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

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

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

INTRODUCTION
Language is a multifaceted phenomenon which comprises of connected features. Each of these features has a role in learning. Second language learning research may help language teachers to choose the most appropriate teaching methods, the construction of teaching materials, and the design and execution of teaching techniques (Cook, 1991, p. 2). An overall aspect of language is that individuals generate new combinations and listeners have no or slight trouble comprehending them (Wisniewski & Love, 1998). All languages in the world make use of collocations. As Ellis (1997) puts it "collocation is a very important principle underlying the structure of language and

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accounting for much of its patterning and connections. Larson (1984) considers that recognizing which words go together is a significant portion of comprehending a text. Simple concepts are denoted by single words such as "apple", "fruit". But simple concepts make only a small fraction of our conceptual repertoire. Most of our concepts are "composite", that is they are denoted by more than one word such as "red fruit" (Smith, 1988).

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

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

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

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

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

LITERATURE REVIEW

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

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

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

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

Conceptual Combination

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

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

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

Realizing how individuals join concepts is significant for many reasons. Firstly, joining familiar language terms into new combinations is a normal method to spread a language (Downing,1977).

Such phrases often apprehend the shifting features of actuality. Doorway smoker, notebook computer, and drug dog are some new instances in dominant print. Downing (1977) advocates that the making new arrangements "works as the back door into the lexicon".

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

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

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

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

Subsequently, a second category of models implies noun- noun combinations meaning as connecting a relationship between the two nouns. One method has been to develop a categorization scheme of relationships. A small set of nonconcrete relationships shape familiar, lexicalized groupings by the help of a diversity of linguistic interpretations of nominal compounds. (Kay & Zimmer, 1976; Gleitman & Gleitrnan,1970; Levi, 1978). For instance, Levi (1978) recognized16 abstract relationships that can be used to categorize the implications of numerous familiar groupings, containing the IN, CAUSE ,and MAKE relation combinations like, mountain stream, electric shock, and honey bee. Newly, the psychological rationality of these abstract relationships have been scrutinized by researchers (Coolen, van Jaarsveld, Schreuder, 1991; Gagne & Shoben, 1993).For instance, Gagne and Shoben (1993) advocate a significant, first phase in the clarification of a noun-noun phrase is the initiation of these nonconcrete relationships. This conclusion was descended from studies including new combinations that were categorized along with Levi's taxonomy (Wilkenfeld & Ward, 2001).

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

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

Schema Modification Theory (Murphy, 1988, 1990)

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

The CARIN Theory

The CARIN theory (Gagne & Shoben1997) accepts that the conceptual combination includes the collection of thematic relationship that designates the way modifier and head noun are associated. This assumption started at least in 1892: "In the English language, it is very common to name a thing, or express an attribute or assert an action or manner of action by ignoring insignificant or connecting parts of a full expression, and using only the principle elements in more or less subjective association and frequently in inverted order" (Teall, 1892, p. 5). For instance, we utilized clock box in place of 'box for clocks', or table cover instead of 'cover of a table'. Kay and Zimmer (1976, p.79) and several others approved this view (e.g., Lees, 1963; Gleitman & Gleitman, 1970; Downing, 1977; Levi, 1978; Warren, 1978).

In line with Levi's (1978) approach, the CARIN theory approves thematic relationships as overall rather than specific entity. The choice of the relationship "head noun LOCATED modifier" formulates the source for comprehending the combination mountain laurel.

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

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

The Dual-Process Theory

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

The relationship connecting procedure is close to the schema-modification theory as it includes " a slot to be filled in the head noun concept with the modifier concept" (Wisniewski, 1996, pp.

448-449). Therefore, this procedure is reasonably dissimilar to the procedure defined in the CARIN theory. Though there has been indication for the use of relationships through theoretical combinations (Gagne, 1999; Gagne, & Shoben, 1997; Gerrig & Murphy,1992), problems are existed to associate with the relationship-connecting procedure as it is offered in the dual-process theory. Since the relationship-connecting procedure catches a lot of its representative expectations from schema-modification theory, it receives the difficulties related with this former theory (Gagne, 1999; Gagne & Shoben, 1997).

Interpretation of Conceptual N-N Combinations

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

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

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

Collocational Competence

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

RESEARCH QUESTION

The question posed in this study is as follow:"What is the effect of the development of collocational knowledge on the interpretation of conceptual nouno-noun combinations?"
Regarding the above – mentioned research question, the following null hypothesis was proposed to be tested in this study.

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

METHODOLOGY

Subjects and materials

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

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

The Collocation test included two sections: a) fill-in-the-blank items. This section included 20 items and the subjects were required to supply an appropriate collocate which best completed each item. b) Multiple-choice items. This section included 20 multiple-choice items. Each item consisted of an incomplete sentence. This incomplete sentence was followed by four options. The subjects were asked to mark the correct option on the answer This test was adinistered to check the subjects' knowledge of the English collocations. This test was developed by the researcher. The split- half technique was used in order to determine the internal consistency of the collocation test, and its overall reliability was r= .85.Conceptual N-N Combination Test included 25 multiple-choice items. The subjects received one mark for each correct answer. It should be mentioned that the collocation test had 40 items. And the conceptual combination had 25 items. There was no penalty for wrong answers.

Procedure

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

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

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

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

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

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Both Groups on the Pretest

Group	Number	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Experimental	30	28.47	4.041	19	36
Control	30	28.40	5.062	20	39

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Both Groups on the Post-test

Group	Number	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Experimental	30	17.80	3.458	12	23
Control	30	14.93	4.034	8	22

Inferential Statistics

In order to determine the distribution of the differences between the means of the two groups and whether or not there was any significant difference between the performance of, the subjects on the pretest and posttest, the following inferential statistics were obtained.

T-test Results

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

Table 3: t- test Results on the Pretest

Group	No.	df	tobs.	p
Experimental	30	58	.056	0.955
C Control	30			

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

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

Table 4: t- test Results on the Posttest

Group	No.	df	tobs.	p
Experimental	30	58	2.955	0.005
C Control	30			

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

Discussion

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CONCLUSION

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

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

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

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

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

Limitations of the study

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

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

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

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

INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

LITERATURE REVIEW

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

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

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

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

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

RESEACRH QUESTIONS

1. Which one of the computer engineering professor or the computer engineer with translation training, is able to translate the texts with less lexical, textual and syntactic Errors on the Basis of House's Taxonomy of Field?
2. 1. What are the most frequently Errors of two technical translators in the taxonomy of field?

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METHODOLOGY

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

The Corpus and Data Collection Procedures

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

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

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

Data Analysis Procedures

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

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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

1- No Explanation of technical terms

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

(1) ST: In fact, the “people factor” is so important that the Software Engineering Institute has developed a <u>people management capability maturity model</u>, “to...
(pressman, 2001: 56)
(A) TT :

در واقع عامل نیروی انسانی آنجنان مهم است که انستیتوی مهندسی نرم افزار یک مدل تکامل توانایی افراد را توسعه داده است تا...

(salkhordeh,2013:544)
Also on the translation B, some abbreviations which are not explained in the source text, are not explained in the translation, as can be seen for technical term "DES" . This abbreviation need more explanation to increase clarity of target text.

2- Transfer Errors of specific English names and terms

Most specific English names and terms has been transferred by English alphabet instead of following Persian alphabet in the target text.
As an example consider John Reel in examples below for translation A .the suggested appropriate translation is "جان ریل".
(1)ST: In an excellent paper on software projects, John Reel defines ten signs that indicate that an information systems project is in jeopardy.:
(pressman, 2001: 71)
(A) TT:
در یک مقاله در مورد پروژه های نرم افزاری John Reel ده علامت را تعریف می کند که نشان دهنده ی پروژه های سیستم های اطلاعاتی در معرض خطر می باشند.
(salkhordeh,2013:557)
On the translation B, some foreign loan words have been transferred to the target text through English alphabet, too. as an example: "misfeasor"," CERT" and" base-rate fallacy".

3- Use of Foreign loan words for general words

The use of foreign loan word makes the text seem rather formal. A Persian word is always easier to understand than a foreign loan word. It's not intended to say that foreign loan words should be ignored in technical texts. Obviously, they only need to be used in translation, if there is no equivalent Persian term available.
As an example consider instances below in which the translator has chosen to use the foreign loan word ریسک instead of the suggested equivalent Persian word خطر in translation A:
(1) ST: A manager who fails to encourage comprehensive customer communication early in the evolution of a project risks building an elegant solution for the wrong problem.
(pressman, 2001: 71)
(A) TT:
مدیری که قادر به ایجاد رغبت در مشتری برای برقراری ارتباط در اوایل دوره تکامل پروژه نباشد،ریسک بزرگی را برای ایجاد یک راه حل مناسب برای مسئله نادرستی پذیرفته است.

(salkhordeh,2013:557)
On the translation B, some of general English words have been transferred to the target text instead of using the Persian equivalent. As an example consider instances below for ST word "collection" and TT word "کلکسیون". the appropriate suggested translation is "مجموعه".
(2) ST: Clandestine user: An individual who seizes supervisory control of the system … to suppress audit collection (Stallings, 2007:307)
(B) TT:

کاربر مخفی : شخصی که کنترل سرپرستی سیستم را به سرقت می برد ... متوقف کردن کلکسیون نظارت استفاده می کند.

(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:336)

4- Omission of Word, phrase and paragraph

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

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

(pressman, 2001: 70)

(A) TT:

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

(salkhordeh,2013:556)

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

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

(Stallings, 2001:311)

(B) TT:

1.کلمه های عبور استفاده شده برای حساب های استانداردی که توسط سیستم ایجاد می شود،بررسی می شوند.بسیاری از سرپرستان ،این پیش فرض ها را تغییر نمی دهند.

(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:338)

5- Addition of lexical items, sentences and paragraphs

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

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

(pressman, 2001: 57-58)

(A) TT:

<u>حدود 50 درصد تاخیر یا زیر 35 درصد دوباره کاری داشتنددر حالی که 175مورد از تاخیرها و دوباره کاریها عمده بودن یا بدون کامل شدن خاتمه یافته اند.</u> گرجه نرخ موفقیت پروژه های نرم افزاری تا حد زیادی ارتقاء یافته است ونرخ شکست پروژه ها بیشتر از حد انتظار می باشد.

(salkhordeh,2013:545)

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

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

(Stallings, 2001:309)

(B) TT:

یکی از نتایج آشنایی بیشتر با مسئله نفوذگر ،تاسیس تعدادی تیم پاسخ اضطراری است...هکر ها می توانند به گزارشهای تیم پاسخ اضطراری دستیابی داشته باشند.<u>در حادثه تکزاس ،تحلیلهای بعدی نشان داد که هکرها برنامه هایی نوشتند تا ...</u>

(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:337)

6- Lexical, phrase and sentence mistranslations

Correctness or accuracy of information is really crucial in the technical text, therefore there is no room for mistranslations. Unfortunately there were much cases of lexical mistranslations in the translation A and B. As an example consider instances below in which the translator A has mistranslated the underlined words. The appropriate suggested translation is "منطقی و معقولانه نیستند".

(1) ST: Deadlines are unrealistic. (pressman, 2001: 72)

(A) TT : مهلت ها مشخص نیستند. (salkhordeh,2013:557)

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

(2)ST: Even if the detection is not sufficiently timely to preempt the intruder, the sooner that the intrusion is detected, the less the amount of damage and the more quickly that recovery can be achieved .

(Stallings, 2007:312)

(B) TT:

حتی اگرنفوذگری در زمان شروع تشخیص داده نشود،هرچه زودتر تشخیص داده شود ،میزان خرابی کمتر خواهد بودو ترمیم سیستم بهتر صورت می گیرد.

(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:340)

7- No split of long lengthy Persian sentences to shorter ones

The long length of sentences lessen the readability of Persian expository texts and may make the text unclear. Since readability and clarity are important issues in technical translation, it is better to split the long English sentences to short ones in Persian language. As an example consider instances below in which the translator A has translated the long source text sentence to two shorter sentences in the target text to enhance readability of the text.

(1) ST: The people management maturity model defines the following key practice areas for software people: recruiting, selection, performance management, training, compensation, career development, organization and work design, and team/culture development. (pressman, 2001: 56)

(A) TT:

(1).مدل تکامل توانایی افراد این زمینه های کلیدی تجربه را برای افراد نرم افزاری تعریف می کند

سرپرستی،ارتباط و هماهنگی،محیط کاری،مدیریت کارایی،آموزش،خنثی سازی ،تحلیل رقابت و توسعه ،توسعه شغلی،توسعه گروه کاری،توسعه فرهنگ تیمی و موارد دیگر [می باشند]. (2)

(salkhordeh,2013:544)

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

(2)ST: A simple example of the type of rules that can be used is found in NIDX, an early system that used heuristic rules that can be used to assign degrees of suspicion to activities. (Stallings, 2007:318)

(B) TT:

(1).مثال ساده ای ازنوع قوانینی که می توانند مورد استفاده قرار گیرند،دراندیکس یافت می شود

اندیکس سیستم اولیه ای است که از قوانین اکتشافی استفاده کردکه می تواند درجه هایی از شک رابه فعالیت ها نسبت دهد.(2)(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:347)

8- source text syntactic interference in to the target text

Interference refer to using English grammar in to the Persian translation. obviously it diminish the reader comprehension and need to be avoided in translation. Unfortunately, it is find much cases of source text interferences to the target text that lower clarity of technical translation for Persian readers. As an example consider the underlined clause below in which the translator attained the word for word translation that resulted to source language interference in the target text. The appropriate suggested translation is "وقت به قدری تنگ است.".

(1)ST: If the deadline is so tight that full functionality cannot reasonably be delivered, an incremental strategy might be best .(pressman, 2001: 70)

(A) TT:

اگرمهلت ها آنچنان ثابت هستند که عملکرد و وظایف کامل قابل ارائه نمی باشد،استراتژی افزایشی بهترین است.

(salkhordeh,2013:556)

Below, On the translation B, the translator missed to find the appropriate Equivalent. The appropriate suggested translation is "در":

(2)ST: With a centralized architecture, there is a single central point of collection and analysis of all audit data. (Stallings, 2007:320)

(B) TT:

با معماری متمرکز ،یک نقطه مرکزی از کلکسیون و تحلیل تمام داده های حسابرسی وجود دارد.

(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:350)

9- Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text

Strong textual cohesion is demanded in translation, contributing to the readability of the source text. The source text wide used cohesive devices included: repetition, anaphoric and cataphoric reference , enumeration , iconic linkage ,transitions , synonymy. As an example consider instances below in which the translator couldn't retain the same kind of Repetition in translation A:

(1) ST Effective software project management focuses on the four P's: **p**eople, **p**roduct, **p**rocess, and **p**roject.(pressman, 2001: 56)

(A) TT:

مدیریت موثر پروژه نرم افزاری بر چهار مولفه تاکید دارد:افراد،محصول،فرایند و پروژه .

(salkhordeh,2013:543)

Below, On the translation B, the translator has slightly reduced the Repetition of some compounds. The three noun compounds, "typical behavior", "intruder behavior" and" false positives", has repeated for two times. Observations show that in the target text, comparatively there is two times repetitions for the noun compounds رفتار معمولی and رفتار نفوذگر but it is find the slightly change in the noun compound مثبت نادرست to change it to مثبت های نادرست. So it seems that the translator has used slightly less repetition in the target text.

(2)ST: Although the typical behavior of an intruder differs from the typical behavior of an authorized user, there is an overlap in these behaviors. Thus, a loose interpretation of intruder behavior, which will catch more intruders, will also lead to a number of "false positives," or authorized users identified as intruders. On the other hand, an attempt to limit false positives by a tight interpretation of intruder behavior will lead to an increase in false negatives, or intruders not identified as intruders. (Stallings, 2007:312)

(B) TT:

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اگر چه رفتار معمولی نفوذگر متفاوت از رفتار معمولی کاربر مجاز است،این رفتارها همپوشانی دارند.بنابراین ،تفسیر ضعیف از رفتار نفوذگر ،منجر به تعدادی مثبت نادرست می شود یا موجب می گردد کاربران مجاز به عنوان نفوذگر معرفی گردند.از طرف دیگر،تلاش برای محدودکردن مثبت **های** نادرست ازطریق تفسیرضعیف رفتارنفوذگر،منجر به افزایش منفی های نادرست یا عدم شناخب آنها می شود.

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

(jafarnejad-e-ghomi,2009:340)

Frequency of the nine Errors according to the Field taxonomy Errors for each one of the related features are included below, in Table (2), according to source language-target language excerpts analysis :

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

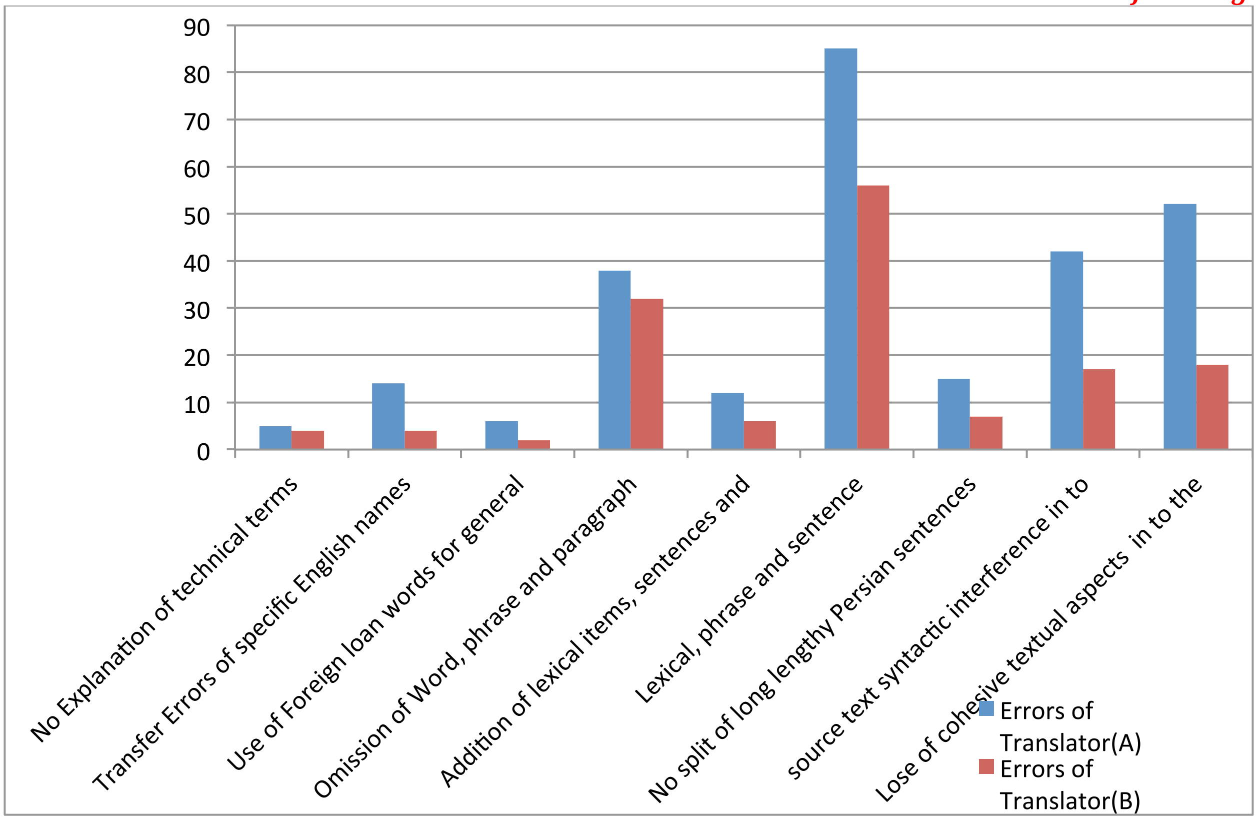

Chart 1: Comparison of Field Errors

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

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According to the number 2 Error of translation A and number 3 Error of translation B, Lose of cohesive textual aspects in to the target text contain 20 and 12 percent of failures. Cohesion of the text increase readability and connect sentences and paragraphs in to the linked network of content. After that, source text syntactic interference in to the target text, place number 3 Error of translation A by 15% and number 4 Error of translation B by 11%. Source text syntactic interference need to be diminished in the target text through Persian syntactic consideration in the target text. Shortly it is needed more concentration on mistranslation Errors, textual cohesion and Source Text syntactic interference, if any technical translator has decided to remove over 50% of translation Errors frequency , based on the above mentioned analysis.

CONCLUSION

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

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

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

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

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

Limitation of the study

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

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

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

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

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

relationships are essential for engaging students in learning activities (Brekelmans, Sleegers, & Fraser, 2000). Teachers' interpersonal behavior has been a popular research topic in teacher education. Though, little research within this area has been done within the context of high schools and language institutes in Iran.

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

LITERATURE REVIEW

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

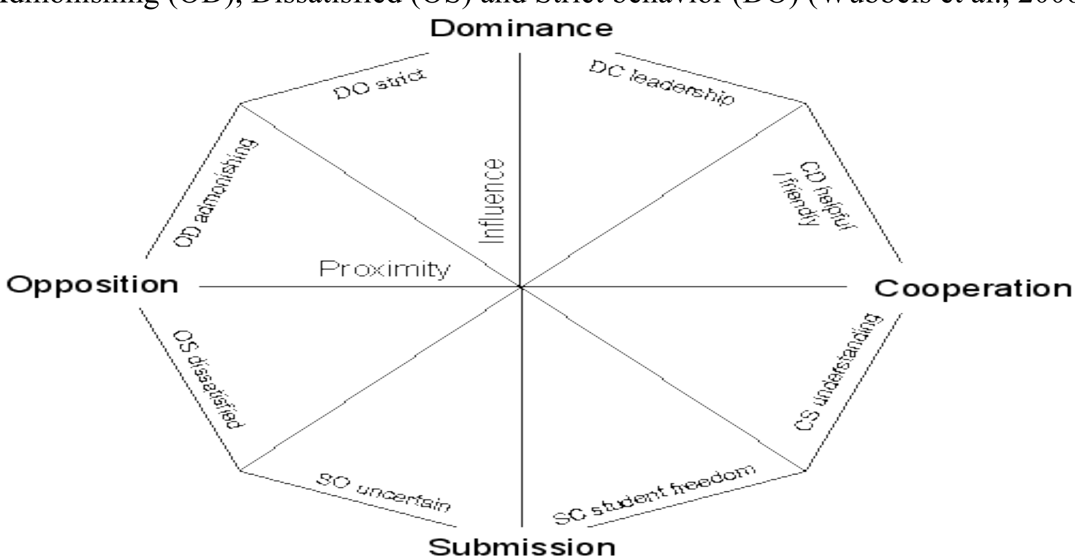

Fig1: Model for Interpersonal Teacher Behavior (MITB) (Wubbels & Levy, 1993)

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

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

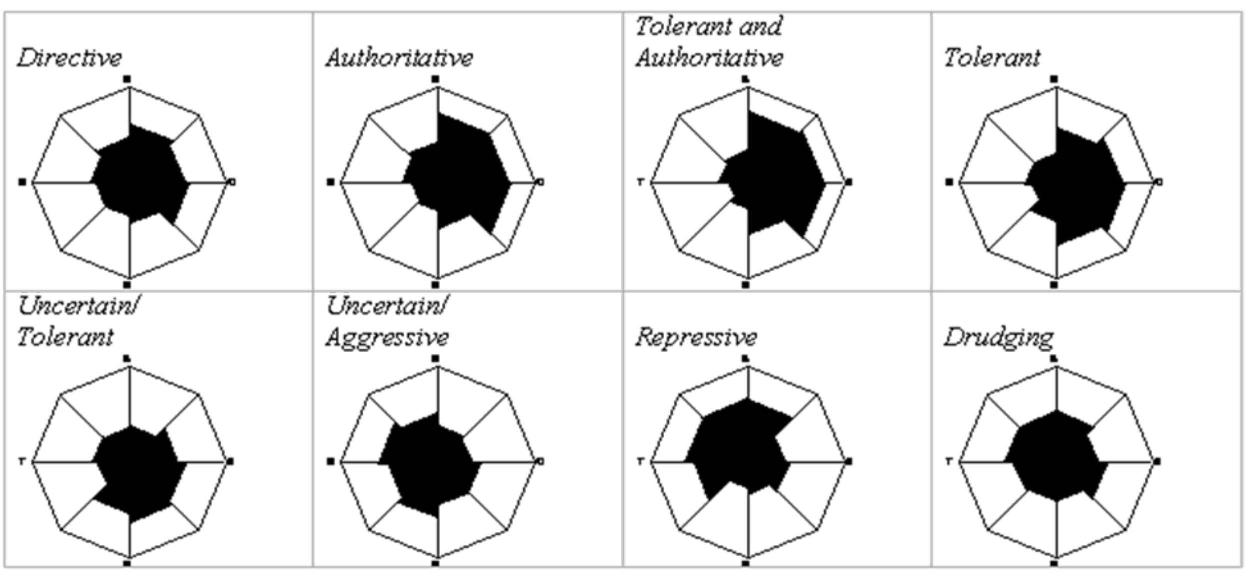

Fig 2: Graphic representations of the eight types of patterns of interpersonal relationships (Rickards, Den Brok, & Fisher, 2005)

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These eight interpersonal types have been related to student outcomes. Highest achievement was found in classes of Repressive teachers, after that Tolerant and Directive teachers. Uncertain-Tolerant and Uncertain-Aggressive teachers' classes realized the lowest achievement (Wei et al., 2009). The students of Authoritative, Tolerant-Authoritative and Directive teachers were highly motivated whereas lowest motivation happened in Drudging and Uncertain-Aggressive teachers' classes (Brekelmans et al., 1993).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

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

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

METHODOLGY

Sample

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

Instrumentation

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

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

Table 1: Internal consistency reliability (alpha coefficient) for the second pilot study of the questionnaire

Scale	Alpha reliability
Leadership	0.66
Helpful/ Friendly	0.62
Understanding	0.74
Student Freedom	0.62
Uncertain	0.71
Dissatisfied	0.63
Admonishing	0.72
Strict	0.65

Data Analysis

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

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

High school teachers' perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior

Table 2 represents means for each scale of the QTI rated by high school teachers:

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

QTI scales	High school teachers N	High school teachers' Mean
Leadership	73	3.12
Helpful/friendly	73	2.6
Understanding	73	2.09
Student freedom	73	1.65
Uncertain	73	0.68
Dissatisfied	73	1.9
Admonishing	73	1.1
Strict	73	2.01

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

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

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

Institute teachers' perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior

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

Table 3: Scale means for the QTI scales rated by institute teachers

QTI scales	Institute teachers N	Institute teachers' Mean
Leadership	67	3.16
Helpful/friendly	67	2.87
Understanding	67	3.09
Student freedom	67	1.76
Uncertain	67	0.71
Dissatisfied	67	1.02
Admonishing	67	1.01
Strict	67	1.99

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

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

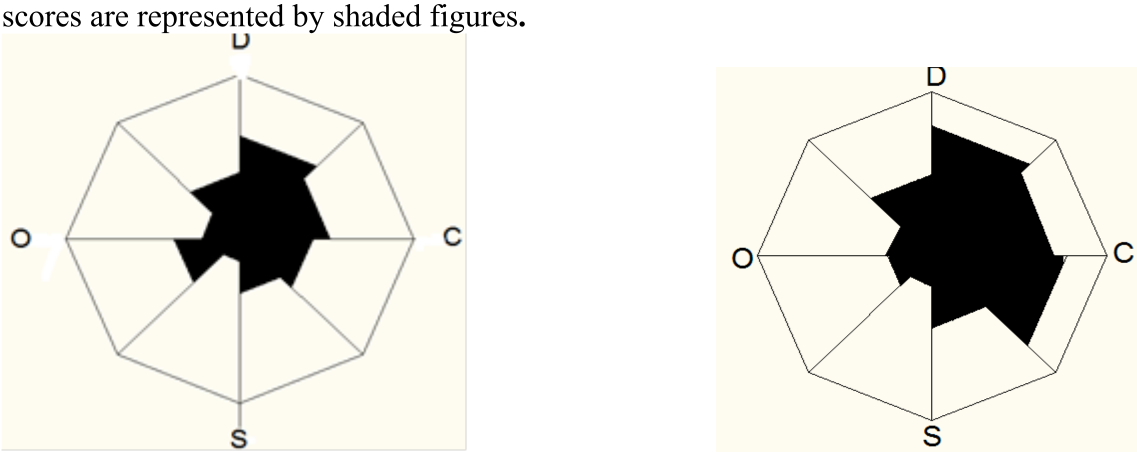
The Strict scale received rating with 1.99. The Uncertain, Dissatisfied and Admonishing scales were rated with scores lower than 2 on average, which means that teachers displayed these behaviors ‘sometimes’ to ‘hardly’. The Student Freedom scale obtained a rating 1.76. The lowest rating belonged to the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

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

The Typology of Teacher Interpersonal Behavior Styles in the Classroom

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

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



A. High school teachers **B. Institute teachers**

Figure 3: Graphical profile of the average interpersonal style of EFL teachers

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

The interpersonal profile of high school teachers (see Figure 3. A) was Directive. The learning environment in a class with a teacher with a Directive profile is well-structured and task-oriented.

The Directive teacher is organized efficiently and completes all lessons on time. S/he dominates class discussion, but generally holds students' interest. The teacher usually is not really close to the students, though s/he is occasionally friendly and understanding. S/he has high standards and is seen as demanding. S/he gets angry at times and has to remind the class that they are there to work. S/he likes to call on students who misbehave and are inattentive. This normally straightens them up quickly (Brekelmans, et al., 1993).

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

Differences between high school teachers' and institute teachers' perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior
Results of statistical analyses comparing perceptions between teachers in institutes and high schools for scale scores are provided in Table 4.

Table 4: Differences between high school teachers' and institute teachers' perceptions of their own interpersonal behavior

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

As can be seen in the table the differences between the two groups were significant for Helpful friendly, Understanding, Dissatisfied, Admonishing, and Strict. High school teachers' ratings

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

Discussion

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

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

Studies with the QTI from different points of view and with more representative samples of teachers and students would result in valuable outcomes and feedback to teacher education programs. The information can be used as feedback for teachers for their professional development by comparing their own scores with the perceptions of their students. The outcomes of the study may be useful in constructing more constructive teacher-student interactions by teacher reflection. Also it can be used by the Ministry of Education to compare the learning environments of high schools and institutes. It can also be used for Teacher evaluation purposes. The teachers, schools and institutes can be provided with standards and asked to revise their objectives and strategies according to criterion.

Combining the QTI with other instruments aimed at exploring learners' attitude toward learning English, learners' anxiety in EFL classes, and learners' motivation could also provide more information about the effects of teacher's interpersonal behavior.

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

CONCLUSION

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

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

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

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A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF RHETORICAL TROPES IN NEWSPAPER EDITORIALS

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

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

INTRODUCTION
Different speech communities vary in the ways of organizing ideas in their writing which in turn reflects their specific cultural thought patterns. Contrastive Rhetoric (CR), a branch of applied linguistics, argues that language and writing are cultural phenomena. This statement validates the strong ties between language and culture. Put like this, language plays a vital role in shaping the conventions of writing. Editorials as a sub-genre of newspapers are a particular type of writing

which are believed to reflect specific sociocultural practices. Since editorials represent the voice and opinion of a newspaper, they make use of certain rhetorical patterns and strategies to present ideologies towards news events. These rhetorical strategies are socially constructed and might differ among languages and cultures. To put another way, it is assumed that the way the editorials try to persuade their readers and the strategies they employ to do so might not be same among languages and cultures despite all editorials being the member of the same discourse domain. Considering the use of particular strategies for persuasion and argumentation in a genre like newspaper editorial one should not underestimate the role of socio-cultural factors that might influence it. The important point is, to what extent language might have an effect on a particular piece of writing. To this end, this study aimed to explore the cross-cultural realization of persuasion strategies in a Persian and an English newspaper. It is hoped that focusing on editorials written by native writers in different languages and cultures would contribute to the field.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Contrastive rhetoric (CR) which started 30 years ago by Robert Kaplan conceptualizes on the role of transfer from native language to the target language. Contrastive rhetoric has mostly focused on the discourse patterns in L1and L2 writing. The common belief is that different cultures organize their discourse differently by using diverse strategies. In other words, L1 writing strategies are transferable to L2 writing and students tend to employ the strategies learned in their L1 to their L2 writing. Therefore, an ineffective and incoherent text is likely to result due to different language conventions.Kaplan (1966) analyzed texts written by non-native writers in English to see how these texts were organized by different writers. He asserted that if students become aware of the way they organize their native language text and the way typical English texts are organized, then they could better apply the text conventions of English in their writings. Thus, it could be understood that rhetorical conventions of each language is different from that of the other language.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In a study, a comparative study of newspaper editorials from *The New York Times* and *Tehran Times* was implemented by Babaee (2010). He analyzed the editorials in search for persuasive rhetorical structures and devices. Through analysis he identified the rhetorical structures that editorial writers had employed to persuade their readers such as Metonymy, Simile, Irony, and Metaphor to name a few. He concluded that despite similar structures and devices been used in the editorials of criticism, no consistency was seen in the frequency of the devices.

In a similar vein, Afzal and Harun (2013) made a comparative analysis of editorial contents taken from The News International (NI) and the Arab News (AN). The main focus of the research was the rhetorical strategies and persuasive type of language employed by editors in their texts. The findings of this cross-cultural analysis revealed that the two newspapers are identical in their use of rhetorical strategies. However, some devices were more preferred over others by editors of different backgrounds. As an example, the editor of NI used hyperbole, simile and metonymy more than the AN editor.

Purpose of the study

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

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

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

METHODOLOGY

Categories of Textual Analysis

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

Data collection and analysis

This research capitalized on a total corpus of 30 editorials of criticism selected randomly from Iranian daily newspaper *Ettelaat* and American daily newspaper *New York Times,* 15 from each newspaper. The important criterion taken into account through-out the selection process was the common events referred to in both editorials. Furthermore, editorials published from January 2013 up to July 2014 were collected as the sample of the study. The aim of this study was to figure out the rhetorical devices employed in the editorials as a part of strategies of persuasion.

These devices direct attention to specific aspects of text meaning, and hence are in line with each newspaper's agenda toward each event.

At first, the type and frequency of the Rhetorical Devices in the editorials were identified. Next, to normalize the data the frequency of each RD in the whole text was converted to per one hundred words. Then, the total frequency of RDs used in each newspaper was achieved by summing the frequencies of every single RD in the respective newspaper. Finally, newspapers of *Ettelaat* and *The New York Times* were compared according to the distribution of Metaphor and Metonymy in each. To further our analysis, chi-square test was applied to the data to investigate their statistical significance.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Metaphor

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

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

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

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

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

5) *چراغ سبزی* که اوباما به نتانیاهو در صبحت تلفني داده است. (Ref. *Ettelaat* 12)
Obama showed a *green light* to Netanyahu on the telephone conversation. (English translation)

6) سیسي *چماق* سرکوب را دواي استقرار امنیت در مصر ميداند. (Ref. *Ettelaat* 8)
Sisi uses his *suppress bat* to establish security in Egypt. (English translation)

7) صدور گاز روسیه به اوکراین و اروپا *شاهرگ حیاتی* شده است. (Ref. *Ettelaat* 14)
The export of Russian gas to Ukraine and Europe has become a *vital lifeline*. (English translation)

8) گذشته را *چراغ راه* آینده بهتر سازیم. (Ref. *Ettelaat* 6)
We can use the past to *light the way* for better future. (English translation)

Table 1: Analyses of Metaphors in Editorials

Topic	Vehicle
Unstable political situations	Shifting political winds
Made him strong and unbreakable	Steeled him
Passage of time	Months flying by
Trying to Invest in authoritarian rulers	Recipe
Give permission	چراغ سبز دادن (Show green light)
Suppression of the government	چماق (Suppress bat)
Russia's gas supply	شاهرگ حیاتی (Vital lifeline)
The Past	چراغ راه (Light the way)

Metonymy

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

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

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

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

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

13) *كاخ سفيد* هرگونه كمك به دولت مالكي براي پاكسازي عراق از گروه تروريستي داعش را اعلام كرده است.
(Ref. *Ettelaat* 4)
The White House has announced to help Maliki's government in eradicating ISIS from Iraq. (English translation)

14) *مصر* با نمايشي از ژنرال سيسي رئيس جمهور جديد وارد ماجرا گرديد . (Ref. *Ettelaat* 12)
Egypt got involved by the introduction of General Sisi as the new president. (English translation)

15) *شوراي امنيت سازمان ملل* نشست اضطراري برگزار كرد. (Ref. *Ettelaat* 1)
The UN Security Council held an emergency meeting. (English translation)

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16) اگر ترکیه وارد فاز یافتن راه حل سیاسي براي پایان بخشیدن به جنگ در سوریه گردد. (Ref. *Ettelaat* 10)
If *Turkey* decides to enter the phase of finding a political solution to end war in Syria. (English translation)

The metonymic use of words is showed below:

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

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

Table 2: Entire Distribution of Metaphor and Metonymy

	Ettelaat		The New York Times	
Rhetorical Device	**Frequency (F)**	**Percent (%)**	**Frequency (F)**	**Percent (%)**
Metaphor	6.73	41.01%	4.97	28%
Metonymy	9.68	58.98%	12.78	72%
Total	16.41	100%	17.75	100%

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

	$\chi 2$	*Df*	*P*
Ettelaat vs. NYT	3.46	1	0.063

Significant at p < .05

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

Discussion

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

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

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

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

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study was based on the analysis of thirty editorials, fifteen from *Ettelaat* and fifteen from *The New York Times*. All the editorials were analyzed according to Richardson's (2007) framework of Rhetorical Devices of newspaper discourse, focusing on Metaphor and Metonymy.
The results achieved from the analysis of the editorials showed that the newspapers, *Ettelaat* and *The New York Times*, were similar in their use of rhetorical device categories. In addition, they had similarities regarding the use of Metonymy as their most employed device. However, it was found that the categorical distribution of rhetorical devices was the factor making the two newspapers different but not to the extent of being significant. In sum, both editors tended to use Metaphor and Metonymy to formulate opinions and enhance the persuasiveness of their composition. This common way of approaching the issue implies that editorial writers behave in similar way no matter which society and culture they come from. So, socio-cultural and socio-linguistic backgrounds seem to be unlikely to affect the established conventions of editorials of criticism.

The findings of this research are in line with that of Babaee (2010) and Afzal and Harun (2013) in terms of being both comparative and reaching the conclusion that cultural and linguistic background do not seem to be highly affective. Newspapers may differ in the length and frequency of using rhetorical devices and structures but tend to be faithful to the specific genre conventions.

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

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

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

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

KEYWORDS: implication, computers, and language teaching/learning

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

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

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

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

COMPUTER SOFTWARE PROGRAMS TO ENHANCE LANGUAGE LEARNING

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

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

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

COMPUTERS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING IN INFORMAL SETTINGS

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

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

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

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

NON-DESKTOP TECHNOLOGIES AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

In recent years, however, the use of non-desktop technologies such as audiovisual devices, for example, television is also attracting increasing interest among many researchers in informal learning and SLA (Milton, 2002; Pemberton et al., 2004).

According to Milton (2002), mass media technologies can give the teachers as well as the learners a pool of activities and experiences that can reinforce language learning in informal settings as well as the formal settings of the school. Watching different programs, for example, on TV is a sort of activity in informal settings which can lead to language learning regardless of the fact that the focus is not on learning (Milton, 2002). In other words, language learners learn the language without directly getting involved in any sort of explicit language learning activities. However, in highlighting the pedagogical value of exposure to mass media technology, Milton did not further specify what type of mass media technology can boost language learning in informal language settings. Also, he did not provide any details on the amount of exposure to a specific type of mass media which may lead to language improvement. More importantly, in his study, language learners were required to do some exercises in informal settings which does not comply with informal language learning criteria.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In a nutshell, mobile phone-based language learning technology, thanks to its portability, low production cost, versatile features, and significant memory space has the outstanding potential to provide everybody with authentic audio/visual language learning materials that could possibly teach them to speak and read.

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CONCLUSION

In this digitally dominated age characterized by the rapid and extensive development of information and communication technologies, the present review paper aimed at considering the effectiveness of the application of computers as a type of desktop technology and various audiovisual technologies such as interactive televisions as non-desktop technologies in language teaching. The present research highlights the point that various technologies can enhance language learning particularly in contexts which lack social interactions as an authentic source of language learning.

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

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

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

INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

Alternative Hypothesis
H1: There are significant differences between high level spatial intelligence learning and low level spatial intelligence learning in computer based glosses learning of second language learners' vocabulary.

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

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

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

Procedure
After administrating standardized classroom multiple intelligence test, the participants divided into two groups: The high spatial intelligence individuals were those who scored 7–10 on the spatial intelligence questionnaire and those whose spatial intelligence scores ranged from 0 to 3 were grouped as the low spatial individuals. One class was selected as the low level group and the other acted as the high level groups in terms of spatial intelligence. The range of their age was between 13-16. Then the pre-test was conducted. The pre-test included 60 multiple-choice items. 40 new words were unfamiliar to all of the students that adapted from their text books. The result of pre-test determined the target words were unfamiliar to the participants. The treatment lasted for 2 months, 1 session a week. In each session, almost 10 vocabularies were presented. The

selected passages were computerized, and 10 words in each passage were glossed by a computer program called Power Point. The unfamiliar words were glossed in textual-pictorial glosses. At the end of the treatment, the posttest was administered to two groups. The posttest was a parallel to the pretest and included 40 multiple-choice items which were from among the vocabularies worked on during treatment period. The scores obtained from the posttest were put into SPSS to be analyzed statistically.

Data analyses

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

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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

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

CONCLUSION

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

Implications of the study

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

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

Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

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

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

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