance on language in thinking and remembering
Prefers drawing and manipulating objects	Prefers talking and writing
Prefers open-ended questions	Prefers multiple choice tests
More free with feelings	Controls feelings
Good at interpreting body language	Not good at interpreting body language
Frequently uses metaphors	Rarely uses metaphors
Favors intuitive problem solving	Favors logical problem solving

As seen in Table 1, the two hemispheres are associated with different functions. However, both hemispheres work together, though at most times one is more involved in some mental functions than the other. The left hemisphere carries out more mental functions for some people, who are classified as 'left hemisphere dominant' and vice versa. Most people in the world use their right hands. For instance, *sodium amobarbital* tests have shown that more than 95 % of right-handed

people have their speech localized in the left hemisphere while about 70 % of the left-handed people exhibited the same pattern. The remaining 30 % or so show evidence of bilateral speech representation (Springer & Deutsch, 1998, p. 130). This relationship, however, is not symmetrical. This does not mean that the opposite holds true for left-handed people. Left hemisphere is dominant for more than 60 % of left-handed people.

Speech sounds are processed in the left hemisphere, while music and non-linguistic sounds, such as animal sounds and noise are processed in the right hemisphere. As far as human vocal language is concerned, the left hemisphere deals with semantic, syntactic and pragmatic information while the right hemisphere is more engaged in limited words. Besides, some of the language related processes take place in the right hemisphere. For instance, understanding the meaning of intonation (e.g. rising tone of a question), interpreting emotional intentions (e.g. anger, sarcasm), or understanding social meanings (e.g. whispering) are credited for being located outside of the traditional language areas (i.e. left hemisphere) (Steinberg et al., 2001).

Left hemisphere is known to process verbal, abstract, analytical information in a linear, sequential manner. It concentrates on differences and contrasts, sees small parts that represent the whole, and is concerned with reasoning abilities such as mathematics and language. Therefore, left brain has a local nature. On the other hand, right hemisphere processes non-verbal, concrete, and spatial information. Right brain gives attention to similarities in patterns, and looks at from a holistic perspective. For that reason, right brain is found to have a global bias. Artistic abilities such as music and graphics are among the functions of the right brain. However, it is necessary to bear in mind that the right and the left hemispheres are not completely independent and there are fibers (*corpus callosum*) that connect these halves, but a person is believed to rely on one halve of the brain more than the other, and his brain dominance is assumed to determine his preferences, style, personality characteristics, or even career choices.

Strategy

Strategy refers to a detailed plan for achieving success in situations such as war, politics, business, industry or sport," and, of course, learning (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary & Thesaurus, 2014).Thus, plan fullness or goal-orientation is an essential part of any definition of "strategy."

Language Learning Strategies

Within the field of foreign/second language teaching, the term language learning strategies has been defined by eminent researchers in the field. Tarone (1983) defined a learning strategy as "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language – to incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence" (p. 67). Later, Rubin (1987) stated that learning strategies "are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly" (p.22). Also, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) defined learning strategies as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p. 1). Furthermore, Oxford (1990) expanded the definition of learning strategies and defined them as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and

more transferable to new situations" (p. 8). Finally, Dansereau (1985) defined learning strategies as a "set of processes or steps (used by a learner) that can facilitate the acquisition, storage, and /or utilization of information" (p. 210).

Learning strategies have been differently classified, but one classification which is more comprehensive is based on the work of Oxford. Language learning strategies are the often conscious steps or behaviors used by language learners to enhance their own learning (Oxford, 1990, 1993). Six categories of strategies were identified by Oxford (1990) in her Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL):

Memory-Related Strategies
They help learners link what they are learning in the target language with already existing information; they are measured in this study by items 1-9 in the SILL.

Cognitive Strategies
They involve reasoning, analysis, summarizing, and reorganizing information; they are measured by items 10-23 in the SILL.

Compensation Strategies
They help learners make up for missing knowledge; they are measured by items 24-29 in the SILL.

Metacognitive Strategies
They help learners to think about their own thinking, about how they are learning the new material; they are measured by items 30-38 in the SILL.

Affective Strategies
They consist in boosting one's self-confidence and willingness to learn; they are measured by items 39-44 in the SILL.

Social Strategies
They consist in asking for clarifications and relying on the society to get more information about the material learned; they are measured by items 45-50 in the SILL.

Oxford (1990) summarized her view of LLS by listing twelve key features as they: a) contribute to the main goal, communicative competence, b) allow learners to become more self-directed, c) expand the role of teachers, d) are problem-oriented, e) are specific actions taken by the learner, f) involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive, g) support learning both directly and indirectly, h) are not always observable, i) are often conscious, j) can be taught, k) are flexible, l) are influenced by a variety of factors. (Oxford, 1990, p. 9)

Taxonomies of Language Learning Strategies
Many scholars in the field such as Rubin (1987), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1990) have classified language-learning strategies. However, most of these attempted to classify

LLS reflect more or less the same categorization without any drastic changes. In this study, only Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of LLS will be handled, the two others are not taken into consideration by the researcher.

Oxford's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Among all the existing learning strategy taxonomies, Oxford (1990) provided the most extensive classification of LLS developed so far. However, when analyzed, her classification is not something completely different from the previously discussed ones. On the contrary, Oxford's taxonomy overlaps with O'Malley's (1985) taxonomy to a great extent. For instance, the cognitive strategies category in O'Malley's classification seems to cover both the cognitive and memory strategies in Oxford's taxonomy. Moreover, while O'Malley puts socio-affective strategies in one category, Oxford deals with them as two separate categories. Yet, a significant difference in Oxford's classification is the addition of the compensation strategies, which have not been treated in any of the major classification systems earlier.

Generally speaking, Oxford's taxonomy consisted of two major LLS categories, the Direct and Indirect Strategies. Direct strategies are those behaviors that directly involve the use of the target language, which directly facilitates language learning. Oxford (1990) resembles the direct strategies to the performers in a stage play, whereas she takes after the indirect strategies to the director of the same play. While the performers work with the language itself, they also work with the director who is responsible for the organization, guidance, checking, corrections, and encouragement of the performers. These two groups work hand in hand with each other and they are inseparable.

Direct strategies are divided into three subcategories: *Memory, Cognitive and Compensation Strategies*.

Memory Strategies: Oxford and Crookall (1989) defined them as "techniques specifically tailored to help the learner store new information in memory and retrieve it later" (p. 404). They are particularly said to be useful in vocabulary learning which is "the most sizeable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language" (Oxford, 1990, p. 39). Memory strategies are usually used to link the verbal with the visual, which is useful for four reasons:

1. The mind's capacity for storage of visual information exceeds its capacity for verbal material.
2. The most efficiently packaged chunks of information are transferred to long-term memory through visual images.
3. Visual images might be the most effective mean to aid recall of verbal material.
4. Visual learning is preferred by a large proportion of learners (Oxford, 1990, p. 40).

Memory strategies also refer to those that focus on relating what we study to our background knowledge, using new words in a sentence to remember them, connecting the sound of a new word to a picture of it, making mental pictures, using rhymes, flashcards, acting out words, reviewing, and remembering locations of new words.

Cognitive Strategies: The second group of direct strategies refers to the cognitive strategies, which are defined as "skills that involve manipulation and transformation of the language in

some direct way, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note taking, functional practices in naturalistic settings, formal practice with structures and sounds, etc."(Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 404). Cognitive strategies are not only used for mentally processing the language to receive and send messages, they are also used for analyzing and reasoning. What is more, they are used for structuring input and output. However, if learners overuse the cognitive strategies, this might cause them to make mistakes when they generalize the rules they have learned without questioning them, (that is, when they overgeneralize them) or when they transfer expressions from one language to another, generally from their mother tongue to the target language (that is, when negative transfer occurs), (Oxford, 1990)**.** Cognitive strategies consist of those that focus on saying, trying, practicing, using words in different ways, starting conversations, watching TV, reading for pleasure, writing notes, skimming, looking up words, finding patterns, making summaries when studying English.

Compensation Strategies: Compensation strategies help learners to use the target language for either comprehension or production in spite of the limitations in knowledge. They aim to make up for a limited repertoire of grammar and, particularly vocabulary. When learners are confronted with unknown expressions, they make use of guessing strategies, which are also known as inference. When learners do not know all the words, they make use of a variety of clues either linguistic or non-linguistic so as to guess the meaning. Compensation strategies are not only manipulated in the comprehension of the target language, but they are used in producing it. They enable learners to produce spoken or written expressions in the target language without complete knowledge of it. Moreover, compensation strategies are those that focus on making guesses, using gestures, making up new words, not looking up all words while reading, and finding alternative words.

The second group of strategies, that is, ***indirect strategies***, consists of three subcategories as well: *Metacognitive*, *Affective*, and *Social Strategies*.

Metacognitive Strategies: Metacognitive strategies are defined as "behaviors used for centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating one's learning. The 'beyond the cognitive' strategies are used to provide 'executive control over the learning process' (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 404). Metacognitive strategies go beyond the cognitive devices and provide a way for learners to coordinate with their own learning process. They provide guidance for the learners who are usually "overwhelmed by too much 'newness' – unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing rules, different writing systems, seemingly inexplicable social customs, and (in enlightened language classes) non-traditional instructional approaches" (Oxford, 1990, p. 136). Having encountered so much novelty, many learners lose their focus, which can be regained through the conscious use of metacognitive strategies. Furthermore, metacognitive strategies are those that focus on finding ways to use English, learning from English mistakes, paying attention, trying hard to improve, organizing time in order to study better, looking for people to talk to in English, looking for opportunities to read, having clear goals for improving, and thinking about self progress.

Affective Strategies: Oxford and Crookall (1989) defined affective strategies as "techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self-talk which help learners gain better control over their

emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to the language learning (p. 404). Knowing how to control one's emotions and attitudes about learning may influence the language learning process positively since it will make the learning more effective and enjoyable. It is also known that negative feelings can hinder progress. The control over such factors is gained through the manipulation of affective strategies. In addition, affective strategies refer to those that focus on relaxing, encouraging oneself, rewarding oneself, noticing one's nervousness when studying the language, writing down feelings in a language learning diary, and sharing feelings

Social Strategies: Since language is a form of social behavior, it involves communication between and among people. They enable language learners to learn with others by making use of strategies such as asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others. Yet, their appropriate use is extremely important since they determine the nature of communication in a learning context. Social strategies, also, refer to those that focus on asking for repetition or clarification when not understanding, asking to be corrected, practicing, asking for help, asking questions in English, and trying to learn about the target language culture.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the last three decades, many researchers have studied language learning strategies and factors related to choice and use of these strategies such as learners' level of language proficiency, motivation, learning style, cultural backgrounds, gender, nationality and context of language learning (Chamot, 2005; Cohen, 1998; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Ellis, 1994; Griffiths, 2003; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; and Rahimi, et al., 2008). Moreover, some research studies indicate that a number of factors influence the L2 learner's choice of strategies such as motivation, gender, cultural background, attitudes and beliefs, age and L2 stage, learning style and also tolerance of ambiguity (Oxford, 1990, 1994).

Also, language learning literature presents a significant amount of research on variables affecting language learning. Especially the learner-related variables have been the subjects of study for many researchers (Brown, 2001; Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002). Johnson (2001) introduces such variables in three categories of individual differences: cognitive, affective, and personality. According to this division, intelligence, and aptitude (ability specific to language learning and different from general intelligence) represent the cognitive differences among learners. Affective differences are related to feelings, and are mainly associated with motivation and attitude. As the term suggests, personality variables are concerned with the personality of the learner, and whether a person is extrovert or introvert can be given as one of the distinguishing characteristics of a learner. However, variables that affect language learning may sometimes not be classified or termed in exactly the same words, and the factors assumed to influence learning may be expressed differently. For instance, in the same fashion, Cohen & Dörnyei (2002) draw attention to age and gender, language aptitude, motivation, learning styles, learner strategies as the foremost variables to be influential in language learning.

Literature on language learning has established relationships between the cited variables and achievement in learning a language. Attitude and motivation, as affective factors, have been

found to influence success in language learning (Ehrman et al., 2003). Similarly, learning styles of learners have been subjects of study and found to be effective on language learning achievement, especially in parallel with learning strategies (Nam & Oxford, 1998; Cohen, 2001; Ehrman et al., 2003).

Among others, learner strategies are also reported in the literature as a noteworthy part of the learner differences, and motivation, styles and strategies are often found to be influential on each other (Nunan, 1990; Cohen, 1995; Cohen et al., 1995; Nunan, 1997; Nam & Oxford, 1998; Wenden, 1998; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1996; Ehrman et al., 2003; Cohen, 2001; Van Blerkom & Van Blerkom, 2004). As a consequence, such investigations on learner variables naturally constitute an indication of focusing more on the learner, and have served understanding the nature of language learning better. Interest in individual differences of a learner led to investigating what methods or techniques are used by the individual in learning a language. Therefore, studies have attempted to differentiate among language learners in terms of strategy usage (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 149; Stern, 1992, p. 259). Such investigations put forward that studies concentrating on the 'good language learner' contrast with the previous traditional understanding that some people are successful in language learning only because they have an inherent ability for language learning.

Strategy-Based Instruction Research

SBI has been defined as a "learner-centered approach to teaching that focuses on explicit and implicit inclusion of language learning and language use strategies in the second language classroom" (Cohen and Weaver, 1998,p. 1 cited in Reyandya and Jacobs, 1998). Ever since researchers realized the importance of LLSs, there has been a growing call for the teaching of strategies in language learning classrooms across the world. As one leading researcher has said, "unlike most other characteristics of the learner, such as aptitude, attitude, motivation, personality, and general cognitive style, learning strategies are readily teachable" (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989, p. 291).To increase L2 proficiency, some researchers and teachers have provided instruction that helped students learn how to use more relevant and powerful learning strategies. In ESL/EFL studies, positive effects of strategy instruction emerged for proficiency in speaking (Chamot, Küpper, O'Malley, Manzanares& Russo, Stewner, 1985; Dadour & Robbins, 1996) and reading (Park Oh,1994), although results for listening were not significant (O'Malley et al., 1985). Chamot et al. (1996), Cohen et al. (1995), and Cohen and Weaver (1998) investigated the effects of strategy-based instruction among native-English-speaking learners of foreign languages and found some positive results. In other studies, strategy-based instruction led to increased EFL learning motivation (Nunan, 1997) and, among native-English-speaking learners of foreign languages, greater strategy use and self-efficacy (Chamot et al., 1996). The most effective strategy instruction happens when a given strategy might be useful, as well as how to use and evaluate it, and how to transfer it to other related tasks and situations.

A vast number of studies have been conducted with respect to gender-related differences in LLS use. In a study of adult language learners, Ehrman and Oxford (1989) found that when compared with males, females reported significantly greater use of language learning strategies in four categories: general study strategies, functional practice strategies, strategies for searching for and

communicating meaning, and self-management strategies. In another study, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that females, when contrasted with males, used language-learning strategies significantly more often in three of five strategy factors: formal rule-based practice strategies, general study strategies, and conversational input elicitation strategies. Ehrman and Nyikos (1989) stated that the results obtained from their study fully support the findings of other studies concerning the effect of sex on second language learning. They asserted that some other variables such as female superiority in verbal aptitude and social orientation, and possible sex differences in integrative motivation, in addition to psychological type play a role in these sex differences.

Kaylani (1996) also reported significant differences in strategy use between males and females. Among the strategy categories used in the SILL, female students used significantly more memory, cognitive, compensation, and affective strategies than male students. There was no significant difference in the use of metacognitive and social strategies between the two genders. The findings of Green and Oxford (1995) also indicated higher levels of strategy use by females than by males. Fourteen strategies, some of which are the use flashcards to remember words, reviewing English lessons often, connecting words and locations, skimming and reading carefully, seeking L1 words similar to L2 words, making summaries of information, etc., were used significantly more often by females in that study, although only one (watching TV programs and video movies in English) was used significantly more often by males.

From another point of view, studies which have been conducted on hemispheric dominance also reveal significant differences according to different variables. In a study conducted by Saleh (2001), it is reported that students majoring in education, nursing, communication, and law were right-brain dominant, while the students majoring in business/commerce, engineering, and science were left-brain dominant.

According to different contexts, the results are significantly different from those of a study conducted in a large university in the southern part of the United States (Saleh, 2001). Brain dominance results of Saleh's (2001) study were as follows: 28.9% of the 429 graduate and undergraduate students were left-brain, 24.94% right-brain, and 46.15% whole brain dominant. It is reminded in the same study that these results suggest a shift in brain dominance as compared to the earlier studies showed a left-brain dominance of a majority of the students in western schools.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Is there a significant relationship between gender and the use of cognitive strategies?
Is there a significant relationship between gender and being right-brained or left-brained?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study was conducted on 90 undergraduates (36 males, & 54 females) studying at Shiraz Azad University. They were homogenized by Nelson proficiency test (Fowler and Coe, 1976). After being homogenized by Nelson proficiency test, the number of participants was reduced to

60 (24 males, 36 females). They are chosen based on the convenience sampling which consists of 60 sophomores majoring in 'English Translation'.

Instrument

As the study aimed at investigating the relationship between gender and brain dominance and also gender and the use of language learning strategy, two instruments were administered to collect data. First, Brain Dominance Survey (Davis et al., 1994) was used to discover the hemispheric preferences of the participants. Next, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was administered to identify the language learning strategies used by the same participants.

Procedure of the study

The data obtained through the questionnaires were analyzed on the computer by using SPSS statistical program. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean, standard deviation and percentage were reported. The significance level has been determined as $p<.05$. Besides, to determine whether there are gender differences in the learning strategy preferences of the participants, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. The SILL was devised by Rebecca Oxford (1990) as an instrument for assessing the frequency of the use of language learning strategies by students at the Defense language Institute in California.

There are two versions of the SILL: one for native speakers of English (80 items) and another for learners of English as a second or foreign language (50 items). The SILL is the only language learning strategy instrument that has been extensively field-tested for reliability and validated in multiple ways (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). According to Ehrman and Oxford (1990), SILL has consistently scored above 0.90 using Cronbach alpha, which indicates high internal reliability. Also the content validity of the instrument is very high (As cited in Salehi, 2011). The version of the SILL used in this study is a 5-point Likert type of scale ranging from 1 [never or almost never true of me] to 5 [always or almost always true of me]. It consists of 50 items divided into six subscales: Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, and Social strategies. The reliability coefficient Cronbach alpha of (SILL) was found to be 0.91, based on estimations from the present study which showed that it was highly reliable.

The participants were required to write the answers on a separate answer sheet. After all, the answers were completed; the values assigned to each item in each section were added and then divided into the number of items in each section. The same procedures were repeated for each section and values ranging between 1and 5 were obtained. These values showed the profile of a learner, in other words, the strategy groups employed by the learner and their frequency. It took students around 25 minutes to respond to the questions. The SILL contains six parts. Each part is related to one category of strategies: statements one through nine refer to memory strategies, statements ten through twenty three refer to cognitive strategies, statements twenty four through twenty nine refer to compensation strategies, statements thirty through thirty eight refer to metacognitive strategies, statements thirty nine through forty four refer to affective strategies, and statements forty five to fifty refer to social strategies. Table 2. summarizes the number of items related to each strategy type.

Table 2: Strategy grouping according to the six strategy types

Strategy Types	Items	Total
Memory	1-9	9
Cognitive	10-23	14
Compensation	24-29	6
Metacognitive	30-38	9
Affective	39-44	6
Social	45-50	5

Relationship between Brain Dominance and Strategy Use

The Brain Dominance Survey (Davis et al., 1994) originally divided the right and left brain dominance into 11 degrees each depending on the answers given to the questions. Left brain dominance is reflected by minus sign (-), while plus sign (+) reflects the right brain dominance degrees. Considering the Brain Dominance Survey specifications, the researcher expects to find out brain dominance degrees to be illustrated in the form of (+1 to +11) right brain and (-1 to -11) left brain dominance degrees. Thus, it is hoped to find sufficient frequencies to be able to do some correlations between a specific brain dominance degree and gender variable.

RESULTS AND DISSCUSSION

The questionnaire, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was administrated with the purpose of identifying students' language learning strategies. In order to determine whether there was a statistically meaningful relationship between gender and the language learning strategy preferences of the students, the Pearson correlation was computed. A *t*–test was conducted to find whether there were any differences in the preference of learning strategies between males and females.

The Analysis of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning Strategies

The purpose of using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning is to identify the language learning strategy preferences of the students who participated in this study. The questionnaire consisted of 50 items, which identified the strategy preferences of the respondents. The strategies were grouped under the main six categories: cognitive, memory, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. The results of the descriptive statistics conducted to identify the general tendency of strategy preferences of the participants are given below:

Table 3. shows that the most preferred strategy, with a mean score of 41.30 is the one related to cognitive strategies. Memory strategies ranked the scored with an average of 28.50. The third place in the ranking order was taken by the affective strategies with a mean score of 25.15. Social strategies ranked the fourth with an average of 21.10. The mean scores of the compensation and the metacognitive strategies 20.25 and 19.85 respectively were ranked the fifth and the sixth.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics Concerning Language Learning Strategy Preferences

Language Learning Strategies	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive	31	52	41.30	5.55
Memory	22	34	28.50	3.38
Affective	14	38	25.15	6.70
Social	16	33	21.10	4.08
Compensation	12	29	20.25	4.36
Metacognitive	11	36	19.85	6.76

The means and standard deviations reported in Table 3. revealed that the three most frequently-used are the cognitive, memory and social strategies; and the three least frequently-used are the metacognitive compensation and affective strategies.

Table 4: Independent Sample t-test

Strategy	Gender	N	df	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	p
Memory	Male	24	58	27.33	3.44	0.70	-0.671	0.505
	female	36		27.91	3.20	0.53		
Cognitive	Male	24	58	42.16	5.53	1.13	0.729	0.469
	female	36		41.16	4.97	0.82		
Compensatory	Male	24	58	18.58	2.48	0.51	-0.084	0.933
	female	36		18.63	2.52	0.42		
Metacognitive	Male	24	58	27.54	3.27	0.68	-0.049	0.961
	female	36		27.58	3.22	0.54		
Affective	Male	24	58	18.04	2.62	0.54	0.460	0.647
	female	36		18.38	3.00	0.50		
Social	Male	24	58	17.87	3.40	0.69	-0.050	0.960
	female	36		17.91	2.99	0.50		

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted in order to find whether there was a significant difference in the language learning Strategy preferences of the male and female participants. According to Table 4., the results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the strategy preferences of the two genders.

Brain Dominance

The students' hemispheric preferences were investigated according to 'Brain Dominance Survey (Davis et al., 1994)' in order to make it vivid that males were more left-brain dominant or females and also, men were more right-brain dominant or females. The results indicated that the participants vary in terms of brain dominance types.

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Table 5: Gender/hemisphere Cross Tabulation to find the Hemisphere Preference in Males and Females

Gender	Hemisphere preference		Total
	Left	Right	
Males	6 (25%)	18(75%)	24 (100%)
Females	28 (77%)	8 (22%)	36 (100%)
Total	34 (56%)	26 (43%)	60 (100%)

According to Table 5., the number of Right-Brain Dominant students was 26, which constituted 43% of total. Thirty four students were found to be Left-Brain Dominant, that was, 56% of all. The findings in this table revealed that among sophomores, men were more right hemisphere-oriented and women were more left hemisphere-oriented.

CONCLUSION

According to table 1., it was revealed that the three most frequently-used strategies are cognitive, memory and social strategies; and the three least frequently-used are the metacognitive, compensation, and affective strategies. The results of descriptive statistics conducted to identify the general tendency of strategy preferences of the participants in this study indicated that cognitive strategies were favored the most by sophomores with the mean score of 41.30, while metacognitive strategies were disfavored by them since their average was 19.85. Furthermore, due to answer the first research question, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted in order to find whether there was a significant difference between gender and the use of language learning strategies. The results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the strategy preferences of the two genders. To answer the second research question, the researcher administered 'Brain Dominance Survey' in order to investigate whether there is a significant difference between gender and being right-brain or left-brain dominant. The findings indicate that men are more right-brain dominant and women are more left-brain dominant.

Limitation of the study

The first limitation of the current study refers to its restriction to one academic field of study. However, the results might be applicable to other students studying other fields of study at different colleges or universities. Another limitation is that individual characteristics of students, except gender, have not been taken into account while identifying and analyzing their learning strategies. Motives underlying this research into brain dominance and language learning strategies were the investigation of whether there is a relationship between gender and brain dominance. One can conduct a study in order to investigate the relationship between brain dominance and language learning strategies. So, it appears to be a significant step to be taken in language learning research. Once a relationship between brain dominance and strategy usage is identified, language learning strategies can be taught to learners in accordance with their brain dominance types and learning styles. Certainly, knowing more about the individual variables will provide the curriculum designers, teachers and learners with more opportunities in facilitating the learning process.

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THE LANGUAGE MAINTAINANCE OF JAVANESE ON THE YOUNG GENERATION IN *DESA BUKIT PAYUNG* LANGKAT, INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this research is to know the language maintanance of Javanese on the young generation in Desa Bukit Payung Langkat, Indonesia. This research aims to know why do the young generation of Javanese people maintain their language in the way they do. The sample of (15) young generation of Javanese people have been chosen. Two aasistants guide the researchers. The assistants have more knowledge about the Javanese. Descriptive qualitative is used in this research. The data collection were done through observations and interviews. The results of the research, the researchers found the data of the reasons for Javanese language maintenance, there are four data in expressing an identity or an ethnic, four data in achieving honor, two data in hoping, self esteem, and self pride, two data in helping their community to develop an progress, and for the essentially of language diversity.

KEYWORDS : language maintainance, the reasons for language maintenance, Javanese in Desa Bukit Payung, Indonesia.

INTRODUCTION

Acording to Pusat Bahasa 2008, there are 746 local languageses or vernacular languages in Indonesia. Javenese is one of vernacular language in Indonesia. The language will be loss, if the speakers do not maintain the language or practicing the language. Language maintenance is an effort in keeping the language alive by using the language continually in facing the competition among other languages in society (Fishman, 1991).

To make the language stays exist, it depands on the speakers. The most of influecing the language stays exist in the environment is the next generation. If the next generation does not want to maintain or practice the language, the language will die. The most of young generation of Javanese people in *Desa Bukit Payung Langkat*, Indonesia, they still maintain their language.

They always speak Javanese language wherever they are. The young generation of Javanese people *in Desa Bukit Payung Langkat*, Indonesia do not influence on their environment and they do not influence on the modern era. This is rarely to be found in other environments. There are 15 young generations in this research as the sample that have selected as the source of the data. The participants are chosen, it is based on language that they use in daily activity. They use Javanese language in their daily life.

Based on some experts' theories, the researchers can conclude that the reasons of maintaining the language as follow: 1). To express an identity or an ethnic, 2). To achieve honor, hope, self esteem, and self pride, 3). To help their community to develop an progress, 4). For the essentially of language diversity.

The researchers focus on explaining and analyzing the reasons of language maintanance of Javanese on the young generation in *Desa Bukit Payung Langkat*, Indonesia. Findings of the research are expected to be useful and relevan theoritically and practically. Theoritically, the findings of the research are expected to add more horizons in language planning issues. Practically, the findings are expected to maintain the awareness about the necessity in using Javanese among Javanese speaker in that community. And then the findings are relevant to language planning in efforts to maintain the used of vernacular languages.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Language Maintenance

Fishman (1991) said that language maintenance is an effort in keeping the language alive by using that language continually in facing the competition among other languages in society. It means that the existence of the language depends on the effort of the speakers in maintaining that language by using that language continually. If there is no effort to maintain the language, the language will be loss. Actually, the most of influencing the language stays exist or not, it depends on the next generation, they want or not to maintain or practice their vernacular language.

Furthermore, language maintenance refers to if the minority language is retained by its traditional speech community without the intervention of language activities (Hyltenstam & Stroud 1996:567). It means that awareness of the speakers use the vernacular language. There is no force aspect in using that vernacular language.

The Reasons for Language Maintenance

To make the language stays exist, it depands on the speakers. The most of influecing the language stays exist in the environment is the next generation. If the next generation does not want to maintain or practice the language, the language will die. The most of young generation of Javanese people in *Desa Bukit Payung Langkat*, Indonesia, they still maintain their language. They always speak Javanese language wherever they are. The young generation of Javanese people *in Desa Bukit Payung Langkat*, Indonesia do not influence on their environment and they do not influence on the modern era. This is rarely to be found in other environments.As Holmes (2001:158) stated that where language is considered as important symbol of a minority group's

identity, the language is likely to be maintained longer. Meanwhile, Thomas (2004:158) stated that how the language users talk along with other kinds of social orde such how the language users dress or how the language users behave, an important way of displaying who you are, in other words of indicating your social identity. And then, Fishman and Gareth (1994: 2005) said that if they lose their language, they will lose themselves in term of honor, hope, self esteem, and self pride. According to Baker (2008) the reason in maintaining a language is because a language expresses an identity. Further Cummins (1994) give his reason in maintaining language. Those are still link with mother tongue community, have strong motivation, and desire of learning, and doing something to help their community to develop and progress. Holmes (1992) stated that when the language seen as an important symbol of ethnic identity, it is generally maintained longer and if indigenous or minority language are seen as containing within them a wealth of ecological information as a part of echo-linguistic system, their revival are necessary deeds for linguistic diversity.

Based on the theories above, the researcher can conclude that the reasons of maintaining the language as follow: 1). To express an identity or an ethnic, 2). To achieve honor, hope, self esteem, and self pride, 3). To help their community to develop an progress, 4). For the essentially of language diversity.

Javanese in Langkat, Indonesia

According to Pusat Bahasa 2008 there are 746 local languages of vernacular in Indonesia. A number of vernacular languages in Indonesia. Most of Indonesian people used Javanese language. There are more less 100 million people in Indonesia used Javanese language especially in Java island. There are twenty three districts in Langkat that has 6.263,29 km^2 area. There are around 966.133 people (based on the BPS satistical report).

The Javanese that immigrate to other areas bring their language and culture with them. Therefore, they keep the name of the location thier own names like Kampung Jawa, Wonogiri, Banyumas, Tegal Rejo, etc. This location significally found by Javanese ethnic group in Lampung, Bengkulu, and North Sumatera. Nowadays Javanese people come from the genration of Javanese employes work in many tobacco platation during the Duth colonization, specaially in Deli regent. Therefor, the word *Jawa Deli* is popular for Javanese that word sent and worked to thwe plantation areas.

Desa Bukit Payung is loated in Langkat regency. The majority of Langkat people are malaynese. The young generation of Javanese people in Desa Bukit Payung used Javanese Language in their daily activity. Nowadays, difficult to find the young generation wants to use or practice their vernaculaar language. In Desa Bukit Payung, the young generation still maintain the language. They always speak Javanese to everyone who Javanese too. So that the vernacular language is not dead.

IJLLALW

RESEARCH QUESTION

Why do the young generation of Javanese maintain their language in the way they do in *Desa Bukit Payung Langkat*, Indonesia?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The method of the research in this study used descriptive qualitative. Bogdan and Biklan (1992:30) said, 'qualitative research is descrivtive. The data collectioin are in the form of words are pictures rather than numbers'. Qualitative method describes the phenomena that occur naturally. It doesn't manipulate the certain situation. The phenomena that has been disscused in this research was the reason of language maintanance that has been implemented by young generation of Javanese people in Desa Bukit Payung Langkat, Indonesia. Observation and interviews are used in this reseacrh has the instrument of Data Collection. The observation was used to investigate or to get the phenomena that happen in Desa Bukit Payung Langkat, Indonesia. An interview to look for the information about the language and this research also use documentary. To give visual description of the environment when and where the study was conducted

In this study the researcher used observation and interview as the instrument of collecting data. The observation was used to know or to find the phenomena that occur in Kampung Bali North Sumatera. An interview to search for in that information about that language and this study also used documentary to give visual explanation of the environment when and where the study was conducted.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This research was qualitative data. The data were taken from analyzing interview from the participant after analyzing the data. The researchers found that there are four reasons of language maintanance of Javanese on the young generation in Desa Bukit Payung Langkat, Indonesia. They are 1). To express an identity or an ethnic, 2). To achieve honor, hope, self esteem, and self pride, 3). To help their community to develop an progress, 4). For the essentially of language diversity.

To express an identity or an ethnic

As Holmes (2001:158) stated that where language is considered as important symbol of a minority group's identity, the language is likely to be maintained longer. The researchers found the data of the reason on expressing an identity or an ethnic data.

Data 1

R : *kenapa anda menggunakan bahasa tersebut?* (why do you use that language?)

U : *Karena sudah adat dan bahasa jawa menunjukkan bahwasannya saya orang jawa, kan lucu lok orang jawa tidak bisa ngomong jawa.* (it's our ethnic and javanese language shows me that I am a Javanese).

From the dialogue above we know that the young generation of Javanese people still maintain their language by practicing the language in daily activity and she has good attitude towards the vernacular language. Then the statement of " *kan lucu lok orang jawa tidak bisa ngomong jawa"* I think it's really very silly if Javanese people can't speak Javanese. The speaker express her careness about that language. She maintans the languiage as strong as she can.

Data 2

R : *kenapa anda menggunakan bahasa tersebut?* (why do you use that language?).

L *: Karena itu adat saya. Kalau saya tidak menggunakan bahasa jawa maka hilang lah identitas saya sebagai orang jawa.* (it's my etnich, if I dont speak Javanese in daily life, that language shows my identity as a Javanese.)

from the dialogue above the speaker awared about that language will lose in the future. The speaker thinks one of showing her identity is Javanese language. If she speaks Javanese language automitically everyone will know she is Javanese people. It's the most important thing to maintain that language. The speaker also tries to look for the way how to make that language still exist.

Data 3

R : *kenapa anda menggunakan bahasa tersebut?*(why do you use that language?)

L : *karena itu memang suku saya. Sebagaian besar orang jawa disini selalu menggunakan bahasa jawa dimanapun ketika merreka bertemu dengan orang ja*wa (because it's my ethnic.the most people around here. They always speak Javanese when they meet someone who is Javanese.)

from the dialogue above the reason of the speaker used that language because the environment that always uses Javanese language so that the speaker is influenced to use the language. From the statement of "*karena itu memang suku saya.*. (because it's my ethnic.), the speaker always admit that she is Javanese people and proud become Javanese people because it is her identity.

Data 4

R : *kenapa anda menggunakan bahasa tersebut?* (why do you use that language?)

F *: Karena saya orang jawa. Tapi bukan berarti suku jawa aja loh yang berbahasa jawa, banyak kok suku laen berbahsa jawa disini. Mereka aja bahasa jawa sama orang jawa, masak kami tidak berbahasa jawa, kan bikin malu tu namanya.* (because I'm Javanese. It doesn't mean Javanese people who can speak Javanese in this village. There are so many people, they are not Javanese but they can speak Javanese too. The other people who are not Javanese they always speak Javanese to Javanese people that's why we are as a Javanese have to speak it.)

from the speakers' statement above we know that the speaker extremely maintain the language. Her reason is the other ethnics who are not Javanese people speak Javanese language with Javanese people. As Javanese people we have to speak Javanese language because the other ethnics curious about Javanese language. So as Javanese people we must know more about that

language not only informal Javanese language but we miust know about kind of Javanese language like *ngoko, madya and kromo*.

To Achieve Honor, Hope, Self Esteem, and Self Pride,
Fishman and Gareth (1994: 2005) said that if they lose their language, they will lose themselves in term of honor, hope, self esteem, and self pride. The researchers found the data of the reason on achieving, honor, hope, self esteem, and self pride.
Data 1

R : *Apakah bahasa jawa masih perlu dipertahankan?* (Does Javanenese language still need to be maintained?)
B : *Perlu, karena menghargai orang jawa terdahulu. Kita sebagai generasi muda harus meneruskan budaya yang diwariskan oleh leluhur kita. Supaya bahasa dan budayanya tidak luntur.* (yes, it does. Because we have to appreciate the ancestor. As young generation we have to keep our culture which is inherited by our ancestor. So that the language and culture are not loss).

From the speaker's statement above one of the reason in maintain the language is to honor the ancestor who maintain the language previoiusly. We can see the statement of *'Perlu, karena menghargai orang jawa terdahulu'* (Because we have to appreciate the ancestor). The expression shows that the speaker respect or honor with their ancestor. And the young generation of Javanese people aware toward their language.

Data 2

R : *Apakah bahasa jawa masih perlu dipertahankan?* (Does Javanenese language still need to be maintained?)
S : *perlu sekali, Supaya persatuan orang jawa tetap erat. Dan bisa diwariskan ke generasi selanjutnya. Supaya generasi tidak buta dengan bahasa Jawa dan dipakai terus-menerus.* (yes, of course. So that the unity of Javanese stays to be kept.)and it can be inherited to the next generation, so that the young generation can speak Javanese to their children in the future)

From the speaker's statement above she expects the Javanese community still exist in their environment. She expects that the young generation still use the language so that the language doesn't die. The speaker hopes the young generation able to perserve their vernacular language. It can be their responsible to maintain the language. Because the language still exist, it bases on the next generation.

Data 3

R : *kenapa anda menggunakan bahasa jawa?* (why do you use Javanese language?)
L : *Saya merasa bangga karena bahasa jawa harus dikembangkan. Agar ketika orang Jawa ngomong ke saya, saya bisa ngerti. Kan malu sebagai orang jawa gak ngerti*

bahasanya. (I feel proud because Javanese language should be developed. So that when the people of Javanese speak Javanese I can understand. I think it's shame if as a Javanese can't speak Javanese language).

From the speaker above he said that he will be shy if he cannot speak Javanese language. Javanese language is his self esteem. Self esteem is his reason to maintain the language. He has awareness when he meets with Javanese people. If he can't speak Javanese it can be called as not care about his vernacular language. So the speaker avoids it.

Data 4

R : *Apakah anda merasa bangga menggunakan bahasa tersebut?* (Do you feel proud using the language?)
V : *Bangga, karena itu suku saya. Kalau gak bangga dengan suku sendiri susah lah udah, maulah punah suku itu*. (yes, i'm proud because it's my ethnic. If I'm not proud with our own ethnic, it's difficult to say, it will be loss)

From the data 4 above, the researcher found that It shows that the speaker is proud of his venacular language. It's one of reason the speaker still uses the language . there is no the force aspect it comes from inside or awareness from the speaker using the language. From his statement "*Kalau gak bangga dengan suku sendiri susah lah udah,*(If I'm not proud with our own ethnic, it's difficult to say,). It means that the speaker recommend to others to use Javanese language, if he/she is really Javanese)

To Help their Community to Develop and Progress

Cummins (1994) give his reason in maintaining language. Those are still link with mother tongue community, have strong motivation, and desire of learning, and doing something to help their community to develop and progress. From the theory, the researchers found the data as follow

Data 1

R : *kenapa anda menggunakan bahasa jawa?* (why do you use Javanese language?)
B : *Ya karena itu bahasa tradisional Indonesia. Dan kalau bisa dikembangkan pun saat sekarang ini kebanyakan orang jawa menggunakan bahasa jawa pasaran. Seharusnya dikembangkan bisa bahasa jawa ngoko, madya dan kromo. Bukan malah dihilangkan.*(because it's my traditional. I hope the language can be developed. A number of Javanese people use informal javanese language. The javanese language should be developed to ngoko, madya and kromo rather than losing it.)

From the speaker's statement above he wants that the language should be extend. The speaker expect not only maintain, but should be progressed and governed. Because many young genarations can't speak Javanese language nowadays. The speaker also hopes to govern the language together and care more about the vernacular language. We can see from this statement

Data 2

R : *kenapa anda menggunakan bahasa jawa?* (why do you use Javanese language?)

W : *karena itu kan bahasa asli dari negara kita, ya harus digunakan lah bahasa itu, kalau ngak kita siapa lagi yang mau mempraktekkan bahasa itu. Karena kalau bahasa indonesia kan, nanti tau sendirinya.* (because it is original language from our country, we must use that language. If not us, who wants to practice the language. Because Bahsa Indonesia , we can know automatically)

From the data above he said we should speak Javanese language regularly. Bahasa Indonesia doesn't need to be learnt because we will know it automatically. Although nowadays modern era, don't forget your culture because it shows your identity. the speaker thinks for next generation and the speaker tell the young generation stay using Javanese language.

For the essentially of language diversity.

Holmes (1992) stated that when the language seen as an important symbol of ethnic identity, it is generally maintained longer and if indigenous or minority language are seen as containing within them a wealth of ecological information as a part of echo-linguistic system, their revival are necessary deeds for linguistic diversity. The researchers found the data as follow:

Data 1

R : *kenapa anda menggunakan bahasa jawa?* (why do you use Javanese language?)

S : karena kan disini banyak suku-suku loh dan jawa disini sedikit pulak. Kalau gak bahasa jawa gak tau lah orang lok kakak ni orang jawa. (because there are some ethnich in this district and the minority of the ethnic is Javanese. If I don't speak Javanese they don't know that I am a Javanese.)

The reasons of the speaker uses Javanese language because they are minority ethnic in their area. So the speaker uses Javanese language to differenciate their ethnic with other ethnic. The speaker thinks, this is a competition to maintain the languages in their environment. Because of javanese is minority, the spaker must be strong to maintain their language. Although when they meet other ethnics using Bahasa Indonesia to respect each other but they try to speak other ethnics to make the situation in harmony.

Data 2

R : *kenapa menggunakan bahasa jawa dek?* (why do you use Javanese language?)

A : *ya kan bang aku ini suku jawa. Udah gitu banyak juga loh bang orang jawa ini gak ngerti bahasa jawa dia bangga pulak. Lok menurut ku bahasa jawa ne bisa juga membuat kita semakin dikenali bahwasannya kita orang jawa. Kan banyak tu bang suku-suku disini. Jawa pun kan bukannya mayoritas.itu lah kenapa kami menggunakan bahasa jawa supaya nampak keanekaragaman. Pikir orang suku cuman satu pulak disini bang lok pakai bahasa Indonesia semua* (I am a Javanese. Some Javanese people, they are proud not speaking Javanese. In my opinion, through their language we can recognize them. They are javanese or not. After that so many ethnics in this village. Javanese is not majority in this village. That's why we are

javanese people have to speak javanese to show our diversity. It means people can determine that there are some ethnics around here.)

The speaker worries about the other languages influence their vernacular language. They always attemp to keep practicing the Javanese language. From the situation of the speaker's statement, it's a good commpetition in maintaining the languages. Javanese people always look for the way to make their language stay exist.

CONCLUSION

after analyzing the data the resarchers found there are four reasons of language maintanance in Desa Bukit Payung Langkat, Indonesia, namely To express an identity or an ethnic, to achieve honor, hope, self esteem, and self pride, to help their community to develop an progress, and for the essentially of language diversity. After conducting the research the speakers have strong reasons in maintaining the vernacular languages. These reasons made the young generation realize how important the Javanese language is. Although sometimes they speak Bahasa Indonesia with other ethnic, but they use regularly Javanese language in the same ethnic. The researchers found there are four data in expressing an identity or an ethnic, four data in achieving honor, two data in hoping, self esteem, and self pride, two data in helping their community to develop an progress, and for the essentially of language diversity. From the result above we can conclude that the young generation of the Javanese people still maintain their language.

Limitation of the study

this research is focused on language maintanance of Javanese people on the young generation in Desa Bukit Payung Langkat, Indonesia. There are 15 javanese speakers as the participants of this research. This study focus on the language maintanance and its reason.

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MIRACLE OF ADS: A CDA OF HEDGES AND BOOSTERS IN LANGUAGE INSTITUTES ADVERTISEMENTS IN IRAN

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ABSTRACT
A variety of hedges and boosters as two subcategories of metadiscourse markers among rhetorical shibboleths are used in Iranian language institutes . However, studies pertaining to the impact of hedges and boosters in language institutes advertisements are noticeably meager. Accordingly, this study investigated the hedging and boosting strategies utilized by the Iranian language institutes and those in other EFL/ESL countries. In fact, this analysis was grounded in Fairclough's assumptions in critical discourse analysis, claiming that ideologies reside in texts or talks which are open to diverse interpretation that "it is not possible to 'read off' ideologies from texts and talks that "texts and talks are open to diverse interpretations" (Fairclough,1995). In this respect, a bottom–up method of analysis was adopted to analyze the advertisements in terms of hedges and boosters. The study indicated that the frequencies were significantly different, and the functions of these devices cross-linguistically differed in such a way that diverse tendencies towards using hedges and boosters were demonstrated.

KEYTERMS: Critical Discourse Analysis, Iranian Language Institutes, Hedges and Boosters, Advertisements

INTRODUCTION
Language institutes have been involved in specific subcategories of metadiscourse markers called hedges and boosters in their advertisements which are considered as communicative strategies for increasing or reducing the force of statements. In fact, their importance in academic discourse lies in their contribution to an appropriate rhetorical and \interactive tenor, conveying both epistemic and affective meanings. That is, they not only carry the writer's degree of confidence in the truth of a proposition, but also an attitude to the audience. Boosters like *clearly, obviously* and *of course*, permit writers to express conviction and assert a proposition with confidence, representing a strong claim about a state of affairs. Furthermore, they also mark involvement and solidarity with an audience, stressing shared information, group membership, and direct engagement with readers (Hyland, 1998). Hedges, like *possible, might* and *perhaps*, on the other hand, represent a weakening of a claim through an explicit qualification of the writer's commitment. This may be to show doubt and indicate that information is presented as opinion rather than accredited fact, or it may be to convey deference, humility, and respect for colleagues views (Myers, 1989; Hyland, 1998). These are often found in clusters, in spite of the fact that they act to reinforce the uncertainty of the writer's propositions, or at least the degree of certainty

that it may be prudent to attribute to them. Hence, hedges and boosters draw attention to the fact that statements don't just communicate ideas, but also the writer's attitude to them and to readers (Halliday, 1978) .More specifically, hedges are one of the most studied features of the audience-oriented aspect of claim design. Myers (1989) suggested that academic writers employ hedges to minimize the potential threat new claims make on other researchers by soliciting acceptance and challenging their own work. In general, hedges and boosters serve three main functions: 1) threat minimizing strategy to signal distance and to avoid absolute statements; 2) strategies to accurately reflect the certainty of knowledge; and 3) politeness strategies between writers and editors (Salager-Meyer, 1997; Nivales, 2010; Hinkel, 2009). This paper aims to analyzes discourse of hedges and boosters in Iranian language institutes advertisements. Accordingly, it seems essential to consider ideological traits typical for the Iranian language institutes in their advertisements.

THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

Discourse

Blommaert (2005) stated that discourse is referred to as the actual instances of communicative action in the medium of language, and according to Van Dijk (1987), it has to do with the data that are liable for empiric analysis with focus on action and process. Fairclough (1989) defined discourse as the whole process of social interaction of which a text is just a part. Likewise, Titscher et al (2000) considered discourse as the integration of a whole palette of meanings ranging from linguistics, through sociology, philosophy and other disciplines. By the same token, calling what is regarded as "discourse analysis" rather than "language analysis" underscores the fact that language is not centrally considered as an abstract system (Johnstone, 2008).

Critical Discourse Analysis

Based on Van Dijk (1996), Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality. In fact, the objective of Critical Discourse Analysis is to realize language use as social practice and the users of language do not function in isolation, but in a set of cultural, social and psychological frameworks. Therefore, CDA accepts this social context and studies the connections between textual structures and takes this social context into account and explores the links between textual structures and their function in interaction within the society. Such an analysis is a complex, multi-level one, given the obvious lack of direct, one to one correspondence between text structures and social and literary functions (Van Dijk, 1996). It should be stated that CDA is not a direction, school, or specialization beside many other "approaches" in discourse studies. Rather, it aims to offer a different "mode" or "perspective" of theorizing, analysis, and application throughout the whole field. A more or less critical perspective in such diverse areas can be found as pragmatics, conversation analysis, narrative analysis, rhetoric, stylistics, sociolinguistics, ethnography, or media analysis, among others (Van Dijk, 1996). According to Fairclough and Wodak (1997), CDA addresses social problems and Power relations are discursive. Likewise, discourse constitutes society and culture,

and does ideological work. It is a form of social action. Similarly, the link between text and society is mediated, and discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory. Based on Batstone (1995), CDA manifests how texts are constructed so that particular (and potentially indoctrinating) perspectives can be expressed delicately and covertly; because they are covert, they are elusive of direct challenge, facilitating what Kress calls the retreat into mystification and impersonality. In accordance with Fairclough (1989), there are three stages of CDA, 1) Description is the stage which is concerned with the formal properties of the text.; 2) Interpretation is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction – with seeing the text as a product of a process of production, and as a resource in the process of interpretation; 3) Explanation is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social context –with the social determination of the processes of production and interpretation, and their social effects.

Conceptual Basis

This study profits by the conceptual basis which is adopted from Fairclough's (1989) viewpoints on discourse and power and discourse and hegemony. In this respect, attempt was made to link social practice and linguistic practice, as well as micro and macro analysis of discourse (Fairclough, 1989). Further, the analytical part of this paper which has to do with Fairclough's conceptual work analyzes the possible interrelatedness of textual properties and critical relations. In addition, deconstruction of covert ideology which is hidden in the text, stemming from the theoretical conceptualization of Batstone (1995), stipulating that CDA reflects how texts are constructed so that particular (and potentially indoctrinating) perspectives can be expressed delicately and covertly; because they are covert, they are elusive of direct challenge, facilitating the retreat into mystification and impersonality. The main analytical tool for this study represents the "three dimensional method of discourse analysis", introduced by Fairclough (1989), namely the "language text, spoken or written, discourse practice (text production and text interpretation), and the socio cultural practice". This viewpoint is indicated through an analytical method, including the "linguistic description of the language text, interpretation of the relationship between the discursive processes and the text, and explanation of the relationship between the discursive processes and the social processes" (Fairclough, 1989, p.97).

METADISCOURSE

According to Hyland (2000), metadiscourse as communication is more than just the exchange of information, goods or services, but also involves the personalities, attitudes and assumptions of those who are communicating. Language is always a consequence of interaction, of the differences between people which are expressed verbally, and metadiscourse options are the ways we articulate and construct these interactions. This is a dynamic view of language as metadiscourse which stresses the fact that, as we speak or write, we negotiate with others, make decisions about the kind of effects we are having on our listeners or readers. Metadiscourse thus offers a framework for understanding communication as social engagement. It illuminates some aspects of how we project ourselves into our discourses by signaling our attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text. With the judicious addition of metadiscourse, a writer is able not only to transform what might otherwise be a dry or difficult text into coherent, reader-friendly prose, but also to relate it to a given context and convey his or her personality, credibility,

audience-sensitivity and relationship to the message. We have to remember that writing and speaking, acts of meaning making, are never neutral but always *engaged* in that they realize the interests, the positions, the perspectives and the values of those who enact them. Those that *articulate* meaning must therefore consider its social impact, the effect it has on those who *interpret* the meaning, the readers or hearers who at that moment constitute an *audience* for the communication. Metadiscourse is one of the main means by which this is accomplished, involving writers/speakers and their audiences in mutual acts of comprehension and involvement.

Hedges and boosters

These are communicative strategies for recognizing contingency and indicating the room the writer is willing to offer for negotiation. In academic discourse, these strategies contribute to a rhetorical and interactive tenor by carrying the writer's degree of confidence in the truth of a proposition and an attitude to the audience. Writers weigh up their commitment by deciding how certain their interpretations of data are and the effect this commitment might have on readers' responses. On the one hand, boosters like surely, obviously and highly seek to suppress alternatives, presenting the proposition with conviction while marking involvement, solidarity and engagement with readers (Hyland, 1998). On the other hand, hedges such as suggest, may, possibly, and usually cast a proposition as contingent by highlighting its subjectivity. This expresses the writer's willingness to negotiate a claim thereby reducing commitment and conveying respect for alternative views (Myers, 1989; Hyland, 1998).

Self-mention

Metadiscourse choices which realize explicit writer presence are closely associated with authorial identity and authority (Ivanic, 1998). In research writing the strategic use of self mention allows writers to claim such authority by expressing their convictions, emphasizing their contribution to the field, and seeking recognition for their work (Kuo, 1999). Self mention like *we did this* and *we think that* thus sends a clear indication to the reader of the perspective from which their statements should be interpreted, distinguishing their own work from that of others (Hyland, 2000).

Attitude Markers

Such devices indicate the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitudes, encoding an explicit positive or negative value that is gradable (e.g. important/very important) to propositions. Based on Hood (2004), in academic writing attitude is frequently expressed through the grading of ideational content, particularly the force by which writers convey their judgments and attitudes towards results, entities or behaviors. While attitude is expressed throughout a text by the use of subordination, comparatives, progressive particles, punctuation, text location and so on, it is most explicitly signaled by attitude verbs (e.g. agree, prefer), sentence adverbs (unfortunately, *hopefully)* and adjectives *(appropriate, logical, remarkable).*

Engagement Markers

These devices refer to the various ways writers bring readers into the discourse to relate to them and anticipate their possible objections. Based on their experiences with texts in the discourse community, writers make predictions about how readers are likely to react to their arguments.

They know what they are likely to find persuasive, where they will need help in interpreting the argument, what objections they are likely to raise and so on. This process of audience evaluation therefore assists writers in constructing an effective line of reasoning and, like other metadiscourse options, also points to the ways language is related to specific cultural and institutional contexts (Hyland, 2001).

OUTLINE OF THE COMMON METADISCOURSE MARKERS IN THE IRANIAN LANGUAGE INSTITUTES ADVERTISEMENTS

- Utilizing limited number of hedges in their direct advertisements but a large number of hedges (spoken and written) after the registration and during the process of teaching and learning
- Overstating boosters in their direct advertisement in order to attract the public and draw their attention
- Using a wide range of self-mention in their advertisements and inside the institutes and classrooms
- Utilizing a wide range of attitude markers in their direct advertisements
- Benefitting from engagement markers to involve the audience and affect them directly

ANALYSIS

Ideological Analysis

The analysis and interpretation of the ideological aspect of Iranian EFL institutes advertisements indicate how some customers rely on them, how some other people feel dubious about their claims, and how the covert ideology of this atmosphere is deciphered. With regard to the current Iranian language institute advertisements, limited number of hedges in their direct advertisements but a large number of hedges (spoken and written) while making a contract and during the process of teaching and learning can be observed. This maybe rooted in the pertinent policy makers' tendency to profit by political behavior and to draw the addressees' attention. Besides, using boosters excessively and attitude markers may refer to the policy makers' plan to attract people regardless of having neither sincerity nor honesty. In other words, they neglect the negative consequences which arise after the registration and participation. Further, self-mention metadiscourse seems to indicate the policy makers' power and dominance over their audience. That is, they seem to be in favor of self- raising and others lowering. In addition, utilizing engagement markers implies their tendency to have solidarity with their addressees, despite their interest in having power and dominance.

Analysis of Utilizing Limited Number of Hedges in Their Direct Advertisements but A Large Number of Hedges (spoken and written) after the Registration and During the Process of Teaching and Learning

It is to be stated that majority of the Iranian language institutes use limited number of hedges in their direct advertisements but a large number of hedges (spoken and written) while making a contract and during the process of teaching and learning. For example, they hardly ever add some

words which indicate uncertainty in their advertisements, but as the learners do not achieve the expected results, a large number of hedges revealing uncertainty are utilized.

Analysis of Overstating Boosters in Their Direct Advertisement in Order to Attract the Public and Draw Their Attention

Using some boosters like *100%, highly, completely, surely, merely, only, exclusively, absolutely* in the Iranian language institute advertisements seem to overstate their real purposes and commitments.

Analysis of A Wide Range of Self-mention in Their Advertisements and Inside the Institutes and Classrooms

Some expressions including *We know, We will show you, We can prove it* are the indicators of self-mention applied in the Iranian institutes advertisements

Analysis of A Wide Range of Attitude Markers in Their Direct Advertisements

Utilizing some terms like *guaranteed, the best, international, global, certified, unique, learning while sleeping, learning in a few sessions, authentic, native-like atmosphere, making a contract to ascertain you, standard, certificates issued by Cambridge / Oxford university, representative, under the license of*, reflects how the attitude markers can draw the addressees' attention.

Analysis of Engagement Markers to Involve the Audience and Affect Them Directly

Using some pronouns and possessive adjectives such as *you, your, yours* and *yourself* frequently in the Iranian language institutes advertisements reflect the policy makers' emphasis on benefitting from engagement markers to achieve solidarity.

CONCLUSION

This paper analyzes the hedges and boosters in Iranian Language Institutes advertisements, and an attempt has been made to describe the pertinent metadiscourse markers through discourse analysis. With regard to Fairclough's notions of ideology, "ideology invests language in various ways at various levels" and that ideology is both "property of structures and of events". Moreover, the Fairclough's (1995) concept that "meanings are produced through interpretations" was taken into account. In this respect, an attempt has been made to identify the framework of Iranian language institutes policy makers' ideological attitude through the following which are the conclusions:

The first part of our analysis resulted in the key ideological components of the Iranian language institutes advertisements which can be summarized into pragmatism, inclusiveness, acceptance of diversity and unity in utilizing metadiscourse markers.

Based on the results of the keyword analysis, the most prominent words employed by majority of the Iranian language institutes are *Tazmini* (Guaranteed), *Bartarin* (the best), *Yadgiri dar jalasaate mahdood* (learning in a few sessions), *Mohite zabane Madari* (Native/ Native-like atmosphere), *yadgiri dar khaab* (learning while sleeping), *eraeye madrak az daneshgaahe*

Cambridge/ Oxford (providing the learners with the certificates from Cambridge / Oxford university) and the overall dominance of the personal pronoun *we*, which is considered as self-mention as one of the influential metadiscourse markers that manifest their sense of self- raising and other lowering that is considered as social impoliteness. However, sometimes the personal pronoun *you* is used to show solidarity with the addressees.

The analysis of the metadiscourse markers, specifically hedges and boosters, in the Iranian language institutes advertisement have indicated that a considerable number of Iranian language institutes consciously or unconsciously reflect hypocritical, dishonest or unprofessional behavior.

The overall underlying theme of the Iranian language institutes is the tendency to the economic aspects rather than the educational and pedagogical concerns which should be considered as the most significant priorities for establishing a language institute.

The discursive event and discursive structure interrelatedness ideas proposed by Fairclough (1995) have been by the results of this analysis. The discussed hedges and boosters in the Iranian language institutes advertisements– the discursive event shaped the talk – the discursive oral form, plus the discourse became subject of interpretation by the audience, which shaped the essential discourse practice of Iranian language institutes advertisements.

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THE CONVERSATIONAL STYLES USED BY MALE AND FEMALE SELLERS IN BUSINESS TRANSACTIONS AT TRADITIONAL MARKET "*PASAR SENTOSA BARU*" MEDAN

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ABSTRACT
This research deals with the conversational styles by male and female sellers in business transactions at traditional market "Pasar Sentosa Baru" Medan. It was conducted using qualitative research design. The subjects of 8 persons namely 4 male sellers and 4 female sellers were taken which they produced 20 conversations for each genders. The ages ranged from 30 to 60 years old. They come from various sellers, namely fish, chicken, vegetables, fruits, and spice. The instruments of collecting data were observation, recording, field notes, and interviewing adopted by Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014). The researcher observed the subject closely and interviewed them. Then the responses were classified a verified with reference to the criteria of conversational styles by male and female as determined by Swann (2000), namely amount of talk, interruption, conversational support, tentativeness, and compliment. The findings show that there were five types of conversational styles used by male and female sellers. In conversational styles used by male sellers; amount of talk (30%), interruption (26.7%), conversational support (21.7%), compliment (16.6%), and tentativeness (5%). In conversational styles used by female sellers; interruption (29%), amount of talk (23%), conversational support (24%), tentativeness (15%), and compliment (9%). In conversational styles in male sellers business transaction, the more dominant responses refer to talk of amount because they talk much in interaction in public context, they tendency it is public context it is conducted that they feel. It is needed to establish or maintain their status in that group. In conversational styles in female sellers business transaction, the more dominant responses refer to interruption because the female sellers are taken as a violation and a sign of conversational dominance. In this case the female sellers have been found interrupt the buyers is likely it is caused that they suppose to presume that the female sellers have a right to take the floor from the buyers.

KEYWORDS: *Conversational Styles, Gender, Traditional Market.*

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INTRODUCTION

Women and men's talk in same-sex groups is an important and still developing area of language and gender. It has often been assumed in past research that women and men each form one homogeneous group, sharing one common social agenda and that their speech behavior can be explained by means of two simple generalizations: men's competitive speech style and women's cooperative speech style. Their different speech styles are achieved by characteristically drawing on different conversational strategies such as minimal responses, hedges, turn-taking patterns, interruptions and so on in conversational interactions.

According to Bergvall et al., Thakerar's (1982) speech accommodation theory describes "how speakers may vary their discourse behavior in accordance with their desire to signal allegiance to or divergence from other members of the group". (Bergvall et al., 1996: 80) Through a large sample of conversations collection and then a systematic study of specific linguistic features, Bergvall et al. also reveals that women and men in their study display remarkably similar language behavior (Bergvall et al., 1996:60).

For generations, Indonesians have bought their food at traditional markets, *pasar*. The term *pasar* can refer to a gathering of *tukang sayur* (vendors who sell off carts which go through residential areas), to a rough, temporary structure where sellers gather in the morning, to the large, multistory buildings run by *PD Pasar* as market authority. The items sold in *pasar* are basically the same - fruit, vegetables, meat and fish, spices, dry goods and household items. Selection may vary slightly to better serve the needs of the ethnic groups which live in the area. In *pasar*, prices are not marked on items at traditional markets. Therefore, the fine art of bargaining is taken to new levels as housewives and household help try to get the cheapest prices possible.

There are so many *pasar* in Medan, that condition always happens which are men used more tag questions than women did, and some others found that there were no gender differences. The buyer of women's language consisting of certain linguistic features that connote tentativeness, deference and lack of authority. The reason, according to Cameron (1998) is that women are socialized into using this style of speech as part of their subordinate social position. On the other hand, the buyer of men's dominance in conversation parallel their dominance, power and authority in society. Men's linguistic patterns are regarded as ways in which they display power which is based in the larger social order but reinforced and expressed in face to face interaction with women (Henley & Kramarae, 1991).

Buyers and sellers in business transactions, each of which has a good hope. Expectations of the sellers are able to sell the merchandise easily and get great benefits, and expectations of buyers is able to buy goods at a very cheap price. In reality, expectations of buyers is very contrary to the expectations of the sellers. So often a small commotion during the business transactions. In every transaction, bargaining must always be done.

Nevertheless, researcher conducts gender, whereas gender is describing male and female do, it is determined how do male and female express their language use in due to interaction. Theoretically, male and female have different way in communication (Tannen: 1992), she says that male tends to use his logic to tell something, whereas female tends to use her emotion and feeling in conversation. Tannen (1992) adds six differences of communication between men and women, such as; status versus support, independence versus intimacy, advice versus understanding, information versus feeling, order versus proposal and conflict versus compromise. According to Swann (2000) based on

empirical studies of gender and talk have documented a specific features of conversational styles, namely; amount of talk, tentativeness, conversational support, interruption, and compliments. These features are shown the different styles of male and female speakers in conversation.

The views and phenomena described above is the background of the researcher's interest to make the problem of conversational style by male and female in business transaction at market. The result previous researchers above lead the researcher to conduct a research about conversational style but in different phenomenon, since differences between male and female language is very interesting. Therefore, the writer will do her study in the various way of making conversational style used by male and female seller especially at traditional market, because the writer wants to find out whether or not the differences of gender also exist in this area. So, in this study the researcher interest the conversational style used by male and female seller in business transaction at *Pasar Sentosa Baru*. In this case the researcher only will choose "sellers" in the market as research subjects because their selling positions are fixed and easily obtain data and interview them.

Based on the description of the background of the study state above, The objectives of the study is to describe conversational style are used by male and female sellers in business transaction. Findings of this study are expected to be useful for Theoretically, findings of this study will be expected to enrich the theories of sociolinguistics such as; Gender differences in due to conversation, especially for sellers in the market who want to observe males' and females' styles in conversation, as we know that male and female have different styles in speaking. And Practically, findings are expected to be useful for other researchers who are interested in analyzing males' and females' characteristics in speech. In order to, other researchers are able to find that male speakers are able to communicate by female-like strategies and vice versa female speakers are able to communicate by male-like strategies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conversational Styles

Tannen (1987) describes the notion of conversational style as "a semantic process" and "the way meaning is encoded in and derived from speech". She cites the work of Lakoff and Gumperz as the inspiration behind her thinking. According to Tannen (1987), some features of conversational style are topic (which includes type of topics and how transitions occur), genre (storytelling style), pace (which includes rate of speech, occurrence or lack of pauses, and overlap), and expressive paralinguistics (pitch/amplitude shifts and other changes in voice quality). Anything in conversation must be said at a certain rate, in certain words, at a certain pitch and amplitude, in cenain intonation, at a certain point in interaction. All these and countless other linguistic choices detennine the effect of an utterance in interaction and influence judgments that are made both of what is said and of the speaker who said it.

The notion of conversational style grows out of Lakoff (1979) works on communicative style as well as Gumperz's on conversational inference: the function of paralinguistic and prosodic features, which he calls contexlualization cues, to maintain thematic cohesion and signal how conversational contributions are intended. When a speaker says something, s/he signals what "speech activity" (Gumperz, 1977) or uframe" (Bateson, 1972) is being engaged in (joking, lecturing, arguing, etc.), that is, how the message encoded is to be taken. Ways of signaling frames or "metamessages'~ about the relationship of interlocutors (Bateson, 1972) seem self-evident to speakers but in fact are culturally specific and make up the speaker's styIe. In so far as speakers who come from similar

speech communities use contextualization cues in similar ways, style is a social phenomenon. Insofar as speakers use features in particular combinations in various settings, to that extent style is an individual phenomenon.

According to Bergvall et al. (1996) relate to conversational styles, some later relative studies made by linguists have proved that women use more hedges than men, contradictory findings have also shown that women and men similarly use some conversational strategies. as the research done by Bergvall et al. shows that, the occurrence of you know and the use of questions in men's conversation is nearly the same as those in women's conversations. The important thing lies on the multifunctionality of linguistic features and the multifunctionality relies on linguistic features' surrounding contexts. A particular example of one linguistic feature can often be judged only from the context in which it occurs (Macaulay, 2005). By investigating women's use of hedges in the particular context, the article attempts to explore possible factors affecting their conversational style.

Tannen (1987) believes that women and men have different speech styles, and she defines them for us as "rapport-talk" and "report-talk," respectively. Women in conversations today use language for **Intimacy**, hence Tannen's term "rapport-talk." Girls are socialized as children to believe that "talk is the glue that holds relationships together" (Tannen, p. 85), so that as adults conversations for women are "negotiations for closeness in which people try to seek and give confirmation and support, and to reach consensus" (Tannen, p. 25). Conversation is for Community; the woman is an individual in a network of connections.

For men, conversations today are for **Information**, thus "report-talk." Men negotiate to maintain the upper hand in a conversation and protect themselves from others' perceived attempts to put them down. Boys learn in childhood to maintain relationships primarily through their activities, so conversation for adult males becomes a Contest; a man is an individual in a hierarchical social order "in which he [is] either one-up or one-down" (Tannen, p. 24). The following are differentiates the speech styles of Woman which talk too much, Private/small, Build relations, English language spoken, Overlap, Symmetry. While Men are Men get more air time, Public, Negotiate status/avoid failure, English language written, One at a time, asymmetry.

Because of the different intentions in speech that Tannen proposes, conversational messages result in *metamessages* or information about the relations and attitudes among the people involved in the conversation. Tannen offers the example of the helping message that says "This is good for you" that sends the metamessage "I [the speaker] am more competent than you" (Tannen, p. 32). The metamessage is the individual's interpretation of how a communication was meant. Conflicting metamessages in a hierarchical linguistic relationship, such as Tannen believes men maintain, have the potential to injure male pride and arouse their need for "one-upmanship" in the contest of conversation.

Tannen (1987) believes that high-involvement speakers don't mind being overlapped because they will yield to an intrusion on the conversation if they feel like it and put off responding or ignore it completely if they don't (Tannen, p. 198). In addition, speakers from some cultural groups rarely pause between turns, because for them silence is seen as a sign of lack of rapport in a friendly conversation. "Overlapping is a way to keep conversation going without risking silence" (Tannen, p. 205). The overlaps to which Tannen refers are frequent but brief. High-considerateness speakers won't intrude on a conversation at all; it is understandable, then, that in a conversation full of high-involvement speakers a high-considerateness speaker could become very frustrated.

According to Swann (2000) based on empirical studies of gender and talk have documented a specific features of conversational style such as: amount of talk, interruption, conversational support, tentativeness, and compliment.

Based on some experts above, the conclusion can take that Bergvall (1996) explains conversational styles about male and female vary their discourse behavior in accordance with their desire to signal allegiance to or divergence from other members of the group. And Tannen (1987) claims that conversational style doing male and female become six parts depend on gender and Swann (2000) claims that conversational style doing male and female become five parts and be used by both of genders.

Kinds of Conversational Styles

According to Swann (2000) based on empirical studies of gender and talk have documented a specific features of conversational style such as: **1) Amount of Talk,** is talk much in interaction whereas men talk much in public context, they tendency it is public context it is conducted that they feel. It is needed to establish or maintain their status in that group. On the other hand, women would like to talk less in public context. They don't need it, it is stated that they don't use talk to assert status. It is caused that women is fear that their talk will be judged negatively. It is concluded that male speakers have been found to talk too much than females, particularly in public context. **2) Interruption** is taken as a violation and a sign of conversational dominance. Based on finding of Octigan and Niederman (1979) makes interrupt female more than the reserve has been as unsurprising, since males have more power and status than females. In this case male speakers have been found interrupt female speakers more than vice versa, males is likely it is caused that they suppose to presume that they have a right to take the floor from female. **3) Conversational Support,** it is tendency do by female than male. According to Fishman (1983) females give more support, it is caused than they express interest in their partner's conversation topic. In this situation, females frequent use of minimal reponses such as: *mmh, yeah,* and *right* indicating their involvement in interaction. On the other hand, females express conversational support for expecting to keep conversation going. **4) Tentativeness,** is provided uncertainly such as hedges. Females tendency express it than males. This features argued Lakoff (1975) denies women to express themselves strong and make what they are talking about appear trivial (Rejend, 2000). This feature makes females to be uncertainly in their talking in their interaction. Tag question is used by females to support their statement to be right. **5) Compliment,** is thanksgiving to listener who has listened her/his talking in interaction. Females tendency use it than male. It is caused that females are interested in it to establish to connection of intimacy to their partner of conversation. It is concluded that compliment address to females than males.

RESEACRH QUESTION

What conversational styles are used by the male and female sellers in business transaction?

METHODOLOGY

The research setting of this study in business transaction male and female were done in *Pasar Sentosa Baru* for around one months. The researcher recorded their conversation and move it into transcribed text and then analyzed their utterances that relate to the types of conversational style based on Swann (2000). The data sources of this study were the sellers for Males and Females who have joined in business transaction in *Pasar Sentosa Baru*. Males and Females as a seller did the

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business transaction. Which as a seller of male did the business transaction with the buyer of male and female. And seller of female did the business transaction with the buyer of male and female. The total number of seller were 8 sellers which the limited of their age was 35-60 years, their educational background was started from elementary school to senior high school, they came from Javanese and Bataknese ethnics, and they were the traders of vegetables, spices, seafood, and fruits. The researcher chose 4 male sellers and 4 female sellers as the subjects because the researcher restricted the subjects as the amount to be investigated of the subject of the study were able to represent from sellers who hold a sale and purchase transactions with buyers in the traditional market overall issues raised by the researcher, so the researcher took 8 2sellers. The data got from business transaction of male and female utterances in *Pasar Sentosa Baru* especially in types of conversational styles such as: amount of talk, interrupion, conversational support, tentativeness, and compliment (Swann, 2000).

The design of this research was descriptive research by using qualitative research design through conversational analysis, since this research was intended to analyze the addressing terms in Business Transaction in *Pasar Sentosa Baru*. Cresswell (2001) states qualitative research involves fieldwork. The researcher physically went to the people, setting, site, or instruction to observed or recorded the behavior in its natural setting. Descriptive research was involved to collecting the data in interview from people own language or spoken words and observables behavior. Bogdan and Biglen (1982) state that qualitative research is descriptive. The data collected are in the form of words. The written results contain quotations from data to illustrate and substantiate the presentation. The data include interview transcripts and official records. The data was collected through observation and interview. The researcher applied observation in this research in order to obtain the data during male and female sellers doing conversation. In analyzing the data, the researcher used interactive model of Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014). They elaborate several steps of analyzing data; they are data collection, data condensation, data display, and data verification or conclusion. After doing video record, all utterances of conversational styles will be used by male and female sellers of the analyzed through the following steps: 1) **Data Condensation, 2) Data Display, 3) Conclusion Drawing.**

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The Data

Data refers to the rough materials which researcher collected from the sources that she was studying. After the data were analyzed, then the data were accumulating to obtain the mostly conversational styles according to Swann (2000). Based on the data, the researcher used participant observation fieldnotes and interviewing from male and female sellers in business transaction at *Pasar Sentosa Baru* Medan. The researcher found the data related to male and female sellers utterances in business transaction at *Pasar Sentosa Baru* Medan, such as the following: The utterances in twenty conversations male sellers in business transaction observed in Pasar Sentosa Baru Medan and The utterances in twenty conversations female sellers in business transaction observed when they were talking with the buyers.

Data Analysis

Occurrence of Conversational Styles by Male Sellers

Table 1: Percentages of the Conversational Styles for Male Sellers

No.	Kinds of Conversational Styles	Number	Percentage
1.	Amount of Talk	18	30
2.	Interruption	16	26,7
3.	Conversational Support	13	21,7
4.	Tentativeness	3	5
5.	Compliment	10	16,6
Total		60	100%

Table 1 presents the data of the kinds of conversational styles in male sellers business transaction in traditional market. The dominant kinds of conversational styles in male sellers business transaction is amount of talk (30%), amount of talk is talk much in interaction whereas men talk much in public context, they tendency it is public context it is conducted that they feel. Then Interruption (26,7%), interruption or overlap is taken as a violation and a sign of conversational dominance. Conversational support (21,7%), it is expressing interest in their partner's conversation topic. In this situation, minimal reponses such as: *mmh, yeah,* and *right* indicating their involvement in interaction. Then compliment (16,6%), compliment is thanksgiving to listener who has listened her/his talking in interaction. And the lowest score is tentativeness (5%), tentativeness is provided uncertainly such as hedges, tag question is used to support their statement to be right.

Occurrence of Conversational Styles by Female Sellers

Table 2: Percentages of the Conversational Styles for Female Sellers

No.	Kinds of Conversational Styles	Number	Percentage
1.	Amount of Talk	15	23
2.	Interruption	19	29
3.	Conversational Support	16	24
4.	Tentativeness	10	15
5.	Compliment	6	9
Total		65	100%

Table 2 shows the percentages of the kinds of conversational styles by female sellers in business transaction. The dominant kinds of conversational styles by female sellers in business transaction is interruption (29%), interruption or overlap is taken as a violation and a sign of conversational dominance. Then amount of talk (23%), amount of talk is talk much in interaction whereas sellers talk much in public context, they tendency it is public context it is conducted that they feel. Then conversational support (24%), females give more support, it is caused than they express interest in their partner's conversation topic. In this situation, females frequent use of minimal reponses such as: *mmh, yeah,* and *right* indicating their involvement in interaction. Then tentativeness (15%), tentativeness is provided uncertainly such as hedges. Females tendency express it than males. And the lowest score is compliment (9%), compliment is thanksgiving to listener who has listened her/his talking in interaction.

In this study, there are several things in Swann's (2000) theory that do not fit in this study they are in theory's Swann (2000) male sellers are more dominant in interruption, but in this study, female sellers are more dominant applied interruption than male sellers, and also in theory's Swann (2000)

female sellers are more dominant applied compliment than male sellers, but in this study, compliment is more dominant applied by male sellers than female sellers.

Conversational Styles used by Male Sellers

The kinds of conversational styles, the researcher found that male sellers in business transaction in traditional market use amount of talk mostly in business transaction because the male sellers they talk much in interaction in public context, they tendency it is public context it is conducted that they feel. It is needed to establish or maintain their status in that group. And other factor concerns the number or participants responsible for the production of talk. At one extreme certain speech communities communicative contexts and social groups favor conversations in which single participants are allowed to speak at great length without being interrupted. Based on the data that the researcher found that the kinds of conversational styles (Swann 2000) are also implemented by male sellers in business transaction in traditional market.

Conversational Styles used by Female Sellers

The kinds of conversational styles, the researcher found that female sellers in business transaction in traditional market use interruption mostly in business transaction in traditional market because they are taken as a violation and a sign of conversational dominance. In this case the female sellers have been found interrupt the buyers is likely it is caused that they suppose to presume that thy have a right to take the floor from the buyers. And also the female sellers turns are characterized by frequently occurring simultaneous talk, and it is also used for shorter conversations and it is needed to make a point in few words. The female sellers have to derive the essence of the point, and to show buyers at a glance how the essential details fit together. Based on the data that the researcher found that the kinds of conversational styles (Swann 2000) are also implemented by female sellers in business transaction in traditional market.

CONCLUSION

After analyzing the data in kinds of conversational styles in male and female in business transaction in traditional market, some conclusions are drawn as the following: There are five kinds of conversational styles by male sellers in business transaction especially in traditional market, and all of kinds used by male sellers in business transaction in traditional market at *Pasar Sentosa Baru* Medan. Kinds of conversational styles are amount of talk, interruption, conversational support, tentativeness, and compliment. Amount of talk was part of conversational styles used frequently in business transaction in traditional market at *Pasar Sentosa Baru* Medan. Male sellers use amount of talk because the male sellers they talk much in interaction in public context, they tendency it is public context it is conducted that they feel. It is needed to establish or maintain their status in that group. And other factor concerns the number or participants responsible for the production of talk. At one extreme certain speech communities communicative contexts and social groups favor conversations in which single participants are allowed to speak at great length without being interrupted.

There are five kinds of conversational styles by female sellers in business transaction especially in traditional market, and all of kinds used by female sellers in business transaction in traditional market at *Pasar Sentosa Baru* Medan. Kinds of conversational styles are amount of talk, interruption, conversational support, tentativeness, and compliment. Interruption was part of conversational styles used frequently in business transaction in traditional market at *Pasar Sentosa Baru* Medan because they are taken as a violation and a sign of conversational dominance. In this

case the female sellers have been found interrupt the buyers is likely it is caused that they suppose to presume that thy have a right to take the floor from the buyers. And also the female sellers turns are characterized by frequently occurring simultaneous talk, and it is also used for shorter conversations and it is needed to make a point in few words. The female sellers have to derive the essence of the point, and to show buyers at a glance how the essential details fit together.

It is suggested to those who concerned with gender differences in conversational styles in business transaction at Pasar Sentosa Baru Medan: 1) For Bataknese sellers should use soft intonation while selling, so that buyers are not afraid to shop for goods in our place. 2) For all sellers should use good communication can help traders achieve good profits too and adds the buyer to always come to shop to their place especially in traditional market at *Pasar Sentosa Baru* Medan. 3) For all another ethnic sellers should compete in a healthy manner in business by selling good quality products and communicating and serving well.

Limitations of the study

The conversational style is the basic tools with which people communication anything what is said in some way, that way is style. It can be stated that male and female have own style in conversation. In this study, writer is focused on the features of conversational style according to Swann (2000) are used by male and female especially business transaction in Pasar Sentosa Baru. The features of conversational style are amount of talk, tentativeness, interruption, conversational support and compliment.

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LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS WITH DIFFERENT CULTURES IN USING LANGUAGE IN BOARDING HOUSE

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ABSTRACT
This article aims to investigate the linguistics characteristics of male and female students with different cultures in using language in boarding house. The method of the study is descriptive qualitative research. Qualitative research focuses on understanding social phenomena and providing rich verbal descriptions of setting, situations, and participants. It means the data are in the form of words and sentences. The data is taken from 4 males and 4 females students who live in boarding house. The sample of this research will be taken through random sampling technique. This research has indeed revealed a unique gender differences between Bataknese and Karonese students. The results of this study find out that there are no consistent characteristics of male and female students with different cultures in using the language in boarding house. Male use the female's linguistic characteristics, such as: declaration with interrogative intonation, taq question, emotional reference and high of politeness, vice versa, female uses the male's linguistic characteristics, such as: direct, judgement adjectives, less of politeness and brief sentences. Indeed, this study find out that Bataknese female students are more dominant use male's linguistic characteristics.

KEYWORDS: *gender, linguistic characteristics, language use , culture, utterances*

INTRODUCTION
Language exists as a system of symbol, in terms of abstract thinking and senses; it reveals a method and pattern to describe the objective world (Dong, 2014). Human beings not only created language, but also become the users; therefore, the study on linguistics should not only be made from the perspective of symbol, but more should be people-oriented. But the most significant difference between human beings is the gender difference, so people of different genders from either physiology or psychology in the use of language will have their own gender characteristics, which leads to the gender differences in language. Gender differences in language are not only regarded as a linguistic phenomenon but also as a social phenomenon.

Gender differences are the fundamental facts of social life and human differences. It reflects that there is a long historical origin in language difference phenomena. Men and women have different status and play different roles, thus they have different duties and different rights. In social interaction, men and women have different interests in choosing their conversation topics. When men are talking, they are more likely to choose the topics of politics, economy, stocks, sports, current news. While women have more interest in talking family affairs, such as the education of children, clothes, cooking, fashion, etc. Women's talk is associated with the home and domestic activities, while men's talk is associated with the outside world and economic activities.

The gender differences in language are not invariable (Dong, 2014). The gender difference phenomenon in language is reflected by the age, status, social environment, culture background and experience. Based on that phenomena, it is believed that male and female have the differentiation in using the language based on some factors. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following research question:
"What are the linguistic characteristics of male and female students with different cultures in using the language in boarding house?"

LITERATURE REVIEW

Gender is not a noun a "being" but a "doing". Gender is created and reinforced discursively, through talk and behavior, where individuals claim a gender identity and reveal it to others (West & Zimmerman, 1987). Uchida (1992:61) stated that men and women even those within the same group, live in different or separate cultural worlds, they promote different ways of speaking. In simple terms, although men and women live in the same environment, they establish different relation with society as if each belonged to a different environment and culture, the result of which is consequently reflected in the language of both gender as in other aspects of their lives. Male and female also have their own characteristics which are shown by gendered characteristics when they communicate with others.

In male and females' spoken language, some linguists have observed that there are some characteristics which exists and showed gendered characteristics of men and women when they are talking and interacting with others. Crawford (1997) pointed out the men's language characteristics in communication can be identified in the terms of direct, judgement activities, brief sentences, self- references, slang or swear words and politeness. Lakoff in Holmes (2013) pointed out the women's language characteristic can be identified in the terms of lexical hedge or fillers, rising intonation on declaratives, taq questions, "empty adjectives", precise color terms, intensifier, hypercorrect grammar, superpolite forms, avoidance of strong swear words, emphatic stress.

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METHODOLOGY

Data and Source of Data

This research is conducted systematically by following the technique of data collecting and data analysis. The data in this study was taken from the utterances gathered from the conversation between males and females students. The source of data was four males and four female students with different cultures in boarding house. The participants for this case study are selected randomly. There are four males and four females students selected to be participant and they are made up of different culture. Two of the male participants are Bataknese and two of male participants are Karonese. Vice versa, two of female participants are Bataknese and two of female participants are Karonese. They all have known each other because they have lived in that boarding house for almost two years. Permission was also obtained from them to participate in this research and informed that their identities would be kept confidential and the purpose of this research was also explained to them.

Data Collection Method

The technique of data collection will be used documentary technique. The data will be collected through 3 steps, they are observing, recording and transcribing. The observation will be used firstly. The researcher will be applied the direct observation when participant are engaged in conversation. As Bogdan and Biklen (1982) say that observation is one of the common ways in qualitative research since qualitative research is naturalistic. In this study, observation will be done during the participants are engaged in conversation. Then, the utterances produced by male and females students will be recorded during they are engaged in conversation. The main purpose of recording is to be able to get the natural data. Then, the utterances will be transcribed in order to organize the data.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

After analyzing the transcripts of conversations of both genders and the data analysis based on themes or categories, each of the use of the linguistics characteristics of men and women are described as follows.

1. *The male students use both "direct" and "declaration with interrogative intonation"*

   The direct sentence is the using of imperatives as the realization of their status and power in interaction. An imperative can direckly control different aspects of another person's thinking or behaviour. This is commonly used by man to show their power and status (Crawford, 1997). By using the concept as the category of data analysis show that man perform the direct sentences as follows:

   M1 : *Kuncikan pintu itu, cepat.*
   (Lock the door, hurry up)
   M3 : *Suka kali kalen nonton sinetron, ganti siarannya.*
   (You like watching the drama very much, change the channel!)
   (Conversation 1)

M4 : *Kupake dulu uangmu*
(Give me your money!)
M1 : *Susah kali kau buat, ini dia.*
(You make it difficult, here you are)
(Conversation 3)

In this two conversations, we can see that males utterances, "Lock the door, hurry up!; Give me your money!" are formed in the imperative form and function as the direct command. The use of direct command is considered as the realization of his status as a man who is more powerful than woman. This is in line with what Crawford (1997) said that man's utterances are mostly imperative intended to be the realization of his powerful position as a man.

However, man does not perform such linguistich characteristicss behaviour consistently in every situation. Some men perform linguistic characteristics of women, such as declaration with interrogative intonation, as seen in the conversation below:

M2 : *Bisa tutupkan pintu itu dek, tolong?*
(Would you mind to close the door, sister?)
(Conversation 3)

This utterances do not reflect the man linguistic characteristic, this utterance is formed in interogative intonation and in polite way. The power that the man has is not realized in his utterance. He choose to realize the less powerful position that usually held by woman instead by realizing the more powerful position as a woman usually does. As a man, he should be said, *"Close the door?"*

2. *The male students use both "judgement adjectives" and "taq question"*

The judgement adjective is the way of expressing one's thinking, evaluating, or judging an object such as being good or bad. That is commonly conducted by the use of adjective. This is commonly performed by a man to show the power (Crawford, 1997). By using the concepts as the category of data analysis show that man perform this adjectives, as seen in conversation below.

M3 : Apanya kau bilangi? Selalu bahasa planet?
(What are you talking about? You usually use the strange words)
F3 : Makanya blajar bahasa planet bang..
(Learn the strange words, brother)
(Conversation 4)

In conversation 4, we can see the utterance, "*(What are you talking about? You usually use the strange words)"* is formed in the judgement adjectives to tell his opinion. He stated that the female is proud of herself by using the uncommon words (in this sense, she used vernacular language). This is line with what Crawford (1997) said that man's utterances are mostly judges something by using adjectives to show their power in their interaction.

However, male students does not perform such linguistic characteristics consistently in every situation. They also perform linguistic characteristics of woman, such as taq question, as seen in conversation below:

M2 : Iala, kamu, Siapa lagi kalo bukan kamu, ia kan?
(Of course you are, aren't you?
F1 : Malas. Seru kali film ini. Jangan ganggu dulu.
(I'm lazy. This film is so interesting. Do not disturb me)
(Conversation 1)

In this conversation, the male's utterance is formed in taq question to make sure that he asked the girl to lock the key. The male doesn't show his powerness to facilitate the conversation. As a man, he should be said, *"I ask you, to lock the door"*.

3. The male students use "self references" and "emotional references"

Self reference is when the idea or formula refers to its self. It refers to the ability of a subject to himself/herself to have the kind of thought exrepressed by the first person nominative singular pronoun. (Crawford, 1997). This is commonly use by male to show his power. It can be seen in the conversation below:

M3 : Lebih banyak nya aku tau dari dirimu. Namanya udah berpengalaman.
(I know more than you. I had had so many experiences)
F2 : Yakin?
(Are you sure?)
(Conversation 4)

The male utterance, "*I know more than you. I had had so many experiences*" is formed in the form of self references. It is reflected from the word *"I"* that used by male. The function of the word is to emphasize that the male is more powerful. It is line with Crawford theory (1997), the man's utterances are mostly used the self references intended to be the realization of his powerful position in society.

However, man does not perform the linguistic characteristic of woman, such as emotional references, as seen in data below:

M3 : ya ampun. Baiknya anak yang satu ini. Terlambat menyadarinya.
(Oh my God, you are so good, It's too late too aware this)
F1 : mmmmm, Leseng nai poang.
(He mocks me)
(Conversation 3)

In this data, the male utterance, "*(Oh my God, you are so good, It's too late too aware this)* do not reflect the man's linguistic characteristics. The utterance is formed in the form emotional references and in polite way to state his feeling. The power of man is not realized in his utterance.

4. The male students use both "less of politeness' and "high of politeness"

Less of politeness make the speaker in the superior position in their interaction. They use the language direckly and seldom to keep interlocutor's feeling when talking with them. (Crawford, 1997). This is commonly use by man to show their power as a man, as seen in the data below:

M1 : Kuncikan pintu itu cepat!
(Lock the door, hurry up!)
F1 : Akunya bang?
(Me, brother?)
(Conversation 1)
M3 *:* Yang udah makannya kalian?
(Have you already had your dinner?)
F1 : Udah dek.
(Yes, I have.
M3 : Ko ga ngajak-ngajak?
(Why don't you invite me?)
(Conversation 4)

The males utterances, *"Lock the door, hurry up!; Have you already had your dinner?; Why don't you invite me"* are formed in the impolite words, because in this utterances, the male show their powerful position. This is line with Crawford theory (1997) said that man's utterances are mostly less of politeness to show their status and powerful position as a man. They do not want to keep the cooperation in their interaction by keep someone's feeling.

However man does not perform such linguistic characteristics consistently in every situation. Some men also perform linguistich characteristics of woman such as, high of politeness, as seen in data below:

M2 : Bisa tutupkan pintu itu dek?
(Would you mind to open the door, sister?)
F3 : Aku bang?
(Me?)
(Conversation 3)

The male utterances, "*Would you mind to open the door, sister?;* is formed in polite way to keep someone's feeling. He used the word, "*would you"* to show his lower position when asking someone's helping. He does not use his language characteristics to show his power as a man.

The data analysis show that woman does not use the women's linguistics characteristic consistently, she may also use the men's linguistic characteristics, each of the use of the linguistic characteristics of females students:

1. The female students use both "declaration with interrogative intonation" and "direct"

Declaration with interrogative intonation is making the statement into question by raising the pitch of the voice at the end of the statement to show the uncertainty. This is commonly performed by woman to show their powerless (Lakoff, 1975). By using the concept as the category of data analysis, show that woman perform the declaration with interrogative intonation, as seen in the data below:

F3 : Siapa lagi kalo bukan cewek-cewek cantik di kos ini, bukan?
(Who is anything else? Of course, we are. Aren't we?)
M2 : Puji diri terus.
(Praise your own self)
F2 : Memang cantik-cantik nya kami khan?
(We are beautiful, aren't we?)

(Conversation 2)
F1 : Cewek kan unik bang. Ciptaan Tuhan yang paling sempurna. Ia khan?
(Girls are unique. They are the perfect creation of God, aren't they?)
M1 : Apa?
(What)

In this data, these utterances are formed with indirect sentences, woman make statement into questions, the interrogative intonation has function to express her uncertainty about something and asking for someone's confirmation. It can be seen in the utterance "*We are beautiful, aren't we?; Girls are unique. They are the perfect creation of God, aren't they?"* This is line with Lakoff (1975) said that woman's utterances are mostly indirect and formed in the interrogative sentences to express their powerless position.

However, women does not perform such linguistic characteristics consistently in every situation, some women also perform linguistic characteristic of man, such as direct sentences, as seen in the data below:
F1 : Malas. Seru kali film ini.
(I am lazy. This film is so interesting)
M2 : Suka kali kalian nonton sinetron. Ganti siarannya.
(You like watching drama, Change the channel!)
F2 : Jangan ganggu kami.
(Do not disturb us)
(Conversation 1)

In this data, the female utterances do not reflect the woman's language characteristics. The uterance, "*Do not disturb us"* is formed in direct sentences. It is used to forbid someone. She uses the direct language to show her power as a woman. As a woman, she should be said, "Please, do not disturb us".

2. The female students use both "taq question" and "judgement adjectives"

Taq question is stating the claim but has less confidence to state it to the interlocutor. And taq question used to show the insecurityof something. This is commonly performed by woman to show her powerless (Lakoff, 1975). By using the concept as the category of data analysis show that woman use taq question as seen in the data below:
F3 : Siapa lagi kalo bukan cewek-cewek cantik di kos ini, bukan?
(Who is anything else? Of course, we are. Aren't we?)
M2 : Puji diri terus.
(Praise your own self)

F2 : Memang cantik-cantik nya kami khan?
(We are beautiful, aren't we?)

In this data, there utterance, "*Who is anything else? Of course, we are. Aren't we?; We are beautiful, aren't we?)* are formed in taq question to show the insecurity of something. The use of taq question is considered as the realization of her powerless. It is line with Lakoff (1975) said that woman's utterances are mostly indirect to realized their powerless position in the family.

However, woman doesnot perform such linguistic characteristics consistently in every situation. Some women also perform the linguistics characteristics of man, such as judgement adjectives.

F4 : Ooooo. Yang banyakan tugas ini. Mini research, critical book review, critical journal review, project entah apa lagi. Ga tau ngerjain apa duluan.
(*There are so many assignment. Mini research, critical book review, critical journal review, project and many others. I'm confuse, where do I start?)*

F3 : Ia kan? Ga ada perasaan dosen ini. Uda mau UAS, tugas lagi, tugas lagi.
(That's right? They are callous. We will get final term next two weeks, but we are busy with assignments. How can we focus to our final term?

F4 : Coba mereka yang jadi mahasiswa. Pasti ga sanggup, Omong kosong
(If they are students, of course, they will not do it, bullshit)

The utterance, "*If they are students, of course, they will not do it, bullshit"* do not reflect the woman's language characteristics. The utterances are formed in the judgement adjective and impolite way. The powerless that the woman has is not realized in her utterances. She judges their lecturers direckly because of they have so many assignment in the end of semester.

3. The female students use both "high of politeness" and "less of politeness'

High of politeness is the way of talking when speaker really keep the interlocutor's feeling and make them into superior position, it can be seen from the politeness markers such as, "Please, Thank You" (Lakoff, 1975). This is commonly performed by woman to show her powerless position. By using the concept as the category of the data analysis , show that woman perform the high of politeness as seen in the data below:

M2 : Bisa tutupkan pintu itu dek?
(Would you mind to open the door, sister?)

F3 : Aku bang?
(Me, brother?)

F1 : Akulah yang nutup bang?
(Can I close the door for you, brother?)

M3 : Ya ampun. Baiknya anak yang satu ini. Terlambat menyadarinya.
(Oh my God, you are so good, It's too late too aware this)

(Conversation 3)

The utterances, "*Me, brother?; Can I close the door for you, brother?)* are formed in polite markers when asking someone. These utterances are considered as the realization of her powerless as woman, she wants to show her respect to the man as her senior. This is line with

what Lakoff (1975) said that woman's utterances are mostly use the high politeness in order to keep someone's feeling and make the speaker in the inferior position.

However, women does not perform such linguistic characteristics consistently in every family, some women also perform the man's language characteristics, such as less of politeness, as seen in data below:

F1 : Siapa, siapa yang menggosip? (with higher intonation)
(Who's? Who's the gossiper?)
M1 : Kalian lah.
(All of you)
F1 : Sembarangan ngomong.
(Bullshit)
(Conversation 2)

The utterances, "*Who's? Who's the gossiper?; Bullshit"* do not reflect the women's language characteristics. The utterances are formed in impolite way. She said the words to blame her friends and to state that her interlocutor is wrong. She use the impolite words as the realization of her power position.

4. The female students use both "hedging" and "brief sentences'

Hedging is the way to show the disagreement but stated in the non-absolute language, such as *"I think, I guess"* to show the uncertainty about something (Lakoff, 1975). This is commonly performed by women to show their powerless position in society. By using the concept as the category of the data analysis, show the woman perform the hedging.

F3 : Emang ia bang. Banyak kali berita kriminal akhir-akhir ini, bagusan pindah ke planet lain khan?
(I guess so. There are so many criminal reports lately. It's better we move to the other planet)
F2 : Aku pikir juga gitu, takut kali awak belakangan ini.
(I think so, I'm so afraid with all criminal reports lately)
(Conversation 4)

The utterances, "*I guess so, I think so"* are formed in a hedging sentences. the utterances show the urcentainty of something, by this words woman realized her powerless in community. This is line with what Lakoff (1975) said that woman's utterances are mostly use use the uncertainty expression when talking with someone, to show their powerless position in the community.
However, women does not perform such linguistic characteristics consistently in every family, some women also perform the man's language characteristics, such as brief sentence, as seen in the data below:

F2 : Jangan!!! Jangan ganti.
(No, Do not change it!)
M3 : Apa gunanya nonton sinetron
(Is it important to watching drama?)
F1 : Perlu lah.
(Yes, of course yes)

The utterances, "*No, Do not change it! Yes, of course yes"* do not reflect the woman's language characteristics. The utterances are formed with the clear and brief sentences. The powerless of women is not realized in her utterances. She use the short and clear sentences to make the point briefly to the interlocutor. She use the word to realize her power position that usually held by man instead of realizing the more powerless position as a women usually does.

CONCLUSION

Based on the data analysis, it can be concluded that there are no consistent characteristics of male and female students in using the language in their interaction in boarding house. Men use the man language characteristics and also use the women language characteristics to show their powerfulness and cooperation in interaction. Vice versa, women use the woman language characteristics and also use the men language characteristics to show their powerlesness and cooperation in interaction. On the other hand, it is found that female speech is very much influenced by their choice of linguistic forms. They prefer to use a lot of questions to enquire about information which indirectly helps to develop quite a fair participation especially in terms of turn taking by all the interlocutors. Thus, women often use the brief sentences to switch from one topic to another topic in a shorter time.

Despite some of these distinctive features in men's and women's speech, it is also discovered that men and women share the same features in their speech in terms of directness and indirectness in speech. Both genders are direct although there are some instances whereby they are indirect in their speech. This is clearly demonstrated as there are no terms in the ethnic groups which can be used in place of *"please, may, could etc"*. Hence, their speech may sound direct and rude to other interlocutors. Notably, men used slightly more of fillers, hedges and affirmatives than women. This finding is in contrast with findings by Lakoff (1975) who found that women used more fillers, hedges and affirmative words than men. Both genders use very little of these linguistic features probably because they are communicating using their ethnic or first language which they are fluent and competent in. Furthermore, the topics of their conversation do not require them to give factual information. They are just talking about petty issues relating to their daily lives, hence, they do need to think hard about what to say.

Indeed, this study find out that Bataknese female students are more dominant in using the male's linguistic characteristics. Thus, for further research, it is suggested to find out the reason, why does the Bataknese female are more dominant in using the male's linguistic characteristics. Since the subjects of the study are limited to the students who live in boarding house, it is suggested for further research to find out the linguistic characteristics used by students in different context, such as campus, classroom, canteen or public context.

Limitation of the Study

This case study is only confined to a limited area as all participants chosen are living in boarding house. Besides, this study is limited to only four male and four female students. Thus, its findings cannot be generalized to a bigger population where more varied gender differences and cultural

background have to be taken into consideration if inter-relationship of ideas were to be established.

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TEACHING NOTICING DELEXICAL COLLOCATION: DO, MAKE, GET

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ABSTRACT
This study seeks to examine the Effect of teaching noticing delexical collocations on Persian L2 Learners. To address this issue, 36 students at Payam Noor University of Shushtar, Iran, participated in this study. A quantitative, quasi-experimental design comprising the pretest, explicit instruction of delexical collocation of Do, Make and Get as an intervention, and the post-test was utilized. The results of a Paired sample t-test revealed that explicit instruction was remarkably effective in decreasing the mean number of L1 transfer (for delexical collocations of Make and Get) and synonymy (for delexical collocation of Do) while it was less than satisfactory for overgeneralization errors in the post-test. Qualitative analysis of pre- test endorsed the fact that Persian EFL learners were faintly aware of delexical collocation.

KEYWORDS: Collocations, delexical collocations, noticing,

INTRODUCTION
"The ultimate purpose of most language teaching is to help learners acquire the target language to a point where they can use it accurately, spontaneously, and fluently" (Eliss, 2001). The best way to become more fluent and more confident for EFL learners is to know a great number of vocabularies first. The more words they know, the more they will be able to understand what they hear and read. One of the most challenging areas in English vocabulary acquisition is delexical collocation (verb + noun) (Sinclair, 1991). Delexical collocations used far more either in everyday speaking (Carter and McCarty, 2007) or in academic written language, and they contribute an impression of naturalness in fluency (Sinclair, 1990). According to Sinclair (1990,147) delexical verbs are very common verbs which are used with nouns as their objects to indicate simply that someone performs an action, not that someone affects or creates something. Delexical verbs seem difficult to learn since they collocate with many words in diverse contexts (Nation, 2001).

One of the difficulties in acquiring collocations is that even the slightest adjustment to them like substituting one of its components for a near synonym might turn the text into a non- standard English (Thornbury, 2002).

Delexicalization and delexical collocations
Delexicalization refers to the process through which a lexical item loses its original lexical value and often acquires other meanings and other functions within a larger unit" (Boneli, 2000, P. 229). The class of verbs which undergo delexicalization process is delexical verbs and the

combination of a delexical verb and the following noun is delexical structure. The expression where they occur has an idiomatic quality; they also bear syntactic information such as tense, number and person**.** It should be noted that the whole meaning of resulting construction is other than some of its parts. The most common delexical verbs are, take, give, pay, hold, be, do, make, get, put. They are also known by different terms, e.g. light verbs (Jespersen, 1956), support/ supportive verb (Gawronska, 2008), hot verbs (used in New Headway series), empty words (Parrot, 2000). Hill (2000) called these verbs "delexical" because he believes these verbs contribute little or no meaning to the expression it is the second words that carry the most of the meaning. The real meaning is usually contained in the words that collocate with the delexical verbs. Jukneviciene (2008. 120) viewed that delexical verbs are those verbs that are followed by nouns as objects to form a "collocation" of the type: (deleical) verb+ noun (object). These verbs become delexical when juxtaposed with a noun phrase. Their lexical meaning is then reduced; they are delexicalised—hence the term delexical—and the semantic content is therefore conveyed mainly by the noun (Guňková, 2011).

Noticing hypothesis

Textbooks and reading materials often present an overabundance of information that competes for one's attention. Attention is a crucial first step for elements or features in the input to be retained in memory (Schmidt, 2001). The term consciousness puts forward by Krashen (1982) in his input hypothesis; he posits that acquisition is a subconscious process while learning is a conscious process. The term "consciousness raising" refers to the drawing of learners' attention to the formal properties of language (Rutherford et all, 1985). Following formal instruction, learners may notice a particular linguistic feature in subsequent input (Eliss, 1997). Cognitive psychology and cognitive science believed that attention to stimuli is needed for long-term memory storage (Carr & Curran, 1994; Nissen & Bullemer, 1987; Posner, 1992; Reber, 1993). According to Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis, attention controls access to awareness and is responsible for noticing, which is "the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake".

"The reason so many students are not making any perceived progress is simply because they haven't trained to notice which word go with which. They may know quite a lot of individual words which they struggle to use, along with their grammatical knowledge, but they lack the ability to use those words in a range of collocations which pack more meaning into what they say or write"(Lewis, 2000:14).

Schmidt (1996) maintains that for better second language development learners have to notice the linguistic features in the input. They need to make sense of what they learn, and be able to control their selective attention. Researches show that collocation knowledge increases when combined with instruction and noticing (Jean, 2007; Dorkchanra, 2015).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The term collocation (the equivalent of the Persian term, آیی هم با) derives from the Latin word " collocare" (call= together+ locare= to place) which means putting or placing together McCarthy

(1990) defined collocation as a marriage contract between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other than others. According to Altenberg (1991: 128), "roughly 70% of the running words in the corpus form part of recurrent word combinations of some kind." Verb-noun collocations or delexical collocations are of the most frequently used types of collocations in language. J. R. Firth (1957) was the first who used this term and defined it as the habitual and the recurrent juxtaposition of words with particular other words.
Benson et al. (1986: x) classify collocation into two categories:

Grammatical Collocation
Noun + Preposition ® ability in / at
Noun + to + Infinitive ® a problem to do
Noun + That Clause ® We reached an agreement that…
Preposition + Noun ® On purpose
Adjective + Preposition ® Tired of
Adjective + to + infinitive ® easy to learn
Adjective + That Clause ® She was delighted that…
Verb + Preposition ® Believe in…

Lexical Collocation
Verb + Noun ® Make a decision
Adjective + Noun ® Weak tea
Noun + Verb ® Alarms go off
Noun1 + of + Noun2 ® A bunch of keys
Adverb + Adjective ® Quite safe
Verb + Adverb ® Walk heavily
Delexical verbs (make, do, take, get, have, put) are among the most important verb+ noun collocations to teach because they seem difficult to learn since they collocate with many words in diverse contexts (Nation, 2001). Delexical collocations used far more either in everyday speaking or in academic written language, and they contribute an impression of naturalness in fluency (Sinclair, 1990).

Bahns and Eldaw (1993) conducted an experiment to find out whether collocations should be taught explicitly. The result revealed that learners' knowledge of collocations lagged far behind their knowledge of vocabulary in general. They concluded from their study that "learners' knowledge of collocations does not develop in parallel with their knowledge of vocabulary and this may be in part due to the fact that collocations are not taught and that learners do not therefore pay attention to learning them."

Farghal and Obiedat (1995) conducted a study aimed at testing learners 'knowledge of 22 common English collocations. They conducted a Fill-in-the-and Arabic into English translation tests. Farghal and Obiedat found synonym as the most frequent strategy used by L2 learners when a correct collocation was not produced, followed by that of avoidance, L1 transfer and paraphrasing. The main conclusion drawn in the study is that L2 learners cannot cope with

collocations because —they are not being made aware of collocations as a fundamental genre of multi-word units.

Jauknevicence (2008) investigated the interlanguage of non-native speaker with regard to high frequency lexical verbs have, do , make, take and give and made a comparison with a corpus of English native speakers. Their finding showed that direct translation is their prominent strategy that could as delexical verbs (e.g., make, put, get, turn, do, run, and take) are high-frequency ones, L2 learners may feel familiar with them. However, delexical verbs are demanding to acquire as they have various meanings collocating with many words and partly because L2 learners.

Dorkchandra (2015) investigated the effect of noticing collocation on Thai EFL learners, in term of their collocational competence and their opinion toward the instruction. Learners were divided into an experimental group and a control group by drawing lots. The quantitative data were collected using a pre and post-test and an open ended questionnaire was used to collect the qualitative data. The results indicated that the experimental group was significantly different from the control group as measured by their post-collocation test mean scores; they had positive opinions toward the instruction of noticing collocation.

Despite growing numbers of studies devoted to different types of collocations, there is limited growth in delexical collocation awareness raising. However, this study mainly focused on delexical collocations in the shade of noticing hypothesis.

RESEACRH QUESTIONS

This paper tries to provide answers the following research questions:

1: What are the tendencies that the Iranian L2 learners demonstrate in their translation of collocations?
2: Does noticing help the Iranian EFL learners enhance their knowledge of delexical collocation?

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The present study was conducted at Payam Noor University of Shushtar, Iran. The sample consisted of 36 students, these participants were both male and female students with an age range of 19-23 all the participants were native speakers of Persian, and majoring in English.

Instrumentation

A quantitative, quasi-experimental design comprising the pretest, explicit instruction of delexical collocation of Do, Make and Get as an intervention, and the post-test was utilized. A translation test was conducted as a pre-test mostly to gain views into a competency of delexical collocation Make, Do, and Get. After 12 weeks of instructions a post- test with the same number and content

was held to see the effect of teaching noticing delexical collocation on Persian L2 learner's delexical performance.

Procedure

According to Lewis (1993) delexical collocations are more error-prone in learner translation tests, in this regard; Translation test can be a useful instrument for eliciting interlanguage errors of L2 learners. At the commencement of the study a translation test consisted of 21 sentences was conducted. Among the 21 test items, 7 items were made up using Make, 7 items using Get, and 7 items using Do. Later in the semester, the researcher taught 3 high frequency verbs, Make, Do, Get over 12 weeks.

The instruction included:

- Highlighting delexical collocations in their textbook,
- Matching exercises for practice of the delxical collocations,
- comparing delexical collocations and their isolated counterparts,
- Rote memorization,

After twelve weeks of explicit instruction of delexical collocations post-test was conducted. The format, requirements, length and structure were the same as their pretest assessment. The comparison of the pre-test and post-test determined if teaching the delexical collocations through noticing was an effective method for improving student fluency level. The researcher defines the translations test Item as deviant if one of the following criteria were met:

- The targeted collocation lacked delexicalized verb.
- Synonymy
- overgeneralization

After administering the test, the researchers analyzed students' responses to categorize the number of correct and incorrect responses. The judgments on the acceptability of the collocations produced by the learners were made by the Oxford collocational dictionary (2009).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of McNamar test

McNemar's test was used to examine the difference between two performances of each question in pre-test and post-test. The results of the tests depicted in table 1, the researcher found a statistically significant difference between the results of post- test (pvalue =.002 <0.05) compared to pretest (Statistically significant values are printed in bold).

Table 1: results of Mc Nemar tests to compare pre and post tests

	Ncorrectresponse. Pre & Nofcorrectresponse. Post-test	Nofincorrectresponse. pre & Nofincorrectresponse. Post-test	Synonymy. pre & synonymy. Post-test	Overgeneralization. pre & Overgeneralization. Post-test	L1transfer. pre & L1transfer. Post-test
P-Value	**.002**	**.002**	.045[b]	.180[b]	**.021**

Paired t-test

In order to test the relationship between the teaching noticing and learning delexical collocations a t- test was calculated for pre and post -tests. The scores obtained from the two groups were compared and subjected to statistical operations for each of delexical collocations separately.

Table 2: results of pair t-test tests to compare delexical collocation Do at pre and post tests

Type of Delexical verb in items		Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	Pvalue
Do	N of correct response.Post	22.500	5.1824	5.896	7	**.001**
	N of correct response.Pre	10.500	3.0706			
	N of incorrect response.Post	13.500	5.1824	-5.896	7	**.001**
	N of incorrect response.pre	25.500	3.0706			
	Synonymy.Post	3.375	1.6850	-2.831	7	**.025**
	Synonymy.pre	8.750	4.4641			
	Over generalization.Post	3.250	1.6690	-1.342	7	.222
	Over generalization.pre	4.750	2.4349			
	L1- transfer.Post	6.875	4.1897	-2.059	7	.078
	L1- transfer.pre	12.000	5.2099			

The results of paired *t*- test for delexical collocation of Do show that there is a significant difference between the mean number of correct responses in pre-test (m=10.500) and mean number of correct responses of post-test (m=22.500), on the other word, the performance of the participants significantly improved from pre-test to post-test. As table 2 shows the mean of deviant answer of synonymy in pre-test was 8.750 and the post- test mean was 3.375 and T-value of -2.831. The p-value of paired test was .025<0.05 which is considered statistically significant. Therefore, based on the obtained and analyzed data, it can be concluded that teaching collocations had a positive and significant effect on decreasing the number participants' synonymy errors.

Table 3: results of pair t-test tests to compare delexical collocation Make at pre and post tests

Type of Delexial verb in items		Mean	Std deviation	T	Df	Pvalue
Make	N of correct response.Post	18.400	5.8138	10.633	4	**.000**
	N of correct response.Pre	6.000	3.7417			
	N of incorrect response.Post	17.600	5.8138	-10.633	4	**.000**
	N of incorrect response.pre	30.000	3.7417			
	Synonymy.Post	4.600	1.5166	-1.677	4	.169
	Synonymy.pre	7.600	3.2094			
	Over generalization.Post	3.600	2.0736	-1.108	4	.330
	Over generalization.pre	5.400	1.6733			
	L1- transfer.Post	9.400	3.7148	-6.290	4	**.003**
	L1- transfer.pre	17.000	4.9497			

As Table 3 shows, the performance of Persian l2 learners for delexical collocation of Make differed significantly across pre-test and post- test. As table indicates, there was a significant difference between the mean number of correct responses (m=18.400) and incorrect responses (m=6.000). In case of deviant responses, significant difference was seen in Persian L2 learners' performance in case of L1 transfer from Pre-test (m=4.9497) to post-test (m= 3.7148) and T-value=-6.290. As the table indicates, the P-value of paired t-test is.003<. 05 which is statistically significant.

Table 4: results of pair t-test tests to compare delexical collocation Get at pre and post tests

Type of Delexical verb Item		Mean	Std deviation	T	Df	Pvalue
Get	N of correct response.Post	18.857	6.4402	5.793	6	**.001**
	N of correct response.Pre	5.143	2.9114			
	N of incorrect response.Post	16.571	7.4801	-5.350	6	**.002**
	N of incorrect response.pre	30.857	2.9114			
	Synonymy.Post	4.286	3.3022	-.417	6	.691
	Synonymy.pre	5.000	2.2361			
	Over generalization.Post	3.143	2.4103	-1.875	6	.110
	Over generalization.pre	5.286	1.7995			
	L1- transfer.Post	9.000	4.8990	-3.669	6	**.010**
	L1- transfer.pre	20.571	5.2870			

The results for delexical collocation of Get are completely the same for delexical collocation of Make. As the table reveals there is a significant difference between the mean number of correct responses in pre-test (m=5. 143) and post-test (m=18. 857). The mean number of L1- transfer significantly decreased in the post-test (m= 9.000) compared with a mean of the pre-test (m= 20.571). On the other words, teaching noticing is very effective in learning of the delexical collocation of Get.

Discussion

What are the tendencies of Iranian EFL learners demonstrate in their translation of delexical collocations?

To answer the first research question, a paired t-test was conducted for each of delexical variables separately to compare the results of pre-test and post-test for delexical collocations of Do, Make and Get. In the first step of the analysis, the results obtained for the translation test were investigating the tendency of Persian L2 learner toward three types of errors. Initial item analysis of pre-test items confirms the learner's tendency to avoid delexical collocations. Avoidance is the procedural strategy that the speaker uses when substituting the required form with another, due to a lack of the necessary linguistic resources (Faerch and Kasper, Eds. 1983). Laufer and Eliasson (1995, 36) viewed avoidance as a faint awareness of the target language forms of expression and involve some sort of intentional choice to replace that form by something else. The following test items confirm our claim of Persian avoidance strategy to compensate their low collocation competency.

Item (15) من ظرف شستن را دوست دارم

* I love washing the dishes.
(I love doing the dishes).

In the example above a great number of students used any of the words "do", "wash" or "clean" to translate this sentence to avoid delexical structures. Persian learners have not understood fine differences in meaning between the delexical structures "do" and "wash" the dishes.

Item (16) سعی کردم او را متقاعد کنم اما به نتیجه نرسید.
*I tried to convince her, but I couldn't.
(I tried to convince her, but I got nowhere.)

(Item 19) اگه لباسهایت را اتو نکنی چروک میشوند.
*If you don't ironing your clothes will untidy.
(If you don't do the ironing, your clothes will be wrinkled)

As it is evident for item 19, students considered "don't" as an auxiliary and avoid delexical collocation of "Do". This avoidance can be because of two reasons:
1. They do not know such collocations at all,
2. Their uncertainty over collectability of Do+ ironing.

(Item 7) ما جمعه خرید می کنیم.
* We shop on Friday.
We will do our shopping on Friday.)

Item (11) مینا و احمد طلاق گرفتند.
* Mina and Ahmad divorced.
(Mina and Ahmad got divorced.)

Item (20) تو تنهایی نمی توانی هرکاری انجام بدهی اجازه بده کمکت کنم.
* You can't work alone, let me help you.
(You can't do everything yourself, let me help you.)

L1 transfer

According to Nesselhauf (2003) First language transfer is considered as a crucial factor of second language acquisition influencing EFL learners' production of collocations. Where the two collections were identical, learning could take place easily through positive transfer of the native-language pattern, but where they were different, learning difficulty arose and errors resulting from negative transfer were likely to occur (Ellis (1994 p. 300). L1 transfer can be a main source of collocational errors (Mongkolchai 2008). The following test items show common errors made by Persian students who struggled with translation test:

Item (8) میتوانی برایم یک لیوان آب بیاوری؟
* Could you bring me a glass of water?
(Could you get me a glass of water?)

Persian L2 learners tend to directly translate L2 lexical items into literal L1 meaning. On the other word, they literally transfer the individual meaning of an item without knowing the exact expression in the target language. In above example "bring" is the Persian equivalent and literal translation of "get" in English.

Item (12) یک ماشین نو خریدم.
*I bought a new car.
(I got a new car)

Owing to linguistic deficiencies, Persian EFL learners ignore delexical verbs as they underestimate them in correct translation they have to rely on approximate translation of the sentence. The above example is literary translated in English by Persian L2 learners; they ignored delexical collocation of "Get" and replaced a Persian simple verb of buying as they don't know different meaning of "Get".

Item (2).بچه ها زیاد سروصدا می کنند
* Children do a lot of noise
(Children are making too much noise)

Item (4).اگراتاق را به هم بریزید خودتان باید آن را مرتب کنید
*if you cause dirty your room you will clean it.
(If you make a mess in your room, you will have to clean it yourself)

Item (9).میخواهم درباره ی یادگیری زبان دوم تحقیق کنم
* I'm going to make a research in second language learning.
(I'm going to do a research on second language learning.)

As there is no big difference in meaning between Make and Do in Persian. Persian L2 learners tend to use 'do a lot of noise' instead of 'make a lot of noise' and 'cause dirty' or 'do dirty' instead of 'make dirty' and. These types of errors are language specific and L1 effected.

Item (14) امیدوارم به زودی کارپیدا کنم.
*I hope I find a job soon.
(I hope I get the job soon)

Item (6) .سیگارکشیدن برای بدنت ضرردارد
* Smoking makes you ill
Smoking do harm to your body

Item (13) دوستان جدید زیادی پیدا کرده ام
* I have found a lot of friends here
(I have made a lot of new friends here)

For Item (13) learners substitute "found" instead of "Made" as finding friends in Persian is exactly equivalent of making friend in English, and a real indication of L1 transfer without sufficient attention to their collocational properties.

Chief among the challenges of Iranian EFL learners with the delexical collocation of Do is lack of competency which forces them to rely on synonymy to express what they want to say or write or misuse delexical collocations in some occasion. For example the verb Make (ساختن) used for the verb Do (کردن), as a result, Persian EFL learners find it difficult to make a choice between Make and Do because they use only one verb to Do, Make (Kard) in their L1. According to Liu (1999) some students may think that words such as Make and Do are delexical verbs so they can replace one another freely.

Synonymy errors

EFL students replaced an English word with its synonym probably on the assumption that they can be used interchangeably, Fraghal and Obeidat 1995 referred to synonymy as a straightforward application of the open choice principle. Howarth (1996) argued that the L2 learners' problem originated from "false analogy" between collocates of two synonymous words. The Strategy of Synonymy eventually can lead to L1 transfer.

Item (1): به آنها بگو به سگ نزدیک نشوند.
* Tell them not go near the dog.
(Tell her not to get near the dog.)

Item (5): ژاکتت رو بپوش وگرنه سرما میخوری
* Put on your jacket or you will become sick.
(Wear your jacket or you'll get sick)

Item (17) منصور باید خساراتی را که به تو وارد کرده را جبران کند.
* Mansur should correct the harm he's made to you.
(Mansure should make amends the harm he's caused you.)

The verb "to get" can mean "procure" (I'll get the drinks), "become" (she got scared), "understand" (I get it), "have" (I've got three dollars), "to move to a different place or into a different position" (getting into the car), ect. Regarding Item (1) Persian L2 learners used near synonymous collocation for Get in their L1, as they found "go" "and become" appropriate equivalent for "get" delexical collocation for items 1and 5 respectively. Laufer (1990) synonyms with similar meanings do not always have the same collocates.

Overgeneralization errors

Overgeneralization is to formulate rules based on their learning experience in order to apply these rules to new language materials (Duan, Qin, 2012). As predicted by the Full Transfer/Full Access hypothesis proposed by Schwartz and Sprouse (1994) Overgeneralization errors motivated by transfer of L1 knowledge. Due to overgeneralization, some students replace delexical verbs by one another freely (Liu, 1999).

For example: * Do the bed (make the bed)
* Do progress (make progress)
* Do action (take action)

(Item 18) میشود در حق من لطفی بکنید؟
Can you do me a kindness?
(Would you do me a favor?)

The use of generalization strategy is also found in Item (18) in which they incorrectly matched delexical verb of Do with noun phrases such as "kindness" instead of "favor". The reason for this type error is likely to be the fact that they are not aware of subtle differences between Make and Do, and that they are used idiomatically in many English expressions.

Item (3).بچه ها زیاد سروصدا می کنند
* Children do a lot of sound.
(Children are making too much noise).

(Item 10) سیگارکشیدن برای بدنت ضرردارد
* Smoking has danger to your body
Smoking do harm to your body.

In the example above (10), the target translation was "do harm″ which is the direct translation of compound verb of ضررداشتن in Persian native language. Persian L2 learners literary translated sentences and choose words based on their meaning, or due to uncertainty over appropriate collectability. According to White (1991) Overgeneralization errors are presumably more difficult to overcome since L2 learners would need to rely on direct or indirect negative evidence to restrict their interlanguage grammars.

Does noticing help the Iranian EFL learners enhance their knowledge of delexical collocation?
The results of the MC Namar test show significant difference between pretest and test considering p-value<05. On the other word teaching noticing delexical collocation made a great change in Persian learning delexical collocations.

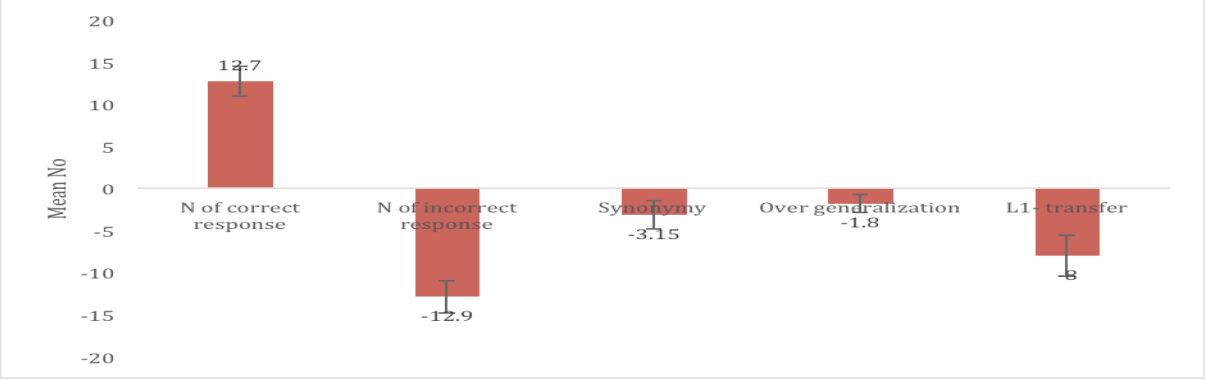

Figure1: summary measures in the change of study variables

The Initial mean number for the number of correct and incorrect responses were 7.5 and 28.5 in pre-test while the result showed improvement in post-test, the mean of correct responses increased remarkably (m= 20.2) while the mean number of incorrect responses decreased (m= 15.6) in the post-test. Tree deviations considered for all three variables, for example L1 transfer, synonymy and overgeneralization for each of Do, Make and Get delexical collocations to investigate the effect of teaching noticing on each of them separately. Findings show that explicit instruction was remarkably effective in decreasing the L1 transfer and synonymy. The result of overgeneralization errors was less than satisfactory.

Regarding the high mean difference of pretest and post- tests, the researcher claims that the twelve week instruction of delexical collocations was very effective in increasing noticing and learning delexical collocation. The result of this study can be taken to support the Schmidt noticing hypothesis that there is no L2 learning without noticing. The findings of this study are in line with Dorkchandra (2015) who confirmed the positive effects of noticing collocation on Thai EFL learners, in term of their collocational competence**.**

It is of paramount importance for Persian EFL learners to be aware of the existence of delexical collocations in their textbooks and to learn to identify them in the input they receive**.** Pedagogically, noticing delexical collocation should be the top priority in Language teaching classrooms. It is necessary that depth of vocabulary knowledge, including collocation knowledge should become a part of organizing principles in L2 vocabulary instruction so that L2 learners can apply them in their English learning process more authentic ways (Kim, Youngsu & Ma, Jee Hyun, 2012**).**

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In the present study, the analysis of the data revealed that noticing delexical collocations in test books affected the EFL learners' collocational competency positively and the findings further reflected that the treatment had been effective in the use of delexical collocations, and decreasing the number of the L1 transfer and synonymy errors. Persian EFL learner's tendency to avoid delexical collocations can be an indicator of their faint awareness of delexical collocations. In broad terms, they should be made aware of delexical collocations be given the opportunity to notice delexical collocations in their text books. Furthermore, the teaching of dexical collocations needs to be integrated with the teaching of vocabulary to avoid using isolated words. Underlying delexical collocations in text books and highlighting the differences between delexical collocations and their synonymous isolated counterparts can foster the development of collocational competency. The preliminary results presented in this paper, demonstrate that teaching noticing delexical collocations appears to be helpful for Persian l2 learners gaining awareness of the most neglected issues in L2 learning classrooms. Teachers should have vested interest in raising awareness of the value and importance of these structures in textbooks. The Findings of this research are in line with the Schmidt noticing hypothesis reviewed in the introduction. it can be concluded that lower level learners appears to rely on the L1 strategy while intermediate and advanced level learners make more overgeneralization that is the indication of progression based on developmental stage of learning

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MODERNIZATION OF JAVANESE PERSONAL NAMES IN LANGKAT REGENCY

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ABSTRACT
This study is concerned with modernization of Javanese personal names in Langkat Regency. The objectives of this study were to investigate the forms of modernization of Javanese personal names in Langkat Regency and to explain the reasons of Javanese parents choose their children's names as the way they do. This study was conducted by using descriptive qualitative method. The data were the personal names and the interview sheets. The technique of collecting data was observation and interview sheets. The data were analyzed by interactive model. The result of the study showed that there were four forms of modern names found, namely: names with a Javanese influence, western name elements, names with an Islamic influence and name with other influence and there were five reasons which were chosen by the parents to give their children's name, namely: tradition and family, international names, aesthetic values and positive meanings, current names and historical meaning. The findings of this study are expected to make modern Javanese names as a medium for discovering the 'living' thoughts and feelings of Javanese people as they continue to move dynamically up to this time and to be useful for the language planners which develop the modernization of Javanese personal names.

KEYWORDS :*modernization, Javanese, personal names, Langkat Regency*

INTRODUCTION

Language modernization is the process by which (a language becomes) the equal of other developed languages as a medium of communication. The modernization of language also occurs in giving personal names. Personal names may be derived from different sources and because of different factors and motives. Naming is a process of labeling persons or places whereby some meanings or concepts are poured into a linguistic form permissible by the phonological, morphological as well as the semantic rules of a given language system. The act of naming which purpose is to identify and modify the referent relies heavily, on borrowing in that the characteristics of a physical object and/or certain abstract concepts representing values and virtues are borrowed. In Javanese, for instance, a name is an important part of his/her life.

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Javanese is one of ethnic groups which spread, live and growing around north sumatera especially in Desa Pasar VI Kwala Mencirim. They have their own tradition in giving name to their children because name giving is an important process for them. Every name which is used by a Javanese should follows some kind of rules. However, many Javanese have only one single name and no surname.

Koentjaraningrat (1984:105) stated that name giving for a Javanese depends on the social status. Wibowo (2001:45) said that a name can be divided into one word; such as *Welasono*, two words; such as *Triwati Rahayu*, three words; such as *Teguh Jaya Santoso*. A name also can convey a meaning which the parents wish to, for instance a man who is given a name '*Slamet*'. The word *Slamet* means safe or be far away from the dangerous thing. Through the name there is a wish that the man can be safe and get bless from God as long as he's alive. Uhlenbeck (1982:372) stated that there are some patterns in giving a name in Java tradition, such a name is ended by *–em/–en* with *a-i-e* formulation, such as *Sarijem*. Another pattern, for example, a name is ended by *–i* to show that the owner of the name is a woman and a name is ended by *–a/–o* to show that the owner of the name is a man, for example: *Suwarno-Suwarni*.

From that view above, it means that in giving the name, Javanese follow some rules and they also insert their wishes through the name for their children. Their wishes are manifestated through the meaning of their children name. Javanese also give their children's name in one, two or three words. Javanese also give their children name by looking at their social status, such as using *Roro, Raden* and so on.

There is also relevant study that has discussed about the name giving in Java tradition and also its own meaning. Widodo (2013) found that the development of personal naming practice, ideas, cultural taste, and various other changes which are taking place in the Javanese society from one era to another. Based on the previous study above, a different phenomenon was found in the way of Javanese giving name to their children. It was found that Javanese doesn't follow the same way in recent times. The parents' names are in Java words but the children's names are not in Java words as well, for instance the father's name is *Jaya* which means glory while the daughter's name is *Rizka* which isn't used the Java word. It seems that there is development of the form and meaning of the name as a result of modernization in Langkat Regency.

It is also found that most of Java teenager is not given a name by following Java tradition. Their parents and grandparents do not keep maintaining to give a name by using Java tradition. The cases above show that there are shifts and changes in form, meaning, and function of Javanese names from one era to another. Relating to the cases above, the study focuses on the forms of modernization of Javanese personal names in Langkat Regency and the reasons of name choice that the Javanese parents choose for their children.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Personal name is a name that belongs to a person. A name can tell a story, history, incident, or event more clearly (Crystal, 1987). Also, a name is an imaginary history that can be used as a

reminder and a guide to limit a person's actions so that he or she does not act wrongly or inappropriately (Gardiner, 1954). It means that a name marks a person's identity and a name also contains expectations, prayers, and aspirations of a person's ancestors, parents, or the person who gave the name.

The name of a person has a different concept, with clear boundaries, from a noun. Personal name always functions as a particular underlying specimen. A name only identifies a person or an object. When a person gives a name to his or her child, in fact it is not giving a marker to the baby but to an idea of the baby. As stated by Gardiner (1954), Ullmann (1977), and Crystal (1987) that a name can become a label for the person to whom it belongs. Because in a particular time there are parents that giving baby's name instantly by remembering the object.

Javanese personal names are associated with knowledge, expectancy, prayers, particular occurrence, period and Javanese character in a complex cultural tradition frame. There are various meanings within Javanese personal names. From the linguistic perspective, there is a model that is recognized for understanding the meaning of Javanese names (Widodo, 2010). Javanese person may give his child the name *Gunung* which means 'mountain'. The word *Gunung*, in addition to its lexical meaning, also has referential characteristics as something that is 'high, grand, majestic, firm, dangerous, and mysterious' (which hereon will be called a referent). In relation with which referent is chosen, it is entirely up to the person who gives the name, as the party with complete 'power' over the meaning of a name given.

An interesting phenomenon – in the overall systematics of language – is that the smallest grammatical element which bears meaning is the morpheme (Verhaar, 1999). In studies the meaning of Javanese names, the term 'bearer of meaning' needs to be adapted. It is more accurate, instead, to use the term 'director of meaning' because when the meaning of a name is analyzed, there is the possibility that there may appear a main morpheme and an attributive morpheme.

The meaning of a Javanese name can also be discovered from the meaning of its different elements by looking in a dictionary of the same language source. There are a variety of different sources for Javanese names. For example, the names *Teguh, Wahyu, Waluya, Jati,* and *Dian* can be found in the Javanese dictionary. The names *Lucky* and *Pretty* are in the English dictionary. *Tantra*, *Suksma* and *Widya* can be found in the Sanskrit dictionary. However, there are also various name-related elements that cannot be found in any kind of dictionary.

According to Widodo (2010) the appearance of modern names has been strongly influenced by numerous factors, one of them is the development of private organizations operating in the fields of religion, education, trade and industry. Thus, modern names have developed alongside the spirit of freedom that is becoming increasingly widespread.

The modernization of names is the rationalization of idealism has occurred among parents who have expectations for their children's freedom and future. The reasons in choosing the source of names is considered by the increasingly high level of education, an accessible between cities and

villages, the less of institutional norms, and a modernization of religious understanding, all of these factors has been influence the changing in giving personal names.

The sources of name are increasingly varied which led to the emergence of the new name forms. Based on their forms, meanings, and functions, the names of Javanese people can be divided into a number of categories (Widodo, 2013):

a. Names with a Javanese Influence

The names in this category still show their Javanese identity. The difference with old Javanese names is that these new names include a strong literary touch which leaves a modern impression and more acceptable in the present-day context. Examples of these names are *Bima, Bramasatya, Lintang Linggartopo, Fitria Yuliani, Lina Endang Triswati, Nurul Putri Mildanti, Roymadlon, Eka Putri Mei Lani, Kurniawan Adi Raharjo, Anggun Nur Agustia,* etc. Name element such as *Yuliani* 'born in July', *Endang* 'daugter', *Eka* 'first born', *Kurniawan* 'son and gift of God', *Anggun* 'pretty and dignified', and *Budi Santosa* 'a strong effort' are closely associated with the Javanese language.

b. The Use of Western Name Elements

The use of western name elements is often based on the desire of the name-giver to create a 'modern' impression. A number of examples of western name elements that are used by the younger generation in the areas of Kudus, Jepara, and Pati incude: *Bobby, Sylvia, Ghina, Eric, Andre(a), Rico, Ivi, Evi*, *Benny*, and *Kevin.* Most of the people with these names or the people who gave the names state that western name elements are considered to be more modern and more competitive. The western name elements are believed to be a better means of communication in a more modern environment.

c. Names with an Islamic Influence

Names with an Islamic influence dominate the choice of names. Nevertheless, there are a number of different ways in which the names are written, as a form of modernization. It indicates that in Javanese personal names, there are also changes and shifts that have occurred as a result of modernization. In addition, in Javanese personal names, there are also changes and shifts that have occurred as a result of modernization. However, this modernization of names is limited to variations in form, without altering or adding other name elements to the Islamic names.

d. Names Resulting from an Updating of Modern Name Forms

The names in this category are names which in fact are already modern but which are then altered to form names that are considered more sophisticated or up-to-date.

Furthermore, Vakulla (2014) stated that in choosing a name for a newborn baby child is an act regulated by tradition and feelings, law and social expectations. The reasons for the name choice can be guessed from the name but the only way to know the reason why a name was chosen is by asking the parents. Vakulla (2014) mentioned four reasons of choosing the children's name.

a. Tradition and Family

Traditional and family means that the names patterns are often family-based; such as commemoration, hereditary names and connected names. In commemoration, the children's names are derived from something such as a special ceremony that is intended to honor an important event or person from the past. Hereditary names are names that run in the family, typically so that for instance a second first name is carried by all the male members of a family.

Connected names are names chosen to be similar, so that for instance the names of all siblings start or end on the same letter, or that they have a common theme.

b. International Names

Names can be in international words, both in meaning and form. Most of international names are derived from English, French or Italian. In the international names, the expansion of media at everyone's disposal has lead to a greater variety of names. Also the selection of borrowed names is based on the reputation of different cultural spheres. In addition, the selection of borrowed names is based on phonetic contact ability with the specific cultural customs.

c. Aesthetic Values and Positive Meanings

Aesthetic values and positive meanings are the most frequent reason given by the parents. Positive meanings here are not limited to the etymology or a linguistic semantic analysis of the names; parents might include etymology and semantics in their explanations, but they might also give other meanings to a name.

d. Current Names

Modernity and fashion are important for some parents when choosing a name for their child. Names that are very popular at some point in time become dated in the sense that they are associated with the period of their popularity. In comparison to the other themes tradition and family, international names and aesthetic values this theme is not the most important one for most respondents. The most frequently given names of a period become associated with that period and thus the names are dated for those who know that a certain name is frequent in an age group, assuming that most people with this name belong to this age group.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. How are the forms of modernization of Javanese personal names in Langkat Regency?
2. Why do Javanese parents choose their children's name as the way they do?

METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted by applying descriptive qualitative design. The source of data in this study was Javanese families in Langkat Regency. The data of the study were the personal names and the interview sheets gathered from Javanese families. The data were collected by observation and interview. The data were analyzed based on Miles, Huberman and Saldana's (2014) through three steps, they are data condensation, data display and drawing conclusion and verification.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, there were 38 personal names were taken from the citizen's ledger in Langkat Regency. Theoretically, Widodo (2013) argues that the names of Javanese people can be divided into a number of categories such as names with a Javanese influence, the use of western name elements, names with an Islamic influence and names resulting from an updating of modern name forms.

The forms of Modernization of Javanese Personal Names

Names with a Javanese influence

Based on the data, there were 12 personal names which were associated with the Javanese influence. Some names are described as follows.

Data 3 : *Dimas Saputra*

This name was influenced by Java language. *Dimas* means youngbrother while *Saputra* means a man.

Data 11 : *Reza Dwi Prasetyo*

The combination of name showed that there was a Java influence. Dwi in Java language means the second while Prasetyo means faithful. Reza is derived from Indonesian language which means a prince.

The use of Western name elements

A name – giver can also give the name by using western elements. It is considered that the names are more competitive in a more modern environment. It was found that there were 4 personal names which used the western elements. Some names are described as follows.

Data 5 : *Elsa Pangestika*

*Elsa*is influenced by the western element which the word is derived from Elizabeth.

Data 14: *Bobby Hidayanto*

Booby is influenced by the western element which the word is abbreviation of Robert. Moreover, this name is popular baby boy name in English.

Names with an Islamic influence

In this category, most of names were dominated by Islamic influence. The word choices were taken mostly from Arabic but of course sometimes it still used the Java words for the combination of the name. There are 7 personal names which were influenced by Islamic elements. Some names are described as follows.

Data 4 *: Bayu Akbar Ramadan*

From the child's name, it was showed that the word Akbar derived form Arabic which meant the Exalted and Ramadan derives from Ramadhan, month of fasting. The name was also combined by Java name, *Bayu* which means wind.

Data 8 :*Isya Tri Azzahra*

From the name, it indicated that the word *Isya* derived form Arabic which meant praying at night and *Azzahra* means smart The name was also combined by Java name, *Tri* which means the third.

Names with other Influence

In this category, it was new classification.some names were dominated by other influence such as from Africa. The name is described as follows.

Data 23: *Suci Ayu Khaesyah*

From the name, it indicated that the word *Khaesyah* derived form Africa which meant someone who is pleased. The name was also combined by Java name, *Suci Ayu* which means clean and beautiful.

Reasons of Name Choice

People have different reasons in giving name to their children. Theoretically, there were four reasons of name choice (Virkkula, 2014).

Tradition and Family

In Java culture, giving a name to the children is an important tradition. Javanese parents usually follow the naming patterns which are used in the family. In this study, it was found that there was only one parent began the children's name with same letters to make harmonious sound.

Data 5

R8 : *anak saya dua duanya perempuan. Namanya Elsa Pangestika sama Erda Pitaloka.*

R8 : *saya kasih nama itu karena keinginan mamanya. Nama mamanya Era. Jadi dia pingin anaknya semua dari huruf E.*

Aesthetic Values and Positive Meanings

Aesthetic values and positive meaning related to the names which have good meaning. It is related to semantic meaning. It was found that three Javanese parents used modern names because they like their children to have good meaning. It could be shown by the interview with the respondents.

Data 2

R5 : *nama anak kami Khumairah Rahma Dina.*

R5 : *khumairah itu kan panggilan Rasul sama Aisyah. Itu artinya pipi yang kemerah-merahan. Kalau Rahma artinya rahmat. Kami berharap anak kami cantik seperti Aisyah dan dipenuhi rahmat.*

Data 6

R1 : *Fitri Soleha.*

R1 : *Fitri itu artinya suci kan. Soleha berarti perempuan yang soleh. Harapan kami ya anak yang soleh, yang baik hati.*

Current Names

The fourth reason in giving name is current names. There were 4 Javanese parents chose this reason because they gave their children's names form famous people or fictional person. The data were obtained from interviewing respondents.

Data 7

R6 : *namanya Marcel Syardiansa.*

R6 : *karena saya suka sama Marcel, penyanyi itu. Saya harap anak saya bisa jadi penyanyi juga.*

Historical Meaning

It was found that there weretwo parents chose the other reason. The reason of parents chose their children's names was to show the moment when the children were born. Therefore, they gave the name for their children because of historical meaning.

Data 15

R3 : *namanya Dwi Ramadana.*

R3 : *Dwi itu artinya dua, karena dia anak kedua. Terus Ramadana itu karena dia lahir di bulan Ramadhan. Jadi biar mudah diingat momen lahirnya dibuat nama Ramadana.*

CONCLUSION

Based on the result of this study, it can be concluded that there were four forms of modern names in Langkat Regency, namely: names with a Javanese influence, western name elements, names with an Islamic influence and name with other influence. It indicates that there is new forms of modern names in Javanese personal names, that is name with other influence. In addition, there were five reasons which the parents choose it to give their children's names, namely: tradition and family, international names, aesthetic values and positive meanings, current names and historical meaning. It indicates that there is new finding, that is, historical meaning is a new reason of choosing children names.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to Javanese personal names in Langkat Regency. The researcher uses the theory from Widodo (2013) for analyzing the forms of modernization of Javanese personal names. In addition, the researcher uses the theory proposed by Vakulla (2014) for describing the reason of parents choose their children's name.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON PRAGMATIC TRANSFERABILITY OF GRATITUDE SPEECH ACT AMONG IRANIAN EFL/ESL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study tried to determine the extent of pragmatic transfer and its impact of individual subject motives that may influence pragmatic choice. Two different groups of learners participated in the present study including 50 Native Americans and 50 adult Iranians (25 native like Iranian in the United State and 25 Iranian EFL learners in Iran). Data were collected by using a questionnaire with a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) by Blum-kulka (1982) in order to examine the knowledge or competence of pragmatic functioning. Moreover, Interview was also conducted with Iranians to obtain an insight on learners' attitude about the target language. Learners' judgment of L2 pragmatic norms, the learners' perception of their own language and their attitudes of the learned language have a determining effect on language use. The findings of this study might offer implications that language educators need to recognize and plan for the different language learners' target goals. Being aware of the differences between native and non-native speakers helps the teachers to prevent their students from making mistakes.

KEYWORDS: Gratitude Speech Act, Pragmatic Transferability, Iranian EFL/ESL Learners

INTRODUCTION
Learning language, especially English is a necessary means for transnational communication and intercultural exchange. Learning language is an excellent framework for promoting cultural sensitivity among students. As Paulston and Bruder (1976) specified, for conducting efficient communication, the knowledge of linguistic forms is not sufficient. Speakers should have enough data about the public meaning of the linguistic forms or the knowledge of social guidelines for language use.

According to Byram, Gribkova and Starkey (2002), the major innovation of communicative language teaching is the fact that the learner should have not only the knowledge and skill of the grammar of the language, but also the ability to use the language in the appropriate ways in different social and cultural situations. In addition, Schmidt and Richards (1980) defined

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pragmatics as the study of how utterances are used in interaction, particularly the connection between sentences, the framework, and the condition in which utterances are applied.

One possible interpretation for some differences in pragmatic behavior among Iranian EFL learners may be accounted by the Speech Accommodation Theory (Giles, Coupland, & Couplan, 1991). Speech Accommodation Theory attempts to explain the nature of L2 speakers' linguistic variation (Beebe & Giles, 1984, Beebe & Zuengler, 1983). Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) state that the language function of expressing gratitude is used frequently and openly in a wide range of interpersonal relationships: among people, friends, foreigners, and with managers and assistants. Moreover, when performed successfully, the language function of expressing gratitude can create feelings of warmth and solidarity. Successful language acquisition involves understanding of communicative competence and sociolinguistic competence, which will lead to speak both accurately and appropriately (Canale & Swain, 1980).

It is believed that to communicate with speakers of other languages, learners need to be proficient enough both in linguistic and pragmatic aspects. Sociocultural norms and rules affect the way people communicate in their daily conversations. Moreover, Olshtain and Blum- Kulka (1985) stated that the empirical investigation of speech acts could be helpful in understanding how human communication is done through employing linguistic behavior. It provides empirical data for assessing the theories of politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987) and theories of intercultural communication (Hofstede, 1980). In addition, speech act studies contribute to be familiar with the social and culture norms that notify speech act comprehension in a given speech context (Meier, 1997; Richards & Schmidt, 1983). Moreover, speech act studies play an important role in the field of foreign and second language teaching and learning (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1996).

Based on the above-mentioned points about the importance of speech act in language learning, the present study aims to investigate the speech act of gratitude as realized by Iranian learners of English as a foreign language and native speakers of English. The focus of the study is to investigate how Iranian learners of English realize this speech act in English and how their performance compares to that of native speakers of English. The goal here is to find out if how pragmatic competence is developed and to help language teachers find more effective ways of promoting language learners' pragmatic competence. As a result, awareness in this field, helps learners communicate effectively with native speakers of target language while conveying their gratitude (Wolfson, 1983).

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Pragmatics generally explains how human beings make and comprehend meanings that can be derived only by going beyond the literal explanation of signals (Locastro, 2003). Miscommunication or communication breakdown is considered as one of the main results of lack of pragmatic knowledge. Moreover, pragmatic failure in Thomas' (1983) term causes a negative judgment of learners as having bad manners or bad temperament.

Expressing gratitude is one of the speech acts frequently used in interpersonal relationships between language users. The speaker has the feeling of gratefulness or appreciation and states his/her feeling by an expression of thanking or gratitude. Kumar (2001) highlights the importance of expressions of gratitude in the following words: Expressing of gratitude in the regular interactions between the members of society seems clearly to fall in the group of the "social" use of language. The use of the main instrument, which keeps the bonds between the members of a society, is the expressions of gratitude and politeness.

Speech acts are one of the key areas of linguistic pragmatics introduced by Austin (1962) and further developed by American philosopher Searle (1969). Direct speech acts are corresponded to the special syntax while in indirect speech acts, there is no direct relationship between a structure and a form but an indirect one, the speech act is consider indirect.

Pragmatic Transfer is defined by Takahashi (1996) as transfer of the L1 sociocultural competence in performance of L2 conversation where the speaker is trying to accomplish a specific function of language. Caused by pragmatically transferring their L1 sociocultural rules to the target language, pragmatic failure referes to the inability to comprehend a speaker's objective (Thomas, 1983). Scholars have suggested a relationship between pragmatic transfer and learning context, L2 proficiency and length of residence in the L2 environment, although transfer exists in both the EFL and ESL contexts, EFL learners rely on their L1 pragmatic competence when trying to communicate in the L2 (Takahashi & Beebe, 1987).

One of the factors for pragmatic transfer is training effect. Odlin (1989) claimed that transfer of training impacts not only a production , but also the comprehension of a foreign language that are as a result of the ways learners have been taught. Furthermore, SLA researchers have considered the role of proficiency in L1 transfer. Some claim that less proficient learners rely more on their native language than more advanced learners (Wenk, 1986). Other researchers argue that L1 transfer is more frequent among advanced L2 learners, who, regardless of near native L2 proficiency, still trust their L1 in some linguistic domains such as phonology (Klein, 1986). Zuengler (1982) suggests speech Accommodation Theory that was to account for some possible motivations underlying certain speech shifts in speakers' linguistic styles during social encounters. The theory attempts to explain the processes by which speakers strategically converge to or diverge from their interlocutors. As stated by Takahashi and Beebs (1987), convergence is a linguistic variation that speakers make to become more close to the speech of their interlocutors. On the other hand, they stated that divergence refers to an adjustment that speakers make "to become less similar to the speech of their interlocutor.

In psychology 'transfer' refers to any carry-over of knowledge or skills from one problem situation to another. The term 'transfer' is generally used to refer to the systematic influences of existing knowledge on the acquisition of new knowledge. People usually approach a new problem or situation with an existing mental set. Mental sets are largely determined by culture-specific knowledge (Holyoak & Thagard, 1995).

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Therefore, communication between individuals from different cultural backgrounds may be influenced by their different mental sets. In other words, it is the influence of learners' first language (L1) sociocultural and linguistic norms of politeness and/or appropriateness on their second language (L2) performance of communicative acts (Zegarac & Pennington, 2000).

Pomerantz (1978) observed that compliment responses of American English speakers are influenced by two cultural preferences: first, to avoid self-praise and accept or agree with the compliment. She founded that American English compliments often express taken acceptance or arrangement of a compliment while at the same time scaling down or refocusing praise. Searle (1969) defined thanking as an illocutionary act performed by a speaker, which is based on a past act performed by the hearer (as cited in Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986). Moreover, Leech (1983) describes thanking as a 'Convivial function' whose illocutionary goal coincides with the social goal of establishing and maintaining a polite and friendly atmosphere.

In addition, Eisenstein and Bodman (1995) has pointed out that expressing gratitude is a complex act, potentially concerning both positive and negative feelings on the part of the giver and receiver. They declared that thanking is a face-threatening act in which the speaker accepts a responsibility of the hearer as a consequence of threatening the speaker's negative face. They concluded that expressing gratitude involves a complex series of interactions and encodes cultural values and customs. From the time of birth, children are raised within a cultural background, and since culture is considered as an integral part of language, the development of socialization in the conventions of this culture occur concurrently as a part of language achievement (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984). Since the individual is socialized in one's native language culture from birth, much of his/her understanding of reality is founded in these early cultural lessons culture so thoroughly affects perception of the world and persons may be so thoroughly bound to their own culture that may be unaware that other ways of viewing life are even possible. Moreover, ways to view the world vary dramatically from culture to culture (Mizne, 1997). Cultural myopia is a serious problem in the use of language. For example, in the American use of compliments, the things that Americans compliments are a direct reflection of the values upheld in American society (Manes, 1983).

Americans usually support the novelty of things because novelty is highly appreciated in their culture. When Americans respond to a compliment, they frequently may show modesty by choosing to downplay that which is valued by society. In the case of novelty; for example, one can downplay a compliment on a dress by saying, "oh, this old thing?" using this response instead of simply saying, "thank you" by an American shows another American value, which is equality among human beings since the person receiving the compliment is making an effort not to be better than others. These procedures of using compliments may be quite confusing to someone of another culture whose values are different (Mizne, 1997).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Do Iranian EFL learners demonstrate pragmatic transfer in the speech act of gratitude in English?

2. Do Iranian ESL learners demonstrate pragmatic transfer in the speech act of gratitude in English?
3. To what extent does EFL learners' familiarity with L2 culture affect pragmatic transfer?
4. To what extent does ESL learners' familiarity with L2 culture affect pragmatic transfer?

METHOD

Participants

The participants were a total of 100 learners, 50 Iranians learners (25 students of English as a foreign language and 25 Iranians who have lived in the United State for more than 9 years – to prevent the culture shock effects) and 50 native speakers of English in the United State of America. The Iranian learners'age were from 20 to 30 while the native learners'age ranged from 30 to 50.

Instruments

The research methods that have most typically been used in Speech Act studies were written discourse completion tests, or "discourse completion tasks" (DCTs). In developing the situation, the roles and the relationship of the interlocutors along with the setting and the events were described. The questionnaire was made open-ended so that the informants could respond in any way they wished. All participants were asked to respond to each situation in Discourse Completion Task (DCT) questionnaire as if they were communicating authentically. It is worth noting that DCT were both in English and in Persian.
The other instrument used in this research is an interview to obtain an insight on learners' attitude about the target language. In this study, Iranian Participants were interviewed and asked why they chose a specific expression.

Procedure

Initially, the researcher selected 50 Iranian EFL learners and 50 English native speakers based on convenience sampling. Following that a DCT was given to the Iranian EFL learners. To this aim, the EFL learners were presented with the written situations and asked to read each situation, and imagine themselves in that situation and then write down what they would say in a real situation. In order to facilitate recall they had the interview immediately after the DCTs in Persian and asked them what they were thinking when expressing gratitude in each situation.

Statistical Analysis

The differences between Iranian EFL learners' expressions and Native American speakers were taken into consideration by the use of Chi-Square.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The researcher conducted a series of pertinent calculations and statistical routines and came up with certain results. All the data analysis procedures and results are presented and discussed in this section.

Table 1: Percentage of Answers by Two Level of Native 2 Group in First Situation

		question							
		Answer 1		Answer 2		Answer 3		Answer 4	
		Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Native 2	native	39	78%	6	12%	5	10%	0	0%
	EFL	2	8%	7	28%	8	32%	8	32%

Table 2: Chi-Square Tests; Difference Between Giving Gratitude by Natives and EFL Learners

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.054[a]	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	44.227	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	35.697	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	75		
a. 3 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.67.			

The result of Chi-Square Test showed that in the first situation, ($x2=38.05$, $df=3$, $p<0.05$), most Iranian subjects found it difficult to express gratitude because the professor is a person of higher status as a result they were highly concerned with effect of their language use on the interlocutors. Consequently, they tried to employ L1 polite gratitude expressions (about 32%) to protect their face. They believed that we have more variety of gratitude expressions in Persian than in English. They also mentioned that sometimes they simply found the L2 pragmatic norms not polite enough compared to those accepted in L1 communities.

Table 3: Percentage of Answers by Two Groups in Second Situation

		question							
		Answer 1		Answer 2		Answer 3		Answer 4	
		Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Native 2	native	7	14%	14	28%	29	58%	0	0%
	native like	1	4%	11	44%	13	52%	0	0%
	EFL	1	4%	10	40%	7	28%	7	28%

Table 4: Chi-Square Tests; Difference between Giving Gratitude by Natives and EFL learners

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	28.357[a]	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	27.298	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.350	1	.067
N of Valid Cases	100		
a. 6 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.75.			

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The result of Chi-Square Test showed that in the second situation 14% of native speakers' answers were in thanking group 4% of ESLs and 4% of EFLs 28% of (NS) thanked and complemented the person / action 44% ESL and 40 % EFLs 58%(NS) expressed surprise and expressed appreciation 52% ESLs and 28% EFLs. Only 28% of EFLs transferred expression from Persian Majority of NS expressed surprise but back to Iranian culture 40% of EFLs complemented the person/ action.

Table 5: Percentage of Answers by Two Groups in Third Situation

		question									
		Answer 1		Answer 2		Answer 3		Answer 4		Answer 5	
		Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Native 2	native	29	58%	6	12%	7	14%	8	16%	0	0%
	native like	8	32%	10	40%	1	4%	3	12%	3	12%
	EFL	2	8%	1	4%	3	12%	0	0%	19	76%

Table 6: Chi-Square Tests; Difference between Giving Gratitude by Natives and EFL learners

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	72.830[a]	8	.000
Likelihood Ratio	75.421	8	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	35.106	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.00.

In Iranian culture we usually exaggerate in expressing gratitude like in situation 3, ($x2=72.8$, $df=8$, $p<0.05$), one said "this has belong to you". As Iranian culture they tried to be polite and offer something that they have most of the time Iranian as a sign of gratitude they try to offer lots of things however they don't really mean it, just to show their gratitude they offer it.

Table 7: Percentage of Answers by Two Groups in Fourth Situation

		question							
		Answer 1		Answer 2		Answer 3		Answer 4	
		Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Native 2	native	15	30%	32	64%	3	6%	0	0%
	native like	6	24%	11	44%	8	32%	0	0%
	EFL	2	8%	5	20%	2	8%	16	64%

Table 8: Chi-Square Tests; Difference between Giving Gratitude by Natives and EFL learners

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	67.663[a]	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	64.193	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	37.078	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.25.

In situation 4, one subject reported although she could not come up with an appropriate expression right away, she knew that there would be differences between the two cultures in expressing gratitude. She added "I didn't know how to express my gratitude in a manner accepted appropriately in American culture". Nevertheless, she didnot want to apply Iranian expressions to the English gratitude in fear of negative transfer. Iranian people express gratitude so much that would be considered quite imposing in American culture which is not imposing in Iran. Situation 4, x2=67.6, df =6, p<0.05, %64 of EFI learners transferred expressions from Persian. Most Iranian subjects showed a tendency to use their L1 style. One Iranian participant said "Don't make me ashamed" or one said "Don't embarrass me please". American English native speakers did not use these expressions in this situation even once. They said they used these expressions because they have tried to be polite in English as they are in Persian. They did not know they were misusing these expressions 32% of native likes complemented the action how about only 6% of natives complemented the action.

Table 9: Percentage of Answers by Two Groups in Fifth Situation

		question							
		Answer 1		Answer 2		Answer 3		Answer 4	
		Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Native 2	native	50	100%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	native like	22	88%	3	12%	0	0%	0	0%
	EFL	2	8%	0	0%	0	0%	23	92%

Table 10: Chi-Square Tests; Difference between Giving Gratitude by Natives and EFL learners

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	67.663[a]	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	100.923	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	68.914	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 3 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .75.

In situation 5 (holding the door for the next person to pass, is something normal and polite in the U.S. (x2=67.6, df= 6, p<0.05), %100 of Natives thanked, only %8 of EFI learners thanked and %92 did not say anything. However, in Iran most of the young people even do not know or even do not get that they have to thank the other person, most of them passed and ignored the person who has held the door and most middle aged apologized and some expressed their gratitude. This lack of knowledge about the other culture considered rude in American society how about, most of people even do not care about this situation.

Findings of this study indicated that pragmatic transfer is indeed present in English used by Iranian EFL learners and their performance differed from the American native speakers' performance, which implied the effect of the L1 transfer. Iranians who have lived in the United State for more than 9 years demonstrated less transferring of expressions of Persians and most responses were like Native Americans. There are some factors, which have significant effect on ESL and EFL learners' pragmatic transfer such as motivation, self-handicapping tactic, English as lingua franca (utilitarian language), lack of dual competence, cultural Myopia, identity loss, pragmatic fossilization and variety in L1 norms. Based on this study, several factors had an important role in motivating pragmatic transfer such as learners' perception of their native language and the target language and how they identified themselves in performing English (their identity).

The other factor, which is important in learner's perception of their native language, is the length of residency in target language as they expand their knowledge of American culture. In fact, they compared their native form of expressing gratitude to those of the target (American) language. In some situations, which they thought how Americans express gratitude is less polite, they used their native form, instead. Such results seem to indicate that the understanding of the non-native speakers form the role of relationship in conversation is different from that of native speakers. They seem to rely upon their own culture of first language, i.e. Iranian culture where using conventionally more polite and appropriate words. On the other hand, other participants, despite the knowledge of how to express gratitude in L2, they intentionally transferred their native forms of speech into their L2 performance. They said, being different is not important and one actually like to be different, the pragmatic transfer may not reflect the learners' lack of competence in the pragmatics of the target community, in fact they were aware of this difference.

As the results in this study indicated, EFL learners had different goals in learning the language. That is, not all learners perceived their ultimate goal of learning to be native-like proficiency or assimilate into a society of English speakers. Generally, those who intended to get a job in the L2 community or to live in the target community were willing to follow the L2 norms, showing less pragmatic transfer in their language use. On the other hand, those who showed more pragmatic transfer generally had other instrumental purposes such as achieving academic goals or they had utilitarian purposes. However, those who did not want to live in the target community believed that there is no need to be perfect in English language skills pragmatically as long as it did not hinder the basic communication of meaning.

An individual point of view toward English as an international language is different. Some believed that it is necessary to acculturate to pragmatic norms of the target language. Others believed that English is not related to one specific culture, so there are no specific pragmatic norms for this international language. According to the findings of the present study, some participants desired to preserve their native identity while speaking English, some wished to present themselves as a second language learner or speaker for strategic purposes. They used their foreign language identity in order to receive better generous judgments from their native speaker interlocutors. Finally, impossibility to acquire native-like proficiency and the advantage of being a language learner are other factors that had a significant effect on pragmatic transfer.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of the present study can be effective for teachers, leaners, and material developers. For instance, knowing about such differences between native and non native speakers gives the teachers the perception to prevent their students from making mistakes. It should not be left unmentioned that teacher trainers and teacher educators may be well interested in applying the finding of any research like the present one for training teachers getting them familiar with such concepts as gratitude. Learners also can use the result of the present study to compare their own speeches with native speakers' and see where the problematic areas lie. Knowing these differences will help them to gain more appropriate understandings of English use. The textbook, for learners, is actually the major source of contact with the language after the teacher and the learners get fine percentage of their input from the textbook. If the learners are to be a good user of English they need to know the differences that happens in the speeches of native and non-native speakers. Accordingly, material developers could include the tasks and practices on the aspects of discourse that are necessary to learn for appropriate use of language. They can demonstrate the shortcomings of the non-native speakers and provide needed knowledge and required practices to overcome these shortcomings.

Limitations of the study

As with all studies, the present study had some limitations put restrictions on the generalizability of the findings. The first limitation of the current study was that due to availability and manageability reasons, the researcher could not randomly select the participants of the study. Thus, the findings may not be generalized to all populations of native speakers and non-native learners. Moreover, the age range of the participants of the present study was different. As for delimitations, the researcher delimited the focus of the current study on only the speech act of gratitude.

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INTERSEMIOTIC STUDY OF THE LINGUISTIC AND NON-LINGUISTIC SIGNIFIERS IN CINEMATIC POSTERS

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ABSTRACT
This research article aims at investigating the intersemiotic translation of Linguistic and Non-Linguistic Signifiers in Cinematic Posters based on a proposed taxonomy of different Inter-Semiotic Models such as Kress-Van Leeuwen (2006), Gastadello and De Zan(2013), and Herbert (2006) to find out how the visual images of the movie posters express the semiotic meanings inside the movie plots and to see which strategies were applied in transducting the signified concepts in the plot of the movies into the posters as signifiers. The corpus of this study contained ten prize winning movies along with the twenty corresponding cinematic posters. The comparative study of the linguistic and nonlinguistic concepts made it clear that there was a convergence between the visual images in the movie posters with their conceptual meanings in their corresponding movie plots. In this research, the transformational strategies applied in transductiong verbal concepts to the visual ones were preservation, Permutation, Deletion and Insertion. At the macro level, Preservation with 49.82%.and at the micro level Insertion with 25% occurrence were the most frequent strategies. As an implication, realizing the implied meaning inside the posters or any other artwork format is possible by proposed strategies. Authors proposed the use of pictures as a means of helping people finding implied meaning inside them such as cinematic posters for encouraging moviegoers

KEYWORDS: *inter-semiotic translation, sign, semiosis, social semiotics*

INTRODUCTION
The translation as a way of communication started by pictures on the walls of the caves because of surrounding our world with mediated images, image translation is a powerful tool for relationships. Jakobson (1966) stated that "Inter-semiotic translation (or inter-mutation) is an interpretation of verbal sounds by means of signs of nonverbal sign system" (p:233) and Kress & Van-Leeuwen (1996) identified that Signs appear in various ways; they can be written and/or oral words or any kind of sound or visual image. Semiotic analyzes the images in the visual means of mass communication, that is, cinema, television, video images, posters, magazine and newspaper advertisements may help us to reveal their innate meanings. Images are the central medium of information, and the role of language has become that of a medium of commentary.

Barthes (1964) points out that semiology analysis consists of two transactions. In the first transaction, the pieces forming the meaning are investigated. The second transaction, combining is related to the rules of bringing together. In brief, the person who makes the analysis takes the object, then divides it into elements and then combines them again. Considering the study of Barthes (1977) considering "The Rhetoric of the Image" as the basis suggested that the following transactions should be done in order to find the concept beyond the semiosis;

1. Defining or summarizing the message conveyed to reader/viewer,
2. Explain the key signifiers or signified elements,
3. Explain the paradigm exploited. Find out the signifiers forming the meaning,
4. Finally, determine the principle/core in the message or the text of the study (cited from Hacıbektaşoğlu, 2015).

As a matter of fact, the human being is surrounded by symbols, images, and various signs, in a way that he/she always have signified them and utilize in their communication. Umberto Eco (1976) states: "Semiotics is a concern with everything that can be taken as a sign.", and Kress and van Leeuwen noted:

The dominant visual language is now controlled by the global cultural/technological empires of the mass media, which disseminate the examples set by exemplary designers and through the spread of image banks and computer imaging technology, exert a 'normalizing' rather than explicitly 'normative' influence on visual communication across the world. (1996: 4)

Translation of non-verbal signs such as posters or photographs is a new kind of semiotics, so the analysis of movie posters is very important for aesthetic design for creating meaning inside the movie plots. The researchers purpose of this article was to enrich the theory of the inter-semiotic translation and filling a gap in poster analysis by considering the grammar of visual design based on the findings of Kress and Van-Leeuwen (1990-1996) and to find out how the visual images such as movie posters can express the semiotic meanings inside the movie plots by using Inter-semiotic translation criteria presented by different scholars. And also to perceive which strategies were applied in transduction of the concepts which were signified in the plot of the movies into the posters and signifiers.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The term semiology was apparently point by Saussure (1916) designate the" not yet existing" general science of signs (Engler, 1980) Saussure gave the following outline in semiology: " the science that studies the life of signs within society is conceivable, since the science does not yet exist, no one can say what it would be, but it has a right to existence. A place staked out in advance (1916, b:16). The core of Saussure's contribution to semiotics is his project for which general theory of sign systems which he called Semiology.

(Saussure's sign model is: the signifier (a written or spoken mark) and a signified (a concept so sign (word) = signifier /signified (Bressler, 2011, p:97).

Almost at the same time with Saussure, Pierce in United States explained the most important elements in the semiology and social semiotics. He categorized them in three concepts (Peirce 1931 P: 58). Representamen (A sign) which represents something interpret table for saying something about something Object (A semiotic object) is subject matter of a sign that s thinkable such as a quality event Interpretant (sense of sign) is the most possible meaning of sign that relates to cognition and familiarity with object (chandler 2007, p: 29 -43). The typology of sign categorized in this model are: likeness which denotes its object by virtue of a quality resemble or imitate object for instance: a portrait; Index which denotes object in actual connection in real relation for instance: smoke…. fire; and symbol which is a sign that denotes its object solely by virtue of the fact which would be interpreted to do so for instance: A word. According to Peirce, "semiosis is a continuous process that is based on the interpretation of one sign through another. Jakobson described this process as translation." (Krampen et al, 1987, P. 244).

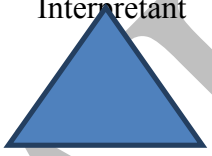


Figure 1: Pierce model of the sign

Hjelmeslev (1963) offered a unique contribution to our understanding of semiosis is his conception of the possibility of a semiotic to have multiple sign layers. He theorized them in terms of a distinction between denotative semiotic, connotative semiotic and meta linguistic semiotic. A connotative semiotic is a semiotic whose expression plane is itself a semiotic i.e. which expression plane consists of a content layer and an expression layer.

A simple semiotic, whose expression plan cannot be analyzed as a content expression constellation, is termed, in contrast, denotation semiotic. The counterpart of a connotative semiotic is called a Meta semiotic. Meta semiotic is a semiotic system whose content plane is a semiotic, i.e. it is a scientific semiotic (for example linguistics) A denotative semiotic is defined as a semiotic system neither of whose planes is a semiotic. (cf. Hjelmeslev 1963/ p: 114) Frank Lentricchia (1983, cited from Barthes, 1964) in his book "After the New Criticism" indicated that: "Hjelmeslev distinguishes three planes: i) *the schema,* which is the language as pure form the *norm,* which is the language as material form, after it has been defined by some degree of social realization, but still independent of this realization; the *usage,* which is the language as a set of habits prevailing in a given society. The relations of determination ' between speech, usage, norm and schema are varied: the norm determines usage and speech; usage determines speech but is also determined by it; the schema is determined at the same time by speech, usage and norm. Thus appear (in fact) two fundamental planes: i) the *schema,* the theory of which merges with that of the form" and of the linguistic institution; ii) the group *norm-usage-speech,* the theory of which merges with that of the substance' and of the execution. As according to Hjelmeslev - norm is a pure methodical abstraction and speech a single concretion ('a transient document'), we find in the end a new dicho*tomy schema/usage* which replaces the couple *language/speech.*"

(p.131)

Barthes' Semiotic Theory broke down the process of reading signs and focused on their interpretation by different cultures or societies. According to Barthes, signs had both a signifier, being the physical form of the sign as we perceive it through our senses and the signified, or meaning that is interpreted. Barthes also believed that every ideological sign is either a Denotative sign system or a Connotative sign system. A Denotative sign, which is a strictly descriptive system, is the result of the signifier image and the signified concept combining. A Connotative sign is one that has lost its historical meaning. This could be due to a number of things including: changes in culture or terminology, an event, or even just evolution (Cobley and Jansz, 2004).

Martin (1992: 495-496) drawing on Hjelmeslev (1961) work on connotative semiotic system, proposes that there is another denotative semioticsystem as its expression plane, that language functions as the expression form of register (context of situation), which in turn functions as the expression form of genre (context of culture). Genre, register and language function as the expression form of ideology, which is the fourth communicative plane that has the highest level of abstraction. This stratified model of context is represented in the following Figure.

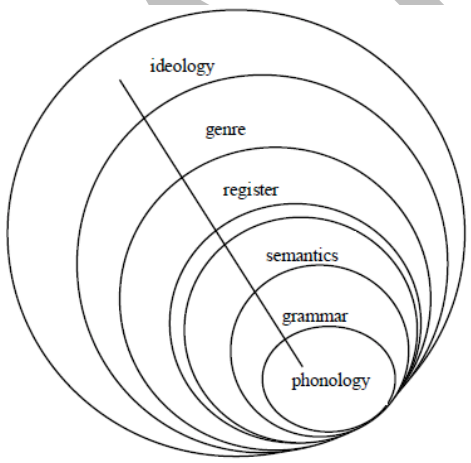


Figure 2: Language and its semiotic environment (Martin 1992: 496)

According To U.Eco (1976):" A design for a general semiotics should consider: a- A theory of codes and b-a theory of sign production the latter taking in to account a large range of phenomena such as the common use of languages, the evolution of codes, aesthetic communication different types of interactional communicative behavior and the use of signs in order to mention things of the world." (Eco, 1976, p: 13)

All system of elements such as syntactic, semantic and behavioral ones called "code" as a system. (Eco, 1976, P:33) social semiotics is an attempt to describe and understand how people produce and communicate meaning in specific social setting. (Kress & van-Leeuwen,1996, p.264) for finding out how images make meaning based on Kress & Van-Leeuwen these meta functions are

important: system, framing, people, places, and objects. The elements of this "system" are background, depth ,illumination.

One of the best film poster conventions (technical codes) explained by Maria Eugenia De zan and Daniel Gastaldello (2013). They believe: "Just like anything else, film posters follow a set of conventions in order to be most effective and success fully put across the needed information as well as entertainment for the audience." Furthermore " The usual, technical codes used in film posters are: 1- Film Title, 2- Tag line,3- British Board of Film Classification (Bbfc) certificate,4- Biling block,5- Back ground image (stars).

In the light of these models the researchers intended to investigate model for analyzing the cinematic posters and by using the technical codes which explained by M. Eugenia (article in New Semiotics, 2013) and testified the feasibility all of above.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1 - How can the visual images such as movie posters express the inter semiotic meanings inside the movie plots by using inter-semiotic translation criteria presented by different scholars ?

2 - Which strategies were applied in transduction of the concepts which were signified in the plots of the movies in to the posters as signifiers?

METHODOLOGY

Based on the objective of study the researchers randomly selected some famous plots and cinematic posters based on acceptable data adopted from the film International magazine and IMDb site and Ruttontomatos site, so winner's the Oscar award, and Rowzaneh film Guide: (1895-2009), B . Rahimian,2009). Here are the source material of this research:

No .1.one flew over the cuckoo's nest
No.2. Pan 's Labyrinth
No .3.The Message
No .4. The shining
No .5. The seven
No .6. The Silence of the Lambs
No .7. Inception
No .8.The Shawshank Redemption
No .9. Godfather1
No .10. Papillion

Finding the answer of the research questions the researchers had to choose different theoretical frame work. For clarifying the semiotic meanings inside the movie plots usingSaussure (1916, cited in Bressler, 2011)they applied Saussure's view which indicated that sign is comprised of a signifier and a signified, where the former is the specific form of the spoken word or phrase,

while the latter is the mental concept to which the signifier refers.so they tabulated their analysis of the plots of each movie separately based on the following table.

Table 1: Analyzing semiotic meanings inside the movie plots of each movie

semiotic code of language as linguistic signifier	Meanings as signified concept and nonlinguistic signifier

For finding the functional elements which are the signified meaning in the movie posters as their signifiers, the visual grammar of Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) was selected which provides readers with various perspectives for attending to and interpreting visual images. The researchers analyzed the semiotic code of pictures as visual nonlinguistic signifier and presented them in two tables.

Table 2: Poster analysis (Kress & van-Leeuwen, 2006) standards

Standards of poster analysis	Observed or not
1-foreground/Background	
2-marked sign	
3-color and light	
4-Directionality of information structure	
5-point of view	
6-Linguistic Information	
7-Mode of Representation	
8-Elements of movie/story	
9-frames /setting	
10-cultural References	
11-Bias	

The above table is going to answer the following questions based on (Kress, & van Leeuwen, 2006): What first catches your eye in the image, that is, what is foregrounded, and what is backgrounded? How about the size and scale of the image? Why are certain elements larger than the others? Does the larger element add to the meaning of the image? Are there any dominant color and what does it mean to the readers? How about the white space used in the image? How is the image framed, and how does this position you as a viewer, face to face, above or below, what does that mean? Are there any recurring patterns? Through the integration of lines, lighting, colors, contrast and gestures, what does the designer try to lead you to look at? What are the relationship between images and written texts?

For classifying and recognizing the meaning implied in the posters, the researchers used Gastadello and De Zan(2013) classification presented in the following table:

Table 3: Gastadello and De Zan(2013) classification of the way of recognition of implied meaning in posters

1-The Film Title	The film title is quite simply used so that the readers know the title of film.by this way they can get an idea of what the film is about (if the title has been chosen to reflect the film),also can remember it research it, find it, and sometimes people may be confused by a title.
2-Tag Line	It is usually used on a film poster to "summarize" the film in a short sentence. Or it usually is something fairly "memorable" and allows the reader to know more about the film without having to read the synopsis. They are short phrases which tend to be catchy and give away clues to what the film could be about it. (reinforces the genre) 3-BBFC British Board of Film Classification.It is important because it allows audiences to understand the "contents" of the film and for who is suitable adults, the. children, furthermore it has details about producer, director, etc.
4-Iconic Image	There is an image of" what can be assumed) which connotates something it has the atmosphere of film, links to genre. The audiences should be filled with suspence or tension or wondering.
5-Background Image	It connotes something such as stress, damage, color or anything. For instance the crack on the wall means: damage or stress or danger. Or red color means: blood, anger, love, fear etc.

The last theoretical framework used in this research belonged to Tools for Text and Image Analysis of Louis Hébert (2006) which was used for finding the transformational strategies. She proposed five basic transformational operations by which two entities may be related when one of them "originates" from the other (Herbert, 2006).

Table 4: Hébert (2006) transformational strategies used for Text and Image Analysis

Transformation methods
1. Preservation: both entities remain identical; 2. Deletion: an element is deleted in the transformed entity; 3. Insertion (addition): an element is added in the transformed entity; 4. Deletion-insertion 5. Permutation: the order of the elements changes in the transformed entity.

All together the researchers combined all the elements and applied them in analyzing the translation of Linguistic and Non-Linguistic Signifiers in Cinematic Posters. The concepts of the plots were analyzed based on the signifier and signified concepts of Saussure (1916, cited in Bressler, 2011). The transformation and transduction of those concepts to the visual signifier were analyzed based on the taxonomy of the Kress & van-Leeuwen (2006) standards and Gastadello and De Zan(2013). The transformation strategies were analyzed based on Text and Image Analysis of Louis Hébert (2006) using the following table.

Table 5: the analysis model for analyzing the translation of Linguistic and Non-Linguistic Signifiers in Cinematic Posters

No .1	**The movie title**			
Director	**Year of production**	**Made in**	**Genre**	**IMDb rate**
Plot Summary (IMDB)				
Linguistic signifier		**Non – Linguistic signified codes Acted as concepts**		
poster1		**poster2**		
concepts	**Poster codes 1**	**strategy**	**Poster codes 2**	**strategy**

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the questions of this research for finding the way that the visual images such as movie posters express the semiotic meanings inside the movie plots by using intersemiotic translation criteria presented by van Leeuwen (2006), as it was stated earlier, the researchers selected 20 posters from 10 movies tried to find the transformation strategies applied in translation of the linguistic(plots) and non-Linguistic Signifiers(poster codes) in Cinematic Posters based on the theoretical framework of this studyin this part of article just one of their analysis would be presented to make the honorable readers with the researchers analysis and then the general results of the whole work would be presented.

Table 6: The Intersemiotic Analysis of the Plot

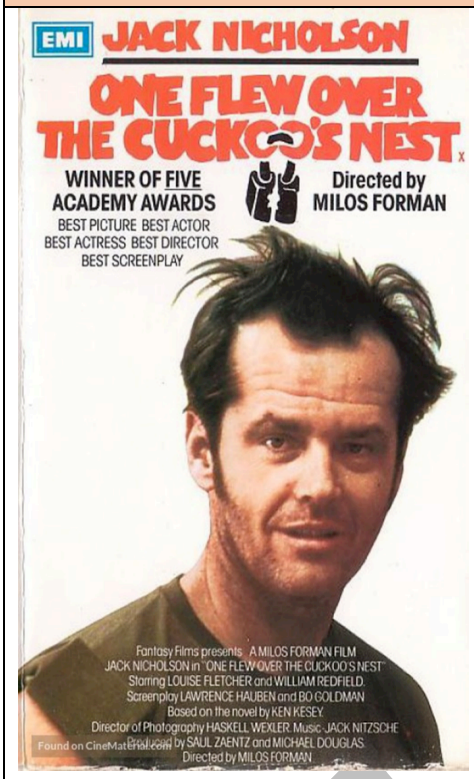
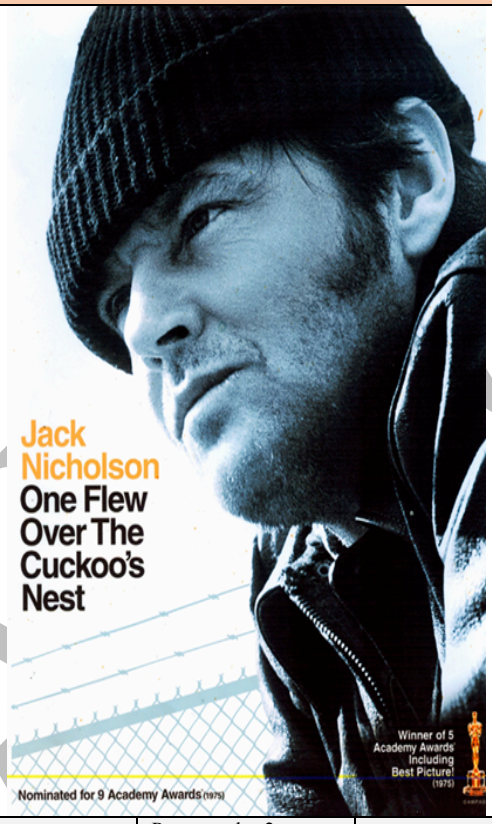
No .1	The movie title : one flew over the cuckoo's nest			
Director	Year of production	Made in	Genre	IMDb rate
Milos Forman	1975	U S A Studio: United Artists	Classics Comedy Drama	8.7/10
Plot Summary (IMDB)	One Flew Over the Cuckoo 's Nest With an insane asylum standing in for everyday society, Milos Forman' s 1975 film adaptation of Ken Kesey;s novel is a comically sharp indictment of the Establishment urge to conform . Playing crazy to avoid prison work detail, manic free spirit Randle P. Mc Murphy (Jack Nicholson) is sent to the state mental hospital for evaluation. There he encounters a motley crew of mostly voluntary inmates, including cowed mama's boy Billy (Brad Dourif) and silent Native American Chief Bromden (Will Sampson), presided over by the icy Nurse Ratched (Louise Fletcher). Ratched and Mc Murphy recognize that each			

	is the other 's worst enemy: an authority figure who equates sanity with correct behavior, and a misfit who is charismatic enough to dismantle the system simply by living as he pleases. McMurphy proceeds to instigate group insurrections large and small, ranging from a restorative basketball game to an unfettered afternoon boat trip and a tragic after – hours party with hookers and booze. Nurse Ratched, however, has the machinery of power on her side to ensure that McMurphy will not defeat her. Still, Mc Murphy's message to live free or die is ultimately not lost on one inmate, revealing that escape is still possible even from the most oppressive conditions.

Linguistic signifier	Non – Linguistic signified codes Acted as concepts
1-Insane asylum	1-A place for mental patients
2-Milos Forman 1975 adaption of Ken Kesey's novel	2-The name of director who won a lot prizes for his works
3-Comically sharp indictment	3-A bitter humor
4-Randule Mc Murphy (Jack Nickolson) Playing crazy to avoid prison work detail	4- Try for avoiding imprisonment to live freely and escape ultimately
5-Manic Free spirit Mc Murphy is sent to the state mental hospital	5-A wrong place for a free and wise person
6-a motley crew such as mama's boy Billy	6-a group of different and strange persons
7-The patients Presided over by the icy Nurse Rached (Louise Fletcher)	7-a good actress and a strict Person
8-Rached &Mc Murphy are enemies an authority Figure who equates Sanity with correct behavior and wants to dismantle the system by living as he pleases	8-Very bad and serious situation for being happy and he rebelled for happiness and routine entertainments in the hospital
9-Mc Murphy Proceeds to instigate group insurrections large and small a restorative basketball	9-Try to keep the patients free and fight for freedom
10-Nurse Ratched however of power on her side to ensure that Mc Murphy will not defeat her	10-She enforces all The time against the free spirits
11-Mc Muropy's message to live free or die is ultimately not lost one inmate revealing that escape is still Possible even from the most oppressive conditions	11-It's necessary to going on the fighting and keeping the fight against bad situations freedom is a gift

and also to answer the second question of this research and clarify which strategies were applied in transducting the concepts which were signified in the plot of the movies into the posters as signifiers the researchers following the framework of study tabulated their analysis presented in the following table:

Table 7: comparative intersemiotic analysis of the posters based on plot

One flew over the cuckoo's nest poster1	One flew over the cuckoo's nest poster2
	

concepts	Poster codes 1	strategy	Poster codes 2	strategy
1-A place for mental patients	1-Cuckoo's nest(Transitional place) in red color red as : danger with a broken lock The Title of movie white of movie white color in back ground of picture which for medical care.		1-Cackoo's nest (a place) white color in Background of picture as a medical center and ,movie title	preservation
2-The name of director who won a lot prizes for his works	2.The name of director as a Biling block in above of poster The word Fantasy as tag line	Preservation	No sign	Deletion
3-a bitter humor because of imprison ment	The word Fantasy films as Tagline	Preservation	The fences at the background blue color of fences as a symbol of sadness	Preservation Insertion
4-free spirit	4-Crazy smile / untidy hairs with bears/ an image of star in Foreground	Preservation	4-an image of star in foreground by a black hat (color) black: as a symbol (sign) of power, or un – happiness, anger looking to distance deeply. The image of star in foreground is above the fences at background	Insertion Insertion Permutation
5- A wrong place for a free and wise person	5-an image of star with weird smile in foreground white color in background	Preservation	5-He thinks about something and his face is sad in fore	Permutation

			ground a black hat -black color for despair/ -white color in back: hospital	Preservation
6-A good nurse(missRathed)	6-No sign	Deletion	No sign	Deletion
7-A good actress and a strict person	Tagline for the name of actress (best actress)	Preservation	7-Winner of 5 Academy Awards (Best actress)	Permutation Deletion
8-Very bad and serious situation for being happy and he ,s rebels for happiness and routine entertainments in the hospital	8-The image of star with messy hair – and a black lock above his head that's broken / his name above the movie title (fighter)	Preservation Preservation Preservation	Blue fences in background Image of star above the movie title Look at the far as a marked sign for going on his hope	Permutation Preservation Preservation
9- try to keep the patients free and fight for freedom	9-a black broken lock at the background	Permutation	Look at the far deeply	Insertion
10-she enforces all the time against the free spirits	10- No sign	Deletion	This blue fences behind the image of the image of the star blue : sadness, unity	Insertion Permutation
11-it's necessary to going on the fighting and keeping the hope as a gift	11-White color at the background as yes or good destiny	Permutation	White color at the background	Permutation

Here the findings are qualitatively analyzed

The most important items of plot:

Insane asylum is a place for mental patients, so there is a bitter humor. Mc Murphy tries to avoid of imprisonment he has a free spirit and try to escape (wrong place for a free wise person). Nurse Rached (rough and strict person) bothered him. then rebel, enforcement, fight … for keeping freedom and escaping is inevitable.

The most important items for poster 1:

Cuckoo's nest is pointing to a transitional place. red color for danger. white clothes for medical care. the name of director in a billing block. the word "fantasy" as a tag line. untidy hairs, beard, crazy smile in an image of first star in the foreground refers to insanity. Tag line for the best actress. A broken lock refers to freedom.

The most important items for poster 2:

Cuckoo's nest as a movie title.white color for medical care / innocence. blue fences above him refers to the dream, for showing the prison. looking at the far for showing the free spirit as a sign of hope.

The researchers presented the frequency and the percentage of different transformational strategies for translation of conceptual meanings in the form of linguistics and nonlinguistic signifiers in the ten movies as follows:

Table 8: Transformational strategies of inter-semiotic translation at the micro level

films	Louis Hébert (2006) transformational strategies of inter-semiotic translation of the plot to the poster							
	preservation		Permutation		Deletion		Insertion	
Title	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
one flew over the cuckoo's nest	9	6.25	3	4.76	4	6.45	1	5
Pan 's Labyinth	13	9.03	8	12.70	5	8.06	5	25
The Message	12	8.33	2	3.17	7	11.29	2	10
The shining	18	12.50	9	14.29	9	14.52	2	10
The seven	13	9.03	5	7.94	11	17.74	0	0
The Silence of the Lambs	13	9.03	9	14.29	7	11.29	4	20
Inception	16	11.11	6	9.52	6	9.68	2	10
The Shawshank Redemption	17	11.81	11	17.46	2	3.23	2	10
Godfather1	17	11.81	4	6.35	6	9.68	0	0
Papillion	16	11.11	6	9.52	5	8.06	2	10
Total Freq.	144		63		62		20	289
Total perc.	%49.82		21.79%		21.45%		6.92%	

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Considering the plot of the movies and the most transformational strategies of inter semiotic translation of the plot to the poster at the micro level the most frequent strategy belongs to the application of Insertion strategy in "Pan 's labyrinth" with 25% occurrence and also "The Silence of the Lambs" with 20% occurrence. The second frequent transformational strategy was deletion in "The seven" with 17.74% occurrence. The third one was Permutation in "The Shawshank Redemption" with 17.6% and the forth frequent transformational strategy belonged to the preservation in "The shining" with the rate of 12.50%. The following figures represents the above table.

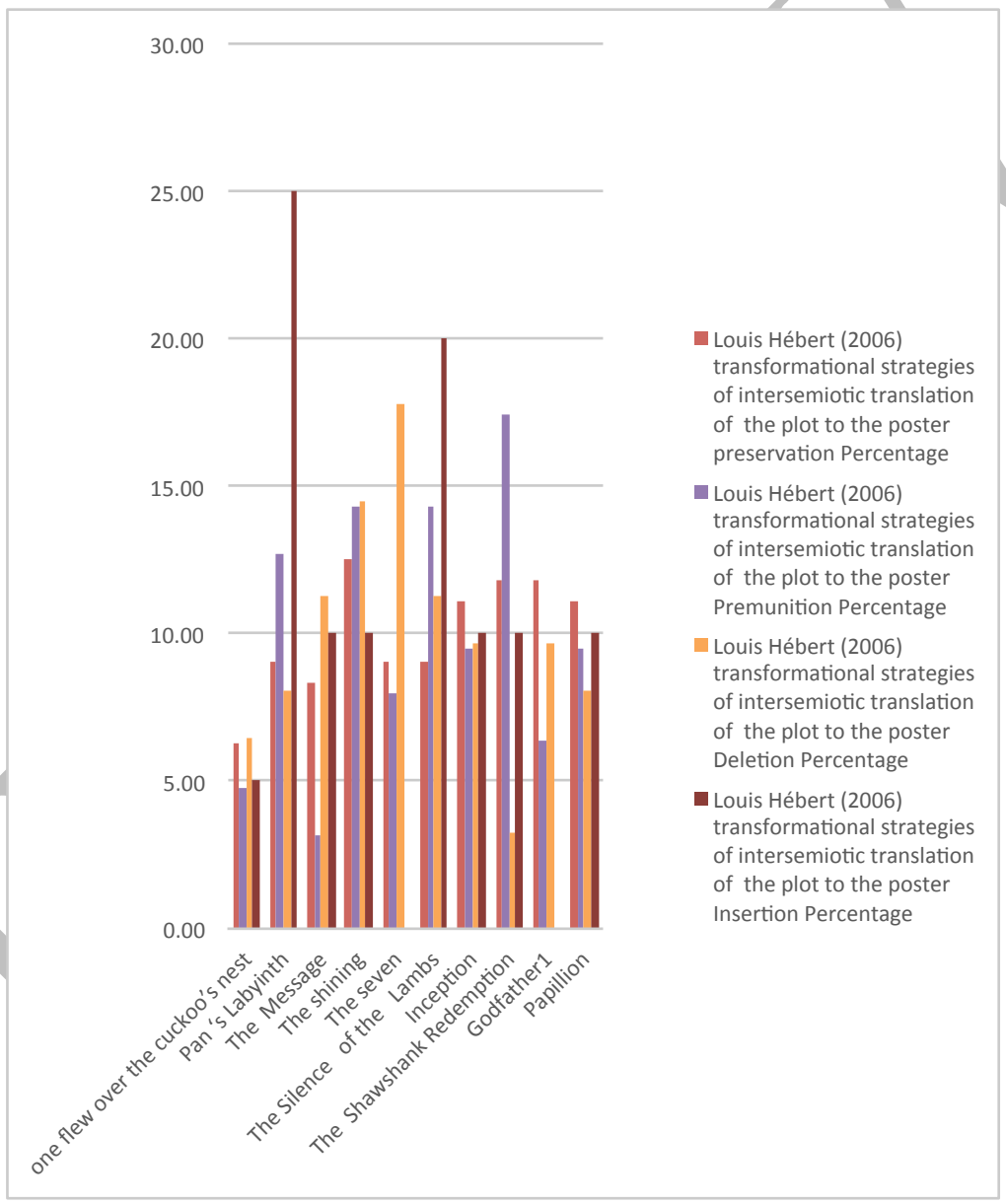

Figure 3: Distribution of transformational strategies of inte-semiotic translation at the Micro level

At the macro level considering the total percentage of the most frequent transformational

strategies of inter semiotic translation of the plot to the poster belongs to the preservation with 49.82% and then Permutation with 22%, deletion with 21% and insertion with 7% of occurrences.

Table 9: Further Analysis of Statistics

transformational strategies of inter-semiotic translation	Min.	Max.	Sum	Mean	Std. D
preservation	.00	8.00	44.00	4.4	.83
Permutation	.00	1.00	3.00	.30	.90
Deletion	.00	1.00	2.00	.20	.52
Insertion	.00	.00	0.00	.00	.56
Valid N (listwise)					

Considering range, mean and standard deviation of transformational strategies of inter-semiotic translation presented in table 9. We can observe that the movie poster makers are very conservative in inserting the signs to clarify the concepts most of them preferred to preserve the same linguistic signifiers in its nonlinguistic forms whenever it was not possible or may be based on their taste they applied Permutation or deletion strategies. The most applied strategy was preservation and the least one was insertion. The standard deviation clears out that there is a harmony among the movie poster makers in applying their desired strategies for transforming linguistic signifiers to nonlinguistic ones.

CONCLUSION

The researchers found that although different movie poster makers which produced each poster used different visual signifiers to clarify the meaning but in almost 99 percent of the situations they could preserve the verbal concepts in the form of visual presentation. Finding the strategies that the movie posters applied in translating the linguistic signifiers to nonlinguistic ones the researchers found Louis Hébert (2006) transformational strategies of inter-semiotic translation the most useful scheme in this research. She processed her data at two levels one for each individual movie plot and related posters which showed her that how different the movie poster makers can apply their schemes and at the macro level which contributed her a new insight which at the first look is different from the findings of the micro level. She found that the most frequent transformational strategies of inter semiotic translation of the plot to the poster belongs to the preservation which did not have the most frequency in transformation of each individual posters but has always been considered by each one of the movie poster makers.

The findings of this research was in line with what victor Burgin (1982) in “Talking Photography revealed. He declared that for Barthes language functions as a medium with relatively explicit, determinate meanings to which the "meanings" of images may on the whole be contrasted. Images "say" nothing--they are mute, they make no propositions about the world--and for that reason have been valued by modernist poets as a mode of meaning or apprehension that does not use discursive reason. To articulate this difference, he noted that images, like texts, have a

rhetoric of arrangements which signify the concepts, but there is no syntax that articulates their parts and binds them into a whole.

In answering the first question of this research "How can the visual images such as movie posters express the semiotic meanings inside the movie plots by using intersemiotic translation criteria presented by different scholars?" Analyzing the foreground/Background, marked sign, color and light, directionality of information structure, point of view, linguistic information, mode of representation, elements of movie/story, frames /setting and cultural references along with the film title, its tag Line, the Iconic Images and the background Image, the researchersconsidered the linguistic and nonlinguistic concepts which transformed the verbal and visual semiotic meanings, and concluded that there was a convergence between visual images in the movie posters with their meanings in their movie plots. In order to answer the second research question and decide which strategies were applied in transducting the concepts which were signified in the plot of the movies into the posters as signifiers, the researchers applied Louis Hébert (2006) transformational strategies consists of preservation, Permutation, Deletion and Insertion she found that At the macro level the most frequent transformational strategies of inter semiotic translation of the plot to the poster belongs to the preservation with 49.82% and at the micro level the most frequent strategy belongs to the application of Insertion strategy in "Pan 's Labyinth" with 25% occurrence.

In general, the researchers came to this conclusion that first of all, although different movie poster makers used different visual signifiers to clarify the meaning but in almost 99 percent of the situations, they could preserve the verbal concepts in the form of visual presentation, and then she found that images, like texts, have a rhetoric of arrangements which signify the concepts, but there is no syntax that articulates their parts and binds them into a whole, since each company has its own taste in transforming the concepts under the accepted and the most popular convention in inter semiotic translation of textual to non-textual signifiers in their field at that time.

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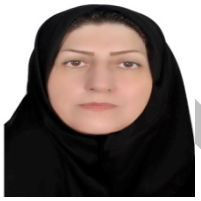

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