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SUBSTITUTION ROLES IN EFL TEXTBOOKS: INSIGHTS FROM GENDER STEREOTYPING ON ACCOUNT OF CDA

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ABSTRACT

Textbooks occasionally function as ideology carriers which glorifies the use of a method of discourse analysis such as CDA that best fits to the context in order to unmask the biased contents. This study has been done to sort out the passage of substitution roles among many dichotomous notions in van Leeuwen's social actor network (2008) through Four Corners EFL textbook series. Results stated that the textbooks acted toward some discursive features of the method in equal way; however, in case with categorization and specification roles, the differences were significant. Research has shown that the textbooks are partially gendered since the idea that women are inferior to men is conveyed through the textbooks which may provide the same cognizance regarding societies' structure.

KEYWORDS: CDA; Gender; Substitution roles; Four Corners

INTRODUCTION

Individualization and socialization processes play as pivot grounds in order to make adjustments to life. Individualization which subsumes acquiring "one's idiosyncratic personal characteristics" (Handel, 2006, p. 4) relies on socialization in complementary relation since individualization demands adopting particular transformations with the character corresponding to the functional roles in 'community of practice' (Eckert & Maccannel-Ginet, 1992). Seen in these terms, by way of an example, "gender is not a set of traits, nor a variable, nor a role, but the product of social doings of some sort" (West & Zimmerman, 1987, p. 129) and doing gender entails a complex of socially guided perceptual, interactional, and micropolitical activities that cast particular traces like expressions of masculine and feminine (ibid. p. 126). Although, we acquire the state of being person by our human nature, the state of being in masculine or feminine state is fully accomplished through the structure of the society. Therefore, in order to accomplish the ultimate goal, one has to move from competence toward performance. Considering gender as an accomplishment, focus changes from internal sphere of an individual to communicational and social dealings. It completely fits with van Dijk's society-discourse-cognition triangle (see van Dijk, 2009).

Socializing into different sex roles which is partially conducted by media as an important agent in which education is a part of that results from related organizations' ideology transmission pattern high spotting the dominant values of the society. As a matter of the fact, society is embedded in educational content carrying distinctive discourse structures given to gender groups which are crucial meaning conveying indexes for negotiation and interpretation of gender roles. A logical

corollary is that gender identity is partially constructed and reconstructed as a consequence of normally different contexts which may be implied through media. In other words, they take naturalistic way simulating the natural path through which learners acquire roles attributed to different 'social actors' (Van Leeuwen, 2008). An alternative view of course is that challenges await involvers including learners at every turn of the syllabuses. Questions abound, for as long as learners face with news items, new ways of looking at the world and hence constructing new points of view and beliefs about the roles that society attributes on characters. In fact, the corpses lie in the vicarious effect of witnessing learners of broader vistas of the world which leads to vicarious identity formation. Therefore, the instrumental role of textbooks in creating viewpoint and providing intellectuality hints in relation with society should not be underestimated expressing communal bounds of the society and have to be evaluated based on one-sided realization of the roles in general and gender roles in particular.

For doing so, a method of discourse analysis such as CDA is demanded in order to control the connection between sending and receiving systems. In fact, CDA functions as mediator to connect the surface structure with the reality display underlying it. CDA shows tendency to work in educational area since educational system has political aspect which carries power for benefit of special group or groups. Consequently, it is worthwhile to study the discourse structures in the education domain in relation with power structures in a direct way since education and its organization are useful instruments for employing power.

A chronological sketch of the last 50 years of gender and language studies must be set in the context of current textbooks. For years, there were few if any foundations concerning gender and power representations in the textbooks upon which to base teaching materials. The new steps has only begun to solve some of the perplexity issues regarding gender bias in textbooks.

Linguistics such as Fairclough established the credibility of gender bias-free points, hence providing equal opportunity in learning for all learners. It was in the twentieth century that gender and language studies became practiced and enjoyed considerable popularity. Many researchers provided influential works in the era. The basic premise of the studies in the context was that learning in general and language learning in particular should be bias-free in order to prevent learning impediment. Many researchers have tried to examine gender realizations in textbooks. Regarding the issue, in relation with perpetuation of gender stereotypes by the content of the textbooks, a study was done by Jabeen (2014) in which the result supported the negative portrayal of female social actors in comparison to male actors. Demonstration of male and female actors in different spheres of life was inducible through the corpus since male actors were more activated in category of superior and high positions while inferior roles were attributed to females in order to bring men into the focus of attention and reflect positive attitudes toward them. Therefore, gender equality was failed to be addressed through the curricula.

In the same vein, in an attempt to figure out the gender construction through the written discourse (two short stories), Shaikh and Khan (2012) demonstrated that the authors of the stories intended to bring men into the foreground stage highlighting traditional ideologies related to gender

discrimination while back grounded and marginalized position of women were visible for the gender group which reflects the room for improvement in the area.

In line with the foregoing, a study was carried out by Toci and Aliu (2013) in which they demonstrated that gender fairness was not fulfilled through the books and the authors have not considered gender bias-free treatment in their investigation. Male and female characters were attributed through distinctive professions holding traditional roles by female while dominant and important jobs to male characters through the corpus.

Abdelhay and Benhaddouche (2015) who conducted a study to evaluate widely used Algerian textbooks indicated that “although Algeria is undergoing changes and developments in all domains including gender, this study revealed that society’s old stereotypes are still alive and revived through different, modern and even educational ways” for the benefit of male characters (Abdelhay & Benhaddouche, 2015).

It is interesting that along the time, realization of gender and power was revived and redirected into equal form in some cases, although it is not fully accomplished through the textbooks. It seems that gender treatment has not been hold in the syllabuses the way it assumed to be and a sense of favoritism is perceptible; for instance, while one could find male characters through dominant roles of the society, such is not the case for female characters as social actors. Such a biased content hedges learners into at least relinquishing the notion that textbooks provide them with authentic and real information; thus, promoting intellectuality which may be remembered as distastes by thousands of learners.

Accordingly, due to the overshadowed influence of the issue on learners’ construction of viewpoints and stereotypes, the current study holds to explore substitution roles given to different social actors. Consequently, an attempt has been made to determine the hidden discursive patterns and delineation of male and female social actors which are represented in the texts of the Four Corners series (2012).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study benefits from van Leeuwen’s social actor network (2008) to address the following research questions:

Is there any difference in representation of men and women throughout Four Corners series in terms of power relations?

Is there any difference in discursive negotiation of cross-gender relations in Four Corners’ dialogic interactions?

METHODOLOGY

Materials

The selected material is elementary level of Four Corners series. The series is a set of leveled EFL textbooks that carries learners from beginner to intermediate level of proficiency which is described as a complete course in oral communication aimed at adult students who are fundamentally functional in the four skill areas of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Four Corners has been authored by Richards and Bohlke (2012). Each book contains 12 units each of which is divided into four parts (a, b, c, & d), including exercises for improving the four skills.

The inducement for the choice of textbooks is governed by the personal interest of the researcher and due to the absence of any investigation dealing with the mentioned textbooks. The Series was published in 2012, which means that, it is a latest product. So, one expects a fair treatment of aspects of gender depiction.

Data Collection Procedure

The first stage in the analysis is to identify the conversation, interaction, and reading sections and determine what typologies to scrutinize. Conducive to fulfil the objectives of the study, all of the utterances in cross-gender conversation, interaction, and reading sections were read critically, focusing on each utterance separately and in conjunction with the adjoining utterances.

Data Analysis Procedure

CDA in its commitment to accounting for the underlying elements and dimensions of power can typically concentrate on syllabuses as tokens of power in the institutionalized discourse of education (Yaghoubi-Notash & Nouri, 2016). Due to the applicability of CDA in research respecting gender inequality, the framework has been chosen to discover gender representation in the textbooks. This study's investigation relies on the following framework for manipulating the data: critically analysis of the textbooks conforming to the features introduced by van Leeuwen's model (2008). The rationale for working in line with the stated framework lies in the fact that it has been found inclusive enough dealing with nearly all aspects of gender representation from social viewpoint. In fact, the textbooks will be analyzed in order to figure out the gender representation in terms of power relations. Van Leeuwen's model has been utilized as central framework in the study to decontextualize the representations of social actors through examining the typologies introduced by the network in male and female social actors' language use. Since textbooks do not constitute all forms of realization, for empirical justification, the following segments of substitution roles of van Leeuwen's social actor network (2008) are regarded as indicators in discourse analysis:

Personalization/Impersonalization, Determination/Indetermination, Nomination/Categorization, Genericization/Specification, and Individualization/Collectivization.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personalization/Impersonalization

Social actors are either personalized along with conveying the feature of + human or impersonalized, i.e. conveying the feature of _ human. Van Leeuwen distinguishes two kinds of impersonalization: Abstraction and Objectivation. "Abstraction occurs when social actors are represented by means of a quality assigned to them by and in the representation and objectivation occurs when social actors are represented by means of reference to a place or thing closely associated either with their person or with action in which they are represented as being engaged" (van Leeuwen, 2008, p. 46).

Table 1: Chi-square results for comparison of M&F Personalization/Impersonalization roles

Category	Male	Female	X2	df	Sig.
Personalization	498	328	34.988	1	0.00
Impersonalization	1	0	-	-	-

According to Table 1, social actors are almost always personalized except a case through which male social actor is impersonalized. The category of personalization is elaborated more on the following parts with its subcategories.

Determination/Indetermination

Indetermination occurs when social actors are realized as unknown individuals though attributes such as "someone", "some", and etc. while the category of determination distinguishes one individual or group from the other. Drawing on social actor network, there are two kinds of determination: Nomination and Categorization. The investigation of the corpus unmasked no instance of indetermination but determination which is provided below with details.

Nomination/Categorization

Some actors are remarked as individualistic reference while other actors share features with others which is controversial issue from critical perspective.

Table 2: Chi-square Results for Comparison of M&F Nomination/Categorization Roles

Category	Male	Female	X2	df	Sig.
Nomination	51	42	0.871	1	0.351
Categorization	71	45	5.828	1	0.016

Unique identities given to actors through proper nouns with or without honorifics can provide valuable information in case with conversations.

Table 3: Chi-square Results for M/F Nomination Roles

Category	Male	Female	X2	df	Sig.
Formalization	6	2	2	1	0.157
Semiformalization	14	9	1.087	1	1.297
Informalization	31	31	0	1	1

In the corpus, males are more frequently referred to nomination roles than females especially concerning formalization and semiformalization which are indicator of respect toward the

characters which can be regarded as critical element is discourse analysis in terms of power relations. Additionally, three elements of Functionalization, Identification and Appraisal are sub categories of Categorization. Social actors in terms of what they do, what they are, and others' feeling toward actors are respectively indicator of the categories.

Table 4: Chi-square Results for M&F Categorization Roles

Category	M	F	X2	df	Sig.
Functionalization	38	20	5.586	1	0.018
Identification	31	23	1.185	1	0.276
Appraisal	2	2	0	1	1

As table 4 makes clear, the frequencies between male and female social actors are significant for functionalization category for the benefit of males which means that males are represented in terms of what they do more than females in the corpus. Identification is expressible through three sub-categories of Classification, Relational Identification, and Physical Identification. Classification occurs in the case of defining social actors in terms of different classes such as age, race, gender, wealth, etc. Relational identification refers to social actors via their relationships and physical identification happens through physical characteristics which distinguishes them.

Table 5: Chi-square Results for M/F Identification Roles

Category	M	F	X2	df	Sig.
Classification	3	5	0.5	1	0.48
Relational Identification	19	16	0.257	1	0.612
Physical Identification	9	2	4.455	1	0.035

Regarding classification, female actors outnumbered while considering relational and physical identification, male actors outnumbered yielding significant difference for physical identification between the frequencies of both gender groups.

Genericization/Specification

The option between generic or specific reference may provide invaluable information considering the realization of social actors i.e. they may be represented by particular classes or unique individuals.

Table 6: Chi-square Results for Comparison of M&F Genericization/Specification Roles

Category	M	F	X2	df	Sig.
Genericization	5	6	0.091	1	0.763
Specification	372	235	30.921	1	0.00

Table 6 uncovers that social actors are rarely activated in the category of genericization and mostly activated in category of specification for which the significant difference is evident through chi-square examination. The sub-categories of Specification, Individualization and Collectivization may contribute constructive data related to the issue.

Table 7: Chi-square Results for Comparison of M&F Specification Roles

Category	M	F	X ²	df	Sig.
Individualization	340	208	31.796	1	0.00
Collectivization	32	27	0.424	1	0.515

Through the books explored, the individuality of males has been highlighted with statistically significant difference ($X^2=31.796$, $p<0.05$). As a result, males are depicted as more independent and autonomous individuals which is affirmation of different depiction of male and female social actors in the corpus under investigation.

These findings are in line with Abdelhay and Benhaddouche (2015), Toci and Aliu (2013), Jabeen (2014), and Shaikh and Khan (2012). Simply put, the inferior position of female social actors is inducible for some categories according to the typologies introduced by van Leeuwen.

CONCLUSION

The present study examined the Four Corners series for realization of male and female characters based on van Leeuwen's social actor network through the theme of substitution and the following results appeared:

The significant difference is displayed for categorization and specification roles which is indicator of features such as autonomy and importance given to males. In points of fact, the surface pattern demonstrates the equal representation of gender, but the results through the application of CDA is not in the same line with surface structure. Although, there have been some modification to present genders in equal manner by bringing females to forefront stage questioning the traditional ideologies, but their importance level and equal representation is not fully accomplished through textbooks.

It seems that under the condition of raising learners' consciousness awareness and making them to be critical thinkers, it is likely that the textbooks under investigation might meet educational needs. More to the context, the indispensable role of teachers in presenting the corpus should not be underrated since they are the right agents in dealing with gender-biased contents, and stimulating learners' consciousness toward the same content. In brief, in educational context, there should be avoidance of any imposition of gender-biased point to the learners by any possible way. It is hoped that the investigation of newly published marketized EFL textbooks for gender and power relations might be able to provide to teachers and syllabus designers in selection and preparation of curriculum since the individuality of learners is an important factor which needs consideration.

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TRANSLATIONAL PROCEDURES USED IN THE METAPHORICAL DISCOURSE REVEALING FEMALE IDENTITY IN THE PERSIAN TRANSLATION OF “A THOUSAND SPLENDID SUNS” BY KHALED HOSSEINI

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ABSTRACT

This study adopted Newmark's theory (1988) of translational procedures to investigate the way the Iranian translator, translated the metaphorical discourse revealing female identity in the Persian translation of “A Thousand Splendid Suns” by Khaled Hosseini. The researcher attempted to reveal the translational procedures that the translator selected to render the ideologically-laden metaphorical discourse used by the Afghan writer. Khaled Hosseini deliberately manipulated his ideological implications in his masterpiece to manifest the situation of Afghan women in the terrible context of Afghanistan in the period of ignorance and turmoil. The analysis of translation related to some selected parts of the novel disclosed the procedures employed by the translator in manifesting the author's attitude toward women and his ideologies regarding female identities. The results can be useful for improving the pedagogical and conceptual purposes in the TS, as well as meeting the interdisciplinary goals in other areas.

KEYWORDS: Metaphor, Translation procedures, CDA, Identity, Ideology

INTRODUCTION

In an age when world is constantly growing smaller, the necessity for exchanging information and ideas across borders has become a fact of life and communication has become inconceivable without translation. At the end of the twentieth century the attitude towards translation has radically changed and at this age of mass communications, the emphasis on the significance of translation, as questions of cultural politics appears on the agenda. Thus, today, according to Schaffner and Bassnett (2010, P. 12), the focus on translation studies is no longer on “examining whether a translation has been faithful to a source text”. Instead, “the focus is on social, cultural and ideological significance of translating and of translations, on the relationship between translation behavior and socio-cultural factors” (Schaffner & Basnett, 2010, P. 12).

Lefevere (1992, P. 2) uses the term „rewriting“ instead of the term „translation“ and believes that translation is not just a “window opened on another world or some such pious platitude”. Rather, translation is a “channel opened, often not without certain reluctance, through which foreign influences can penetrate the native culture, challenge it, and even contribute to subverting it.” Alvarez and Vidal (1996, P. 5) argue that, “translation creates an image of the original, particularly for those who have no access to the reality of the original”. This image can “distort and manipulate reality, because the translator, as the re-creator of the work, has her or his own intention in translating the text” (Alvarez & Vidal, 1996, P.5). Therefore, the translator’s conduct can never be innocent.

Alvarez and Vidal (1996, P.6), point out that translators are constrained in many ways: “by their own ideology; by their superiority or inferiority towards the language in which they are writing the text being translated; by the prevailing poetical rules at that time”; “by the very language in which the texts they are translating is written; by what the dominant institutions and ideology expect of them; by the public for whom the translation is intended”. Therefore, considering the fact that translation is not merely passing from one text to another, transferring words from one container to another, but rather transporting one entire culture to another, we realize just how important it is to be conscious of the ideology and manipulation that underlies a translation (Alvarez & Vidal, 1996).

According to Schaffner (2003, P.23), ideological aspects can be “more or less obvious in texts, depending on the topic of a text, its genre and communicative purpose”. In political texts, ideological aspects are, of course, particularly prominent. These texts are highly culture-bound. Highly culture-bound texts, in Schaffner’s (1997) terms, are texts references to a wide range of cultural patterns of the society in question including aspects of its political, its economics and legal life.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The framework of this research is based on Peter Newmark’s theory of metaphorical discourse. According to Newmark, the translator is faced with two major challenges in their work: the choice of the optimal translation principle for the whole text and translation of metaphors (Newmark, 2014, P. 104). Newmark defined metaphorical discourse as any figurative expression: it can be a word used in figurative sense, personification of abstract concepts, etc. Structurally metaphors are divided into *simple* that are represented by a single lexical unit, and *compound* or *common*, which may be a word-group, a phrase, a sentence or a whole text (Newmark, 2014, pp. 100-104).

In terms of functionality, Newmark distinguished two functions of metaphorical discourse: connotative and aesthetic. The connotative function refers to the ability of metaphor to describe both concrete and abstract concepts in more detail, express thoughts vividly and characterize the quality of the described object. The aesthetic function refers to the ability of a metaphor to provide the aesthetic impact on the reader, to interest and surprise him. Newmark believed that “You should not include the ability of a metaphorical discourse to transfer properties from one

object to its function. It must be mentioned that the consequence of the used metaphor may be the fact that the recipient would notice the similarity between the image and the object, but it is only the result of this usage, not its primary objective" (Newmark, 2014: 123). According to Newmark metaphors can be grouped under six heads; namely, *dead*, *cliché*, *standard* or *stock*, *adapted*, *recent* and *original*. These six groups can be ideological or non-ideological.

Metaphor is a figure of speech where a word or phrase that ordinarily designates one thing, is used to designate another, thus making an implicit (figurative) comparison. They cannot be often translated literally as, if they are, the figurative meaning would be lost and that meaning of course is the original author's intended meaning. The study of metaphors dates back to the time of Aristotle; ages before modern linguistics emerged. Metaphors are often used to make strong impact and play a very significant role in our everyday life and are among the most powerful and effective mechanisms in language, in fact a very little of our language is non-metaphorical, because in talking about the tangible and physical world we have an ocean of vocabularies, but when talking about our conceptual life, emotions, mental reactions we have a lack of words and expressions, we fill this lack through using metaphors. Metaphorical discourses represent a similarity, i.e. a common semantic field between two or more or less similar things- the image and object. Studies of metaphorical discourse have been largely dedicated to issues such as the meaning, forms, components, typology, and the role of metaphorical discourses as speech ornaments and meaning enhancing analogies.

Metaphorical discourse has also been widely discussed in the literature translation field, where it has been given more or less the same definition, viz., the description of something in terms of another as a way of illuminating or developing meaning, or "the application of a word or collocation to what it does not literally denote" (Newmark, 1988, P. 104). Research into the cross-linguistic and cross-cultural dimensions of metaphorical discourse as well as its treatment in actual translations have shown that the SL image cannot always be retained in the TL. The world we are living in is made up of things, and we are constantly confronted with them, obliged to communicate about them, and to define ourselves in relation to them. This is a characteristic of all human societies and due to this fact; various language systems are not easily translatable.

Metaphorical discourse can become a translation problem, when transferring them from one language and culture to another. In addition, due to the fact that the different cultures conceptualize the world in different ways, metaphorical discourses are characterized as being culture. According to Munday (2007, p. 137), the main aim of critical linguistics, and later critical discourse analysis was "to make clear the link between ideology and the language in which that ideology is expressed and reproduced in specific social situations". Hence, "critically orientated discourse analysis can systematize awareness and critique of ideology [...]" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 82).

Van Dijk (1998, p. 3) defines ideologies as "political or social systems of ideas, values or prescriptions of groups or other collectivities which have the function of organizing or legitimating the actions of the group". Van Dijk (1998) proposes a multidisciplinary theory of ideology that includes three main elements: (i) cognition (thought and belief which go together to

create ideas); (ii) society (group interests, power and dominance); and (iii) discourse (language use which expresses ideologies in society, often involving concealment and manipulation). He explains that "this does not mean that ideologies are expressed only by discourse, but merely that discourse has a specific role, among other social practices, in the reproduction of ideologies" (p.5).

According to Van Dijk (1998, p. 6), discourse and its mental dimensions (such as its meanings) are "multiply embedded in social situations and social structures. And conversely, social representations, social relations and social structures are often constituted, constructed, validated, normalized, evaluated and legitimated in and by text and talk". According to Newmark translational procedures can be grouped under sixteen heads:

literal translation: It is word-for-word translation. This procedure is good if you want to retain as much of the formal aspects of the source text as possible, but you run into problems when translating, for instance, idioms or specific grammatical constructions which do not have direct equivalents in the target language (Newmark, 1988: 68).

transference: Transference (loan word, transcription) is the process of transferring a SL word to a TL text as a translation procedure. It is the same as Catford's transference, and includes transliteration, which relates to the conversion of different alphabets: e.g. Russian (Cyrillic), Greek, Arabic, Chinese, etc. into English. The word then becomes a 'loan word'. Some authorities deny that this is a translation procedure, but no other term is appropriate if a translator decides to use an SL word for his text, say for English and the relevant language (1988: 81-82).

naturalization: This procedure succeeds transference and adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology (word-forms) of the TL (1988: 82).

cultural equivalent: This is an approximate translation where a SL cultural word is translated by a TL cultural word. For instance, „master's degree“ translates into „kandidatuddannelsen“, and „gymnasiet“ into „high school“.

The above are approximate cultural equivalents- Their translation uses are limited, since they are not accurate, but they can be used in general texts, publicity and propaganda, as well as for brief explanation to readers who are ignorant of the relevant SL culture. They have a greater pragmatic impact than culturally neutral terms. Occasionally, they may be purely functionally, hardly descriptively, equivalents. Functional cultural equivalents are even more restricted in translation, but they may occasionally be used if the term is of little importance in a popular article or popular fiction. They are important in drama, as they can create an immediate effect. However, the main purpose of the procedure is to support or supplement another translation procedure in a couplet (1988: 82-83).

functional equivalent: This common procedure, applied to cultural words, requires the use of a culture-free word, sometimes with a new specific term; it therefore neutralizes or generalizes the

SL word. This procedure, which is a cultural componential analysis, is the most accurate way of translating i.e. deculturalising a cultural word.

A similar procedure is used when a SL technical word has no TL equivalent. This procedure occupies the middle, sometimes the universal, area between the SL language or culture and the TL language or culture. If practiced one to one, it is an under-translation. If practiced one to two, it may be an over-translation. For cultural terms, it is often combined with transference (1988: 83).

descriptive equivalent: In translation, description sometimes has to be weighed against function. Thus for *machete*, the description is a „Latin American broad, heavy instrument“, the function is „cutting or aggression“. *Samurai* is described as „the Japanese aristocracy from the eleventh to the nineteenth century; its function was to provide officers and administrators“, Description and function are essential elements in explanation and therefore in translation. In translation discussion, function used to be neglected; now it tends to be overplayed (1988: 83-84).

synonymy: I use the word synonym in the sense of a near TL equivalent to an SL word in a context, where a precise equivalent may or may not exist. This procedure is used for a SL word where there is no clear one-to-one equivalent, and the word is not important in the text, in particular for adjectives or adverbs of quality (which in principle are „outside“ the grammar and less important than other components of a sentence. A synonym is only appropriate where literal translation is not possible and because the word is not important enough for componential analysis.

A translator cannot do without synonymy; he has to make do with it as a compromise, in order to translate more important segments of the text, segments of the meaning, more accurately. But unnecessary use of synonyms is a mark of many poor translations (1988: 84).

through translation: The literal translation of common collocations, names of organizations, the components of compounds and perhaps phrases, is known as *calque* or loan translation. I prefer the more transparent term „through-translation“ (1988: 84-85).

shift/transposition: A „shift“ (Catford's term) or „transposition“ (Vinay and Darbelnet) is a translation procedure involving a change in the grammar from SL to TL. One type is the change from singular to plural or in the position of the adjective.

A second type of shift is required when an SL grammatical structure does not exist in the TL. The English gerund (Working with you is a pleasure) offers many choices. The gerund can be translated by verb-noun: „I work with you“. German has active or passive participial constructions which are normally translated by adjectival clause or non-finite participial clauses. The third type of shift is the one where literal translation is grammatically possible but may not accord with natural usage in the TL (1988: 85-88).

modulation: Vinay and Darbelnet coined the term „modulation“ to define a variation through a change of viewpoint, of perspective and very often of category of thought. Standard modulations such as „water-tower“ are recorded in bilingual dictionaries. Free modulations are used by translators when the TL rejects literal translation (1988: 88-89).

recognized translation: You should normally use the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term. If appropriate, you can gloss it and, in doing so, indirectly show your disagreement with this official version (1988: 89).

translation label: This is a provisional translation, usually of a new institutional term, which should be made in inverted commas, which can later be discreetly withdrawn. It could be done through literal translation (1988: 90).

compensation: This is said to occur when loss of meaning, sound-effect, metaphor or pragmatic effect in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part, or in a contiguous sentence (1988: 90).

componential analysis: This is the splitting up of a lexical unit into its sense components, often one-to-two, -three or -four translations (1988: 90).

reduction and expansion: These are rather imprecise translation procedures, which you practice intuitively in some cases. However, for each there is at least one shift which you may like to bear in mind, particularly in poorly written texts:

- (1) SL adjective of substance plus general noun, TL noun
- (2) For expansion, a not uncommon shift, often neglected, is SL adjective, English TL adverb plus past participle, or present participle plus object (1988: 90).

paraphrase: This is an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text. It is used in an „anonymous“ text when it is poorly written, or has important implications and omissions (1988: 90).

METHODOLOGY

Corpus

The corpus of this research consists of one novel with two translated versions: *A Thousand Splendid Suns* which is well known in the world of literature and especially in the world of fiction. *A Thousand Splendid Suns* is a 2007 novel by Afghan-American author Khaled Hosseini. He remarked that the novel is a “mother-daughter story” in contrast to *The Kite Runner*, which he considers a “father-son story”. It continues same themes, such as the familial aspects, but focuses primarily on female characters and their roles and identities in Afghan society. Hosseini visited Afghanistan in 2003, and heard so many stories about what happened to women, the tragedies that they endured, the difficulties, the gender-based violence that they suffered, the discrimination, the state of being barred from active life during Taliban, having their movement restricted, being banned essentially from practicing their legal, social rights and political rights. This motivated him to write a novel centered on two Afghan women, Mariam and Laila. It splits

into four parts that focuses on individual stories: Part one is about Mariam, part two is on Laila, part three is on the relationship between the two women, and Laila's life with Tariq in part four. This novel seems to be suitable for this study because it is a literary work filled with figures of speech like metaphorical discourse.

Socio-Political Context of Original Text

Afghan-American writer Khaled Hosseini is famous for his two best-selling novels about Afghanistan, *The Kite Runner* (2003) and *A Thousand Splendid Suns* (2007). The novels depict events in the recent history of Afghanistan and draw the interest of readers wanting to know more about the country invaded by the United States in 2001. Khaled Hosseini was born March 4, 1965, in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. He is the oldest of five children. Hosseini's mother was a literature and history teacher at a high school in Kabul. She taught Hosseini to love classical Persian poetry. His father worked for the foreign ministry, and in the 1970s, the family lived for a time in Tehran, Iran and in Paris. The family was at home in Kabul in 1973 when King Zahir Shah was overthrown. In 1978 and 1979, as the communists took over Afghanistan and the Soviet Union invaded, Hosseini's family was in Paris. Rather than returning home to a country at war, the Hosseinis moved to the United States, settling in northern California in 1980. They were joined by thousands of other Afghan refugees; over five million Afghans fled the country between 1979 and 1989. Hosseini was fifteen when his family arrived in the United States, and he spoke almost no English. His family had lost everything they had, and his father found work as a driving instructor. Although Hosseini enjoyed literature in school, he decided to pursue a career as a doctor, knowing that this was an honorable profession that would help him support his family. He graduated from medical school at the University of California in San Diego, then completed his residency at UCLA before setting up medical practice in Pasadena. As the extremist Taliban took control of Afghanistan in the late 1990s, Hosseini felt compelled to write something about his native country. While still practicing medicine full time, Hosseini began writing a novel. *The Kite Runner*, a story about two boys growing up in an Afghanistan torn apart by war and ethnic differences, was published in 2003. The novel became a huge international best-seller and was made into a movie in 2007. Hosseini returned to Afghanistan in 2003, after *The Kite Runner* was published. It was his first visit to his homeland in twenty-seven years, and while he was saddened to see the devastation that the war had wrought, he was inspired by the spirit of the people. He began working on his second novel, *A Thousand Splendid Suns*, shortly after his visit, and soon decided to give up his medical practice to focus on writing. While *The Kite Runner* focused on men in Afghanistan, Hosseini wrote *A Thousand Splendid Suns* to focus on the lives of Afghan women, who were particularly oppressed under the brutal theocratic Taliban government. The book was published in 2007 and, like his first novel, it has become an international best-seller. In 2006, Hosseini was named a U.S. special envoy for the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, and travels around the world to help refugees of war. He returned to Afghanistan for a second time in 2007 and was saddened that the country had become far less safe as terrorist activity was increasing.

Design

A descriptive comparative analysis of metaphorical discourses which convey the female identity in *A Thousand Splendid Suns* by Khaled Hosseini with Persian translation is performed based on

Newmark model (1988). The present research is one folded and used the qualitative and research methodology. Some metaphorical discourses in source texts and their related target text were collected, described, interpreted, and explained according to Newmark's (1988) model.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of Translational Procedures

ST: At her wedding, Mariam can only look down at the table where she can see her reflection and where every time she breathes out, the surface fogs and she disappears from her father's table. <u>This marriage will make her disappear both emotionally and physically.</u> (p.49)
TT.
در روز عروسی اش مریم سر به زیر انداخت و به میز نگاه میکرد و فقط انعکاس تصویر خودش را می دید. متوجه شد که هر بازدمش سطح میز را بخارالود می کند و عکس او از روی میز پدرش محو می شود. این ازدواج هم از لحاظ روحی و هم جسمی او را از بین خواهد برد. (ص 60)

Analysis: The translator used **transference** procedure, because 'Mariam' translated to 'مریم' in Farsi and didn't change, also the translator used **synonymy** procedure, Mehdi Qabraei translated the word 'disappear' into its near word 'از بین خواهد برد' in Farsi, because the word 'ناپدید شدن' didn't have meaning in (TT.).

The translator used **expansion** procedure, in his translation, he wrote 'مریم سر به زیر انداخت' while in (ST.) we don't have 'سر به زیر انداخت' in English, so the translator added this phrase into (TT.). Here, in these translations, the ideology of translator is rough translation about female identity. In his translation, he wanted to suppress the women's role, because he translated the underline metaphorical discourse into 'این ازدواج هم از لحاظ روحی و هم جسمی او را از بین خواهد برد' roughly and the translator wanted to terminate Mariam's life.

In this translation, the translator used **adapted metaphor** for translating metaphorical discourse. This metaphorical discourse has been adapted to (ST.) and was being used by speaker and it was translated to another adapted metaphorical discourse in (TT.).

ST: However when Rasheed goes to his room. He leaves Mariam to wait out the pain of losing her virginity; to look at the frozen stars in the sky and <u>a cloud that draped over the face of the moon like a wedding veil.</u> (p. 76)
TT.
با این حال وقتی رشید به اتاق خود رفت مریم را با درد از دست دادن بکارت تنها گذاشت تا به ستاره های یخ زده در آسمان و ابری که مثل توری عروس روی ماه را پوشانده بود زل بزند. (ص 86)

Analysis: In this translation, the translator applied the **shift/transposition** procedure, because grammatical structure changes in (TT.). In (ST.) There are simple tense verbs: 'goes' and 'leaves' but in translation, the translator used past tense verbs, 'goes' changes to 'رفت' and 'leaves' changed to 'تنها گذاشت'. Also the translator translated infinitive 'to look at' into 'زل بزند' in Farsi, it should be translated into infinitive not verb.

Qabraei used the **transference** procedure, because he transferd people's name from (ST.) directly into the (TT.) without translating them. Also he used **literal** procedure, because it is a word-for-

word translation and the discourse ‘the pain of losing her virginity’ was translated to ‘درد از دست دادن بکارتش’ in Farsi; so it is literal or word-for-word translation.

Here, the *loss of the light of the moon* is compared to the horrible way in which Rasheed uses his wife. Qabraei applied the expression ‘مریم را با درد از دست دادن بکارت تنها گذاشت’ in Farsi, he wanted to show unfavorable condition of Mariam in life and also wanted to reveal inattention of Rasheed to her wife. In this translation, the translator used **original metaphor** in translating metaphorical discourse, because these metaphors accounted for imaginative and figurative languages and the most appropriate procedure for their translation was to reproduce the same image in the target language.

Discussion

The translator uses transference, synonymy, expansion, shift/transposition, transference and literal procedure, but he applies transference more than other procedures. The translator sometimes applied harsh words to describe women’s situation in their life and his ideology was destroyed the female’s personality and he wanted to show that all Afghan’s women suffered in their life. Most of the time he used complex structure and he isn’t faithful to the ST. Sometimes, his ideology about women is negative. It seems that translator isn’t aware of women’s conditions in those days in Afghanistan, so he doesn’t use the verbs and adjectives intelligently.

CONCLUSION

Metaphor is a figure of speech that designates one thing and cannot be often translated literally. It is often used to make strong impact and play a very significant role in our everyday life and are among the most powerful and effective mechanisms in language. Metaphorical discourses represent a similarity, i.e. a common semantic field between two or more or less similar things-the image and object.

Studies of metaphorical discourse have been largely dedicated to issues such as the meaning, forms, and the role of metaphorical discourses. Applying Newmark’s theory of translational procedures, the researcher reflected the way the Iranian translator, Qabrai, translated the metaphorical discourse revealing female identity in the Persian translation of “A Thousand Splendid Suns” by Khaled Hosseini. This study revealed the translational procedures that the translator selected to render the ideologically-laden metaphorical discourse used by the Afghan writer, Khaled Hosseini. The analysis of translation related to some selected parts of the novel disclosed the procedures employed by the translator in manifesting the author’s attitude toward women and his ideologies regarding women.

This research is carried out using one novel with its translation to analyze the translating metaphorical discourse; therefore, we are limited to this book and the figures of speech that appear in it and also we are limited to one text type, which is the novel. Another limitation may be with the language analyzed. Readers may find it difficult to appreciate the explanation about Persian metaphors because Persian is a spoken language only in Iran and some of its neighboring

countries. The last one is a consideration of only metaphorical discourse that reveal female identity; Not all the metaphors.

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THE COMPARATIVE EFFECT OF USING SEMANTIC MAPPING AND MNEMONICS ON EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at examining the comparative effect of using mnemonic techniques and semantic mapping strategy on English as Foreign Language learners' vocabulary achievement. To fulfill this, 50 male students aged 13-16 were selected via administering Key English Test (KET) from among 70 conveniently sampled students of elementary EFL learners from a public language school in Tehran. They were then randomly divided into two experimental groups namely mnemonics and semantic mapping and received 12 sessions of instruction. The semantic mapping group was taught how to utilize semantic mapping, whereas the mnemonics group was taught to make use of mnemonic flashcards, while learning vocabulary. Finally, a post-test on vocabulary was conducted on both groups and an independent sample t-test analysis was conducted to see whether the treatments had a significantly different effect on learners' vocabulary achievement or not. The results of the statistical analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between using mnemonic techniques and semantic mapping strategy on EFL elementary learners' vocabulary achievement. In the past, vocabularies were usually learnt through rote-learning memorization and repetition which were ineffective and tedious but based on the outcome of this study, learners can utilize vocabulary achievement techniques and strategies such as mnemonics and semantic mapping which are influential and enjoyable.

KEYWORDS: semantic mapping strategy, mnemonic techniques, vocabulary achievement

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is an inseparable part of language (Shen, 2003). Therefore, the importance of the vocabulary learning must not be forgotten. Rivers (1981) stated that, "vocabulary cannot be taught. It can be presented, explained, included in all kinds of activities, but it must be learnt by individuals" (p. 28). There is a widespread agreement upon the need for learners to enhance their vocabulary knowledge (Allen, 1993; Coady, 1997; Laufer, 1998). For example, Laufer (1998) considers vocabulary as the heart of language learning and language use. Holden (2001) asserted, one of the difficult aspects in learning foreign language is the retention and retrieval of new words. Zinhong (2000) rightly claimed that students must discover a way to develop their lexicon and vocabulary knowledge; if they don't, they will lose their interest and motivation in learning L2. Or in the best scenario they will feel insecure in learning a foreign language (Morgan & Rinvolveri, 1986).

According to Nation (2004), memory strategies in the case of learning second or foreign language are considered vital in vocabulary teaching. Coady (1993) argued that, current methods and techniques which teachers are applying in their classes are almost ineffective and artificial, because these methods will not oblige the students to associate the new words and concepts in their minds together with the schema, which they already know. Therefore the crucial role of memory strategies such as semantic mapping and mnemonics which may expand second or foreign language learners vocabulary knowledge, must not be neglected.

Semantic mapping strategy

Semantic mapping is the process for constructing visual graphics of categories and their relationship (Novak & Growin, 1984). It is an approach which helps students to relate new words to their own experiences and prior knowledge. Semantic maps are visual graphics which represent the relationship between category of concepts (Jonassen, 1999) while the learners perform a particular learning task (Hall & Strangeman, 2002). They include a key concept (main idea), within categorized concepts connected to the key concept. The association between key concept and categorized concepts are showed visually in diagram or map. Antonacci (1991) claimed that, semantic mapping is a visual strategy for expanding vocabulary knowledge by presenting categorized words related to one another. Semantic mapping is an effective strategy to build up schema or prior knowledge in learners. Generally, the framework of semantic mapping includes: the concept word, two category examples, and other examples. The first researcher who designed and developed semantic mapping procedure to enhance the teaching of study skill was Hanf (1995). According to Debate (2006), semantic mapping strategy can make a summary out of the main ideas, and it can also help students to build up their schema which do not yet possess.

Mnemonics techniques

Mnemonics techniques are systematic procedures for enhancing the memory and making information more meaningful. "The word mnemonic means "aiding the memory". Thus a mnemonic system or technique is a system or technique which aids memory, and mnemonics refers in general to methods of memory improvement." (Higbee, 1975, p.611). Mnemonics are strategies that improve memory and their specific use is in developing better approaches to encode information, with associations among new and previously-acquired information in long-term memory, so this way will be much easier to retrieve and recall information (Zimbardo, Johnson, & weber, 2006). According to Ellis (1995), learners can improve their memorization of new words, if they use mnemonic strategies, such as visual methods, which contain pictures, visualization or imagining response method. Cohen and Apehek (1980) claimed that, association is a mnemonic link to some particular element(s) which would help individuals in recalling the particular vocabulary, this mnemonic links includes linking to meaning, sound, sound and meaning, structure, context, mental image, particular letter or letters in a word, proper names, signs and etc. The common technique in mnemonics refers to as Keyword method, which was proposed by Atkinson and his collaborators (Atkinson, 1975; Atkinson & Raugh, 1975; Raugh, Schupbach, & Atkinson, 1977).

However, the comparative effect of semantic mapping and mnemonics on learners' vocabulary achievement has not yet been argued. Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine which

one of these two vocabulary learning strategies has a more significant effect on learners' vocabulary achievement.

LITRETURE REVIEW

Studies on the effectiveness of semantic mapping strategy

One of the major benefits of semantic mapping is that it helps students to build their schema. For instance, Toms Bronowski (1983) found that middle grade students who learned new vocabulary through semantic mapping did better than students who relied upon other methods of learning vocabulary. Reutzel (1985) found semantic useful for representing story elements and it improved reading comprehension of fifth grade students. According to Troyer (1994), semantic mapping is an effective strategy in improving both the reading comprehension and writing performance of upper elementary school children. Broomley (1992) stated that mapping expands schema by allowing new information to be related to prior knowledge. Bos and Anders (1990) utilized semantic maps in study of metacognitive strategies with learning disabled students. They found out that the semantic mapping would be a effective instructional tool in the learning of content area concepts. Armbuster and Anderson (1984) argued that semantic mapping helps students to analyze the relationships between ideas in the text. Therefore, it facilitates comprehension and recall of information at a delayed period of time.

Studies on the effectiveness of mnemonic techniques

Several scholars were the major pioneers in the area of using mnemonics methods. (Bower, 1973; Atkinson, 1975; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1985; Richmond, Cumming & Klapp, 2008; Mastropieri, Scruggs, & Levin, 1986). Who then also sparked interest in utilizing mnemonics due to its effectiveness in improving and enhancing learners' vocabulary learning.

A study by Bower (1973) showed that mnemonic techniques were far more effective than simple rehearsal for remembering five successive list of twenty unrelated items, participants who used mnemonics remembered 72 items while the group using simple rehearsal only remembered 28 items.

Atkinson (1975) investigated the effect of linking acoustic mnemonic to imagery mnemonic among students learning Russian. The students were given an English word sounded similar to Russian word. They were then told to imagine that word interacting with the true definition of the word. Due to his successful results, Not only did this spark interest in using mnemonics as an teaching aid for teachers, but it also lead to a whole new application of mnemonics (Atkinson, 1975 p. 133; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1990).

After Atkinson's (1975) successful experiment, Scruggs, Mastropieri and Levine (1985) examined the effect of mnemonics on disabled children using acoustic, symbolic, mimetic and list learning mnemonics. The children who were taught through mnemonics outperformed the students taught trough standard or traditional methods. Scruggs and Mastropieri (1989) claimed that, Pictorial representations of material can also help to bypass verbal limitations.

Richmond, Cummings, and Klapp (2008) performed one of the only recent studies to investigate the effective of method of Loci, Pegword and Keyword method in classroom; a similar study to

Mastropieri, Scruggs, and Levin (1986). Mastropieri, Scruggs, and Levin (1986) found Keyword mnemonics very effective, that enhances students' retention. Loci and Pegword mnemonics had at least improvement on students' scores.

REASERCH QUESTION

Research question and null hypothesis of this study are as follow:

Is there any significant difference between the effect of using mnemonics and semantic mapping strategy on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement?

There is no significant difference between the effect of using mnemonics and semantic mapping on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement.

METHODOLOGY

Design

The design of the present study is quasi-experimental, since the participants were selected non-randomly. Besides there were two experimental groups in this study which were compared with each other, so the design of this research is comparison group design. Since just the post-test of the two experimental groups were compared, the design of the present study was post-test design. Also age and gender were the two control variable of the study.

Instrumentations

Key English Test (KET): first testing instrument was KET (2004) consisted of 72 items including three sections of reading (35 items), writing (10 items), listening (25 items) and speaking (2 parts). The allotted time for this test was an hour and thirty minutes. The test includes skills of grammar and structure, reading and vocabulary, writing and speaking.

Practice Book O: The main instructional material for both experimental groups was 'Practice Book O' published by McMillan and McGraw-hill (2007). It consists of 6 units, and all of the six units were taught to the participants.

Mnemonic flashcards: mnemonic flashcards, designed by Sarah Majors (2001), were used to teach unknown vocabularies to the first experimental group (mnemonics group).

Two Researcher-made Vocabulary Tests: a vocabulary test including 40-items was administered to the both experimental groups as a pre-test. At the end of the 12 sessions of instruction a posttest including 35-items was administered to both groups. The pre-test and posttest were parallel tests and all of their items were chosen from the main coursebook of this study. It's worth mentioning that both pretest and posttest were piloted with 25 participants prior to their main administration.

Procedure

Participants

Fifty elementary level male students aged 13-16 participated in this study. The KET test was piloted at the onset by 25 students similar to the target group. In order to carefully homogenize the participants of the study, a general proficiency test which was KET in this study, was given to 70 students and 50 of them who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected non-randomly as the target sample of the study. Those 50 students were divided into, two experimental groups- namely semantic mapping group and mnemonics group- each experimental group included 25 students.

Pre-treatment stage

First and foremost, the researcher piloted the KET to 25 elementary EFL learners with the age range of 13-16, with the almost same characteristics of the target samples. Due to calculating the reliability of the test, item facility, item discrimination and choice distribution were analyzed. 10 malfunctioning items were omitted and 72 items which were proper based on the estimation were used for homogenization. The reliability of the piloted KET turned out to be 0.89.

The piloted KET was administered to 70 participants then 50 out of 70 learners who had taken KET for homogenization scored one standard deviation above and below the mean and were chosen as the target sample in the study.

After homogenization, the participants took a researcher-made vocabulary test including 40 items, so that the researcher could find participants' unknown vocabularies from the test and exclude the known vocabularies from the treatment. After that, item facility, item discrimination, and choice distribution of the test were analyzed. Four items were either revised or replaced by better items. Therefore, the final version with the reliability index of 0.87 had 40 multiple choice items for the pretest.

The results of actual administration of vocabulary test showed that 5 items from part one of the test that were known to participants were excluded from the posttest.

In the next step, the researcher- randomly assigned 50 participants into two experimental groups. Each group took 12 sessions of instructions, each unit was taught in two sessions. So the time of the whole treatment for both experimental groups were 12 sessions and 45 minute portion of a standard 90 minute class was devoted to the treatment.

The first experimental group

The first experimental group was taught through Mnemonics. In the initial step of treatment, the researcher presented the unknown words through Mnemonic flashcards. The unknown word was written on each flashcard, along with the image which was related or associated with that word. The image helps the learners to get familiar with the new words. This strategy is expected to be useful for elementary learners to remember the unfamiliar words. After introducing the unknown words by the teacher, then the researcher asked the students to look at the flashcards and try to memorize the unfamiliar words by relating each image to each word.

When the students memorized the flash cards, then the learners engaged in two Mnemonic-based activities. The first one was called 'Taboo'. In this activity, the researcher divided the class into team A and B. Team A sat in a group on one side of the classroom. Team B sat on the other side. Then, the teacher put one chair in the front of each group, in the way that the whiteboard was behind the chairs. The members of each group took turns to sit down, in the way that their teammates were in front of them and the whiteboard was behind them. It was obligatory for the student who was sitting in the front of the members of his group, not to see the whiteboard, since he had to guess the words written on the board by the teacher. Once the teacher wrote the words on the board and yelled 'go' the teams had one minute, using only verbal clues, to get their seated teammate to say the item written on the board. The only rule was that the students who were using verbal cues, could not say the item written on board, fully or partially. If the student who was in the mentioned seat, uttered the word, he scored a point for his team.

After that, the teacher engaged the students in another activity called 'Pictionary'. The researcher asked one member of each team to go to board and then the teacher handed a written word to each one of the students. The students had one minute to get their team to say the item only by drawing the pictorial clues on the board. In this activity, written words, verbal clues, or gestures were forbidden. The first team who said the word scored a point.

Additionally, some of the units of the previously mentioned course book, Practice Book O, included Mnemonic rhymes. The teacher asked students to memorize the rhymes, so that they could remember the unknown words within the rhymes. Because in this way it might be easier for learners to memorize and recall the unfamiliar words, when they are presented in meaningful context. According to Rees (1977) "songs can effectively reinforce teaching by helping to practice and revise vocabulary, idioms, sentence patterns, pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation in a variety of language styles, and offer cultural background information ...without resource to barren drill".

The second experimental group

The second experimental group was taught through semantic mapping technique. After introducing semantic mapping strategy by the teacher, and when the learners got completely familiarized with this technique, the teacher asked the students to do their course book tasks and activities which were based on semantic mapping strategy. The course book included 30 semantic mapping-based tasks and activities. As all semantic mapping-based tasks and activities were based on the texts called "Home-School Connection", the learners needed "Home-School Connection" texts, to do each task and activity. Each session 2 to 3 Home-school connection texts were practiced.

The teacher asked their students to read the mini-story, and then they had to use semantic mapping strategy and made a web word connection between the main idea and details of the story by using the words and vocabularies which they already learned. For example if the text was about animals, the teacher asked students to categorize each animal (e.g. mammals, birds, fish, reptile, amphibians, etc.) based on their characteristics by drawing a web of word or maps to relate each animal to its category.

After introducing different categories of words, teacher used two semantic mapping-based activities. The first one was called 'outburst'. So, the researcher divided the class into teams A and B. The teacher assigned each team a particular topic (e.g. sports, vehicles, things in office) which is to be kept from the other team. Each team met for 5 minutes in private and collectively drew up a list of ten items related to topic. After the lists are made, the game begins. The teacher told team A the name of the team B's topic. Team A then had one minute to try to guess the items on team B's list (hence producing a noisy outburst). The members of team B must listened and ticked the items which team A manage to guess. For every word team A guessed correctly, they scored a point. For every word they missed, team B got the point. After the points were recorded, it was team B turn to guessed team A's list.

Teacher then tasked the students to do second activity called 'Categories'. The researcher divided the class into 3 or 4 teams and assigned secretary for each group. On one side of the board, wrote down six categories related to the current topic (e.g. sports, jobs, verbs, etc.). To start the game, the teacher randomly selected a letter of the alphabet. Each team must then work together to quickly find a word for each of six categories that started with chosen letter. The first team to complete all six categories shouted 'stop!' the class then stopped writing and a member of the team fill in the categories by using semantic maps. The teacher then checked each word with the class and also elicited what other teams had for each category. The team which filled more categories more quickly earned one point in each round. The teacher then chose a different category and another round were played. The researcher tried to implement to do as many rounds as possible in this game.

Post-treatment stage

A vocabulary achievement posttest was made by the researcher including 35 items which the learners showed that they were not familiar with on the pretest and were taught to them during the instruction. The test was administered at the end of the treatment. Students have to respond to part one, which included 20 items and part two, which included 15 fill in the blanks items. The allocated time was 30 minutes and each correct answer was given one point.

Prior to the actual administration, the vocabulary achievement posttest test was piloted with 25 participants who had the same characteristics of the main participants of the study. The reliability of the test was calculated through Kuder-Richardson formula and it turned out to be 0.84 .

It's worth mentioning that vocabulary pretest and posttest were parallel tests.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Following the data collection, the two experimental groups took a posttest so that their performance was evaluated after the treatment. Hence, an independent sample t-test analysis was conducted to see whether the treatments had a significantly different effect on learners' vocabulary achievement or not.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Posttest Scores

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Std. Error
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
posttestexp1	25	8.00	27.00	35.00	30.8000	2.70801	7.333	.257	.464
posttestexp2	25	7.00	25.00	32.00	28.8800	2.31517	5.360	-.389	.464
Valid N (listwise)	25								

According to the data, with a mean of 30.80, the first experimental group had outperformed the second experimental group who scored a mean of 28.80. The standard deviations equaled 2.70 and 2.31 respectively. Regarding the distribution of posttest scores, it could be seen that the ratio of skewness/std error of skewness fell between the range of -1.96 and 1.96 for both groups showing the normalcy of the scores distribution. Figures 1 and 2 below illustrate this.

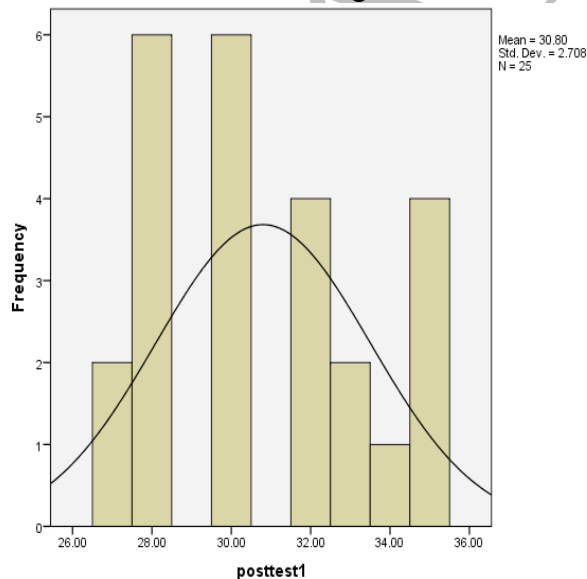


Figure 1: Distribution of Experimental Group 1 Posttest Scores

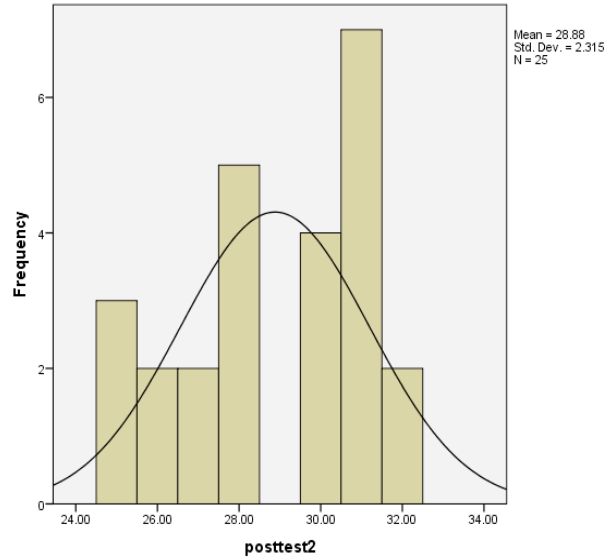


Figure 2: Distribution of Experimental Group 2 Posttest Scores

In order to investigate the null hypothesis of the study, an independent samples t-test was run. Table 2 illustrates the data.

Table 2: Independent Samples Test between Experimental Groups' Posttest Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
posttest	Equal variances assumed	.225	.638	1.858	48	.069	1.40000	.75369	-.11540	2.91540
	Equal variances not assumed			1.917	44.953	.062	1.40000	.73021	-.07075	2.87075

Considering the data in the Table, it is clear that the Sig value of Levene's test was larger than the critical value ($p=.638>.05$), therefore the line for equal variances was considered. With ($F=.225$, $t=1.858$, $p=.069$) it was confirmed that the two experimental groups were not significantly different in vocabulary achievement following the treatment. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study was not rejected.

The results of this research have shown that both of the vocabulary learning strategies (Mnemonics and semantic mapping) were able to effectively increase the students' vocabulary knowledge. A comparison of pre-test and post-test through independent samples t-test of both experimental groups showed elevation in scores and although, the students in mnemonic group performed slightly better than those in semantic mapping group, but there was not a significant difference between the two groups. Based on the statistical results p-value was greater than 0.05 ($P > 0.05$), which means that there was no statistically significant difference between the means of two experimental groups. Thus, the researcher was not able to reject the null hypothesis.

Therefore, the findings imply that Mnemonics and semantic mapping strategies promote vocabulary achievement for elementary level EFL learners. This means that there was no significant difference between EFL elementary learners who used visual memory strategies with those who used semantic mapping strategy.

This study showed the same outcome as the study of Banisaeid (2013). The study of Banisaeid (2013) was conducted to compare the effect of memory and cognitive strategies training on vocabulary learning of intermediate learners. The results of the study showed that there was no significant difference between the effect of cognitive and memory strategy training on intermediate EFL learners' word learning. In general, the findings suggested that memory strategy training and cognitive strategy training respectively enhance memory and cognitive strategy uses.

The finding of this research is also in line with the published study of Gains and Redman (1986). They claimed that visual aids are varied from of devices such as pictures, flashcard, drawings, photographs, tables, charts etc. are considered equally effective tools to make the vocabulary learning clear to learners.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study showed that participants in both experimental groups welcomed learning vocabularies through unfamiliar but exciting vocabulary strategies and they have disliked using routine and cliché ways of vocabulary learning. Although the results of this study did not prove any significant difference between the effect of mnemonics and semantic mapping on EFL elementary learners' vocabulary achievement, teachers of teenage learners can take the idea of specialists rote to exploration of the ways these techniques work for teenage learners. This means that the results of this study open up new horizons for teacher of teenage learners to dig into the special characteristics abilities and attitudes children bring with them into the classroom.

Since the participants of both experimental groups in this study improved their knowledge of vocabulary through the use of semantic mapping and mnemonics as vocabulary learning techniques and strategies, learners of English language should take the use of vocabulary achievement techniques and strategies into account, provided that they want to expand their terminologies. In the past, vocabularies were usually learnt through rote-learning memorization and repetition which were ineffective and tedious but the vocabulary achievement techniques and

strategies which are used these days, such as mnemonics and semantic mapping which were utilized in this study are influential and enjoyable.

As it was previously mentioned students are willing to focus on vocabularies through new strategies and techniques; and using such strategies can be used as motivating device for EFL young learners and therefore can improve their language skills and abilities. Thus, those responsible for designing syllabus and developing materials for EFL learners should include some exciting vocabulary strategies and techniques in a materials and syllabus in order to increase students learning excitements and abilities.

Because of the restrictions of Iranian school and language schools the researcher as a male was only allowed to teach to male students therefore, the participants of this study were only male students. It is worth mentioning that the researcher had access to only teenage students, so he was bound to do his research on teenagers.

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TECHNOLOGY IN EDUCATION: PROS AND CONS OF USING COMPUTER IN TESTING DOMAIN

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ABSTRACT

Computer-Based Testing (CBT), also known as computerized testing or computer administered testing, is a way of electronically delivering tests via computer in which the questions and answers are presented and recorded electronically. The interest of using computers in educational assessment called Computer-Based testing (CBT) is increasingly growing in recent years (Hashemi Toroujeni, 2016; Yan Piaw, 2012). Great innovative opportunities are created by computers in educational assessment through providing new assessment tasks as well as potentially powerful scoring, reporting and real-time feedback mechanisms (Khoshshima, Hosseini & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017; Scalise, K. & Gifford, B., 2006). Of course, while implementing computerized testing has some benefits, exams on computer cannot be said that are intrinsically better than PBT. In fact, some challenges such as the issues of reliability and validity always accompany computerized testing that makes it difficult to develop easily. Having surveyed the literature related to the crucial role of computer technology in language testing domain, the author of the present research noticed that some sets of issues have repeatedly appeared in most of the studies. To examine all these areas in details is not contained in this research, but a brief definition is given for each of them to give a clearer image of the role of computer in language testing.

KEYWORDS: Computer-Based Testing (CBT); Paper-and- Pencil-Based Testing (PBT)

INTRODUCTION

Many attempts have been made to reach a comprehensive and practical definition of the role of technology in educational context and classroom. Actually, it is not possible to avoid from the

impacts of technology and technological tools on the way of teaching and learning. In fact, technological innovation that has happened in academic researches is transforming the universities, schools, and educational centers' way of teaching and also the learners' way of learning. Educational technology has mainly three components including technology as teaching tool, learning tool and testing tool. Regarding to the aforementioned applications and benefits of technology, Lowther et al., (2012) state the educational technology has not been yet successful to get its right place. One of the practical use of computer as an effective technology is in educational testing domain. In testing domain, computer is used to deliver the test on screen rather than paper. Then, in computerized version of tests the mode of administration is changed into screen. Computer-Based Testing (CBT), also known as computerized testing or computer administered testing, is a way of electronically delivering tests via computer in which the questions and answers are presented and recorded electronically. The interest in developing and using computers in educational assessment in schools and educational institutions called Computer-Based testing (CBT) is increasingly growing in recent years (Hashemi Toroujeni, 2016; Yan Piaw, 2012). According to some researchers, delivering tests via computer medium is becoming more and more prevalent in educational assessment domain as changes and improvements are made in assessment methodologies that reflect practical changes in pedagogical methods (Genc, 2012; Hsiao, Tu & Chung, 2012; OECD, 2010). Great innovative opportunities are created by computers in educational assessment through providing rich and new assessment tasks as well as potentially powerful scoring, reporting and real-time feedback mechanisms (Scalise & Gifford, 2006).

The constant development of the efficiency of available testing approaches that are usually achieved through enhancement of computers' effectiveness to record, gather and analyze test scores caused improvement and extension of computerized testing (Chapelle, 2008, p.127). After using computer has increased extensively by turning into mass-consumed commodity in early 1990s (Lynch, 2000), development of computing technology has been accelerated. Use of computerized version of test is constantly increasing and gaining predominant role in testing domain due to the great availability and computational capability of modern computers and related technological tools. Of course, it should be noticed that while implementing computerized testing has some benefits and advantages such as easy handling and scoring of electronic files over conventional paper-pencil testing, exams on computer cannot be said that are intrinsically better than PBT. In fact, some challenges always accompany computerized testing that makes it difficult to develop and implement a computer-based testing program. If an exam is to be administered onscreen, some administrative procedures should be considered. A noticeable requirement concerning CBT administration is test administration site; it means that enough number of computers should be provided in the site in which the test is going to be managed. Hardware and software platforms, test security, time limits, and other issuers are the other significant requirements that should be provided and carefully considered to manage a test volume. Moreover, the important issues of reliability and validity should be investigated for developing new computerized version of a paper exam. Anyway, the improvements achieved in various methodologies of assessments and developments in administrating test via computers caused an increase in the rate of delivering tests and assessments to the people in educational

systems through more powerful microcomputers and modern technological tools (Genc, 2012; OECD, 2010).

Unique features such as errorless high speed data processing had made computer using popular in education field in last decades. More developments of computer technology and improvements of psychometrics have facilitated use of computerized tests in language domains. Due to the impressive role and influence of computer on education, testing that has a direct correlation with teaching has been continuously moving to computerization. Use of computer in language testing created a new concept and branch of testing called CALT (Computer-Assisted Language Testing). Nowadays, many organizations are converting their conventional way of administrating tests into computer-based tests. One of these organizations is ETS (English Testing Service) that is offering computerized equivalents of GRE and PRAXIS exams in around 180 countries. The computerized form of TOEFL exam has been releasing since 1998 (for more information about the recent developments in TOEFL, the readers can visit the <http://www.toefl.org> website).

ADVANTAGES OF COMPUTER-BASED TESTING

Advantages of computerized testing are confirmed by empirical evidences. Conventional group-administered tests will no longer be necessary in the future due to the possibility of implementing computerized language tests individually. In the following sections, some well-established administrative and pedagogical advantages and disadvantages of computer based testing are listed. Since Computer-Based Testing (CBT) offers several advantages over its conventional Paper-and-Pencil-Based Testing (PBT) delivery counterpart, it is consistently becoming popular in English language which is the result of several centuries of development (Zare Behtash & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017) and the most important and powerful language of technology and science (Mohamadian & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017) as well as testing domain. Computerized test can be manipulated in such a way that allows test takers to choose when they take a test. It also provides the conditions for cooperative learning which is one of the most significant practices in education (Khoshshima & Saed, 2014). Some troublesome burdens such as providing test takers with allotted time and place of test, going a long distance to present at the place of test at the specified time, sending test materials to various locations and places in which the test is supposed to be administered, sending back the answer sheets to the centers in which the tests are supposed to be scored and analyzed, sending the results back to test takers and etc. that are arisen from implementing conventional version of a test need much more energy, time and money than implementing the computerized versions. Computerized versions of tests are also capable of collecting metrics such as test and item latency rates that paper-pencil based tests cannot. The popularity of CBT can be due to the existence of some unpleasant traditional assessment tasks such as test items creation and presentation, answer collection and scoring, statistical analysis, and storage, transmission, and retrieval of information in PBT. Of course, these difficulties are eased up by some efficient practical and operational functions of computers that are applied in designing, scoring and analyzing computerized tests (Jamieson, 2005).

Among the advantages offered by onscreen way of test delivery, presenting uniform and consistent information to all examinees upon how to take the most appropriate measures in taking

the test is a crucial issue. In CBT, the same particular and exact directions and test materials are given to all examinees without any regarding to whenever and wherever they take the test. Delivering uniform and consistent directions and test materials help test takers overcome their aversion and confusion during all the time they are taking the test.

Individualizing test experience can be seen extensively in CAT (Computer-Adaptive Testing) in which the process of selecting the next question item is tailored and adapted based on the current level of test takers' knowledge and ability. Selecting the next item in CAT is based on the test taker's answer to the previous question items. CAT is also taken at wherever and whenever test takers are convenient by providing them for working at their own pace.

In conventional test, input materials are extensively presented in texts. But, the notable opportunity of providing test takers with test materials in different forms of text, audio, video and graphics in CBT ease up implementing tests in modern computerized version of testing. Besides, it is easier to improve the authenticity and enhance the interaction between examinees and their communicative language capability in CBT. Detailed and immediate diagnostic feedback is also provided to test takers individually during and after the test via computer medium, and resources are reduced by replacing human resources with computer resources. CBT offer the possibility of immediate feedback by instant test scoring (Bennett, 2001, 2003; Hashemi Toroujeni, 2016).

One of the reasons of the growing popularity of CBT is that computerized version of test reduce cheating by easier manipulation and administration of CBT than PBT. Especially in computer-adaptive language testing, the security is more improved. Due to the adaptive paradigm of this kind of test, larger item pool is used. Since question items are selected for test takers from the item pool based on their previous answers and knowledge ability, test takers answer different questions individually. Hence, the chance of cheating is greatly reduced.

CBT saves time of supervising and marking. Printing costs are reduced. Some hints can be incorporated into question items and the progress of learners can be monitored by instructors. Detailed automatic feedback can be given to test takers as soon as the test is terminated. Test results in CBT can help instructors to assign various tasks to learners. Test takers' learning behaviors can be supervised and tracked more easily in CBT. Test results can be recorded and stored electronically for a longer time. CBT provides more flexible and comfortable testing environment than PBT. The accuracy of computer in scoring and reporting the results is better. The reason that CBT is considered better tool to provide good learning and evaluating environment is that according to learning theory, learners learn more effectively if they are actively engaged in learning process such as interaction and are given immediate feedback.

According to Brown (1997), use of computerized tests in second or foreign language testing domain has been initiated in the early 80's. In fact, the increasing rate of using computer in testing domain shows that language learners and other language testing practitioners have generally positive attitudes towards using computers in the classroom (Khoshshima & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017). Then, computerized testing whose proved benefits and advantages over conventional form of tests are well known has been shown to reduce the required time to

complete a test (Bodmann & Robinson, 2004; Hamilton, et al., 2000); to obtain more effective information about individual test takers (Wise & Plake, 1989); to increase test security (Grist, Rudner, & Wise, 1989); to provide instant scoring by providing new scoring procedures (Goldberg & Pedula, 2002; Khoshshima & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017; Hashemi Toroujeni, 2016); and to be implemented easier than PBT.

Therefore, it is thought that computerized assessments can provide a very good learning and assessing environment. Accordingly, good learning environment and effective instruments can enhance students learning (Khoshshima & Rezaeian Tiyar, 2014). In last decades, computer technology and related technological tools have been extensively utilized in testing language discipline to analyze obtained scores and results quickly (McNamara, 1991). Peat and Franklin (2002) believe that the use of formative and summative computerized assessment leads to important advantages for both staff and students. Staffs are engaged more in interacting and communicating with students and consequently students enjoy opportunities to gain extensive and immediate feedback at the time that test is terminated. Since the most effective way to teach a language is providing the environment in which the learners can employ the real language use (Khoshshima & Sadighi Tasuj, 2014), the computer can be used in educational contexts to provide such effective environment for learning so that the students become more competent to be able to talk into the foreign or second language (Khoshshima & Sayadi, 2016).

Moreover, the cost effective and powerful microcomputers that are currently available in most educational contexts make test delivery via computer medium both feasible and attractive (Alderson, 1991; Anandam, 1994). It seems from test takers' acceptance of computerized testing that the perceived benefits of computerized tests outweigh the perceived benefits and advantages of paper-pencil tests. But just enthusiasm, acceptance and preference of onscreen tests do not make them valid. It is worth mentioning that Alan C. Bugbee, Jr. has administered some computerized tests in seven years. He reported that just one test taker out of a total number of over 319,000 test takers has firmly asserted a real preference for conventional paper-pencil administration over computerized administration of test (Bugbee, 1989).

Then it is wise to reach the conclusion that the concept of testing via computer medium has the endorsement of test takers, users and test developers. Besides, a computer administered version of a test would not be completely identical to the PBT version and would not result in the same scores, even though the test items and order of presentation of test questions are exactly the same. Several studies shows that slight changes in the appearance of an item can affect performance on that item. There is no guarantee that item difficulty, for example, is indifferent to mode of presentation (Green, Bock, Humphreys, Linn, & Reckase, 1984, p. 355).

In addition to the aforementioned benefits, the other advantages of CBT include: the requirement of standardized conditions and easily manipulated test items to arrive at a more accurate estimation of test takers' language proficiency, higher security of test due to administering a different set of test items for each student, availability of immediate feedback, reduction of scheduling and supervision concerns for high-stakes tests due to the possibility of individual administration, improvement of test taking motivation, reduction of average test score differences

across ethnic groups and storage of test takers' performance data to be tracked over time. Rather than PBT, computerized testing is frequently preferred to take by test takers (Higgins, Russell & Hoffman, 2005; Ito & Sykes, 2004). Scoring the test by computer is not prone to the errors made by human resources. It is possible for teachers to monitor the learners' progress through administering frequent tests and it is also possible for learners to monitor their own progress at their own pace.

CHALLENGES OF COMPUTER-BASED TESTING

Among the disadvantages of computerized tests, the risk of plagiarism in online tests (test takers are not easily authenticated), lack of IT skills and experience of the requirements of CBT, the need of high level of organization across all parties such as academic, support, staff, computer services and administrators involved in assessment, the need of training in assessment design, IT skills and examination management for assessors and investigators, computer anxiety, technical malfunctions, and absence of instructor when test takers have questions about an issue or when they are confused by the language of the problems, can be mentioned. Limited access to computers is a challenge to administer the CBT. Internet connection and technological equipment to administer online tests may not be available in all settings (Bugbee & Bernt, 1990). Some other challenges that may pose problems for test takers of CBT are screen sizes of computers and the quality of computer graphics and screen resolution. Actually, different hardware and software requirements that are used in various testing environments and settings may even vary from one computer to the next in the same testing environment (Bennet, 2003). According to Chapelle and Douglas (2006), validity of CBT can be challenged in two ways. The first one is that the final performance and measurement of learners' language ability resulted from CBT may not be the same as the resulted performance received from its PBT counterpart. The second one is that the items designed and presented in CBT may be different from the items that are constructed and developed in other formats. Therefore, the common conceptions that are applied to the validity of CBT may not be applied to the validity of tests presented in other formats due to the unique features of computer technology (Chapelle and Douglas, 2006).

GUIDELINES FOR COMPUTER-BASED TESTING

Popular computerized testing has been increasingly implemented across the world so far. Countries such as United States of America and United Kingdom have seriously initiated the use of computer in their testing and assessment environments since around three decades ago and have the benefit of comparability research on such a test based on computer. According to American Educational Research Association (AERA), in the case of using more than one way of different ways of implementing a test or recording the marks and results obtained from the test (such as marking the right answers in a booklet, separate answer sheet, or onscreen) the guidelines and instructions should express obviously that the scores received from these ways are equivalent and interchangeable (American Educational Research Association, 1999, p. 70).

The chronological list of some documents about different entities and matters on CBT as the guidelines that were published on computerized assessment is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Published Guidelines for Computerized Assessment

Year	Publisher	Title of Publication
1986	American Psychological Association	Guidelines for Computer-Based Tests and Interpretations
1999	American Educational Research Association/ American Psychological Association/ National Council on Measurement in Education	Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing
2002	British Standards Institution	A Code of Practice for the Use of Information Technology for the Delivery of Assessments
2002	Association of Test Publishers	Guidelines for Computer-Based Testing
2002	British Psychological Society	Guidelines for the Development and Use of Computer-Based Assessments
2005	International Testing Commission	International Guidelines on Computer Based and Internet Delivered Testing

(As adapted from web article published by CTB/McGraw-Hill, 2010)

APA (American Psychological Association) is one of the several professional testing organizations that issued recommendations known as Guidelines for Computer-based Tests and Interpretations to produce equivalent CBT to its conventional counterpart in 1986. This set elucidates shared common Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing on computerized version of testing published in 1985 (AERA, et al., 1999). Among the guidelines published by several organizations, the International Test Commission (2004) and the American Psychological Association (1986) devoted their standards and guidelines to CBT exclusively. The specific goal of all these guidelines issued by various professional testing organizations is to guide all the people involved in testing domain to consider the maximum comparability and equivalency between two different modes of testing administration.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY IN COMPUTER-BASED TESTING

To estimate validity and reliability of tests used in many studies is a key issue that the researchers are commonly encountered. These two variables are two significant features of behavioral measurements used in social and human sciences. They are referred to as psychometric variables. According to Fulcher, institutions conceptualize validity as the recognition of test (Fulcher, 2009). It is worth mentioning here that validity and reliability are not just an all or none issue. Actually, they are considered as a matter of degree. Validity is defined as the degree and the extent to which a specific test is intended to measure. As an instance, a mathematic test that is given to the test takers in English and test takers are wanted to write their answers in English is not valid. This is because test takers' English knowledge would be tested rather than testing their abilities in Mathematics. Regarding to this point, "Is the test valid?" is a wrong general question. The right question is "how valid is the test for the decision that I have to make?" In a special context in which the validity is considered, three points should be studied. In fact, these three points including form of the test, purpose of the test, and the target population of the test are significant aspects of validity. Converting a conventional PBT into a computerized version turns into a problematic issue when validity matter appears. In fact, test validity and constructing valid tests are the main issues and concerns in utilizing CBT. Johnson and Green state that just a CBT

that is matched with its counterpart's validity and reliability can assist the test taker to fulfill his/her needs (Johnson & Green, 2006). The reason of doing many comparability studies between CBT and PBT is exactly to evaluate validity and reliability issues (Al-Amri, 2009; Khoshshima & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017a; Khoshshima, Hosseini & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017).

Anyway, no empirical evidence confirms producing less valid test by constructing CBT. Instead, some other external variables with no or very little relationship with the goals of testing that are considered by test designers may influence the test and validity. Validity of a language skill test may become a critical issue. As an instance, the validity of a computerized reading comprehension test can be more problematic and turns into a more crucial issue than its conventional counterpart. This is because reading texts on screen can be an exhausting and boring job due to the inability of test taker to view larger sections of the texts on screen in CBT than in PBT. The attempt to find the larger sections of the text and to comprehend the whole text that may take more energy and memory influences test takers' performance. Hence, to reach the developments in computerized language testing field, validity issue should be emphasized, and the resulted scores received from CBT version should not be influenced by the administration mode of testing. In this regard, comparability studies are required to examine the effect of administration mode of testing on performance of test takers.

Like validity, as stated, reliability is a degree too. But this is a degree to which a test constantly and steadily measures what it is intended to measure. In other words, a test is reliable when it gives constantly the same results under the same conditions. For example, Mathematics test that gives three various marks on three successive occasions without applying any change on the test is not a reliable test. There are some procedures such as test-retest, parallel form and other methods based on which a test constructor can decide whether the test is reliable. According to Bachman and Palmer, the degree to which a test produces reproductive and consistent results is defined as reliability (Bachman & Palmer, 2000). Based on the delivered definition of reliability, the advantages and benefits of CBT outweigh the benefits of conventional administration mode of testing. This point is true when the conventional version of testing does not include objective ways of scoring.

COMPUTER-BASED TESTING (CBT) VS. PAPER-AND-PENCIL-BASED TESTING (PBT)

As it was indicated by several studies, using computerized testing, especially in education and language domain, is continuously increasing (e.g. Khoshshima & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017; Hashemi Toroujeni 2016). The study on the development of computerized testing done by Florida Department of Education shows that using CBT was seriously started in early 1980 (Florida Department of Education, 2006). Advantages of CBT such as more productive and well-organized administration of test, more efficient and manageable scheduling, quicker scoring and manageable reporting results, immediate feedback and more accuracy to examine test takers' abilities motivated many teachers and other test practitioners to use it (Wan et al., 2009, P.1).

Among the international computerized tests, the Graduate Records Examination (GRE) and College Level Examination Program (CLEP) that were supposed to aid graduate school

admission decisions in 1992 and to aid placement decisions for undergraduate students, respectively, have been computerized and implemented by the pioneer organizations that decided to convert their conventional form of testing into computerized version. IBT version of TOEFL test is another example of computerized test that has been implementing for several years internationally.

When computerized versions of examinations have appeared, researchers began making comparisons between PBT and CBT. Consequently, comparability studies were conducted to study the “testing mode effect”. To assess the testing mode administration effects on scores obtained from two versions of the same test and consequently on the performance of test takers, more conventional tests are converted to computerized versions. Since the reduction of testing mode effects is necessary and beneficial to test practitioners due to the desirability of accurate measurement rather than inaccurate one, extensive body of research with mixed results on the comparability of test modes have being done.

Translation of paper and pencil assessment tools into computerized versions often requires that the computerized form be comparable to the conventional paper and pencil one and the scores and the results obtained from two identical test forms approximate to each other. Interchangeability is required when students may take the same test in either mode (CBT/McGraw-Hill, 2003, p. 1). In fact, the validity of a computerized version of a test must be proved by the same methods of validity determination for its conventional counterpart that pointed out by 1985 Standards of Guidelines. Since computerized forms of standardized tests are making available, users may have the choice between taking the test in either mode. Mazzeo and Harvey (1988) are actually the first pioneers of comparability studies of PBTs and CBTs who provided one of the earliest reviews of comparability studies including some 30 comparability studies done on different types of tests such as intelligence, aptitude, personality and achievement ones. Their review shows that modes of testing administration have a considerable effect on speeded tests, but actually no effect has been seen on power tests. Some other studies showed similar results and asserted that substantial testing mode effect was seen in speeded tests (Pomplun, Frey, & Becker, 2002) but non-speeded short answer or objective tests, regardless of item format, are not liable to substantial testing mode effects (MacCann, 2006; Wang, Jiao, Young, Brooks, & Olson, 2007).

Anyway, as the related literature is reviewed, the empirical evidences are found that show two identical PBT and CBT are not always resulted in the same scores. Such conclusions are referred to as “the effect of testing administration mode” or “testing mode effect”. According to the conclusions that Poggio and his colleagues reached, some factors had a great share to change from conventional testing mode to the CBT format. They enumerated some of them such as less time needed to report the scores, more opportunities to assess learners, improved security, saving the printing costs that are needed to administer a conventional test, and easier administering test (Poggio et al., 2005). Bodmann and Robinson conducted a research to see which testing administration mode’s advantages overweigh the other testing mode. They reported some advantages of CBT over PBT such as easier administration, scoring and reporting results, better standardized conditions to administer a test, more improved cheating. They also concluded that

Computer-Based Testing is faster than Paper-and-Pencil-Based Testing to assess learners (Bodmann and Robinson, 2004). Because of the aforementioned advantages, CBT is gaining more popularity than PBT in testing environments. Some other studies have found lower scores on CBT compared with PBT (Mazzeo, Druessne, Raffield, Checketts, & Muelstein, 1991; Russell, 1999), higher scores on CBT compared with PBT (Clariana & Wallace, 2002; DeAngelis, 2000; Khoshshima & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017; Pomplun, Frey, & Becker, 2002), better performance in PBT rather than CBT (Hosseini et al., 2014) or no testing mode effects at all (Mason, Patry, & Bernstein, 2001). Although obtained findings are not entirely conclusive, there seems to be a trend indicating that the two versions are comparable across the administration mode (Khoshshima, Hosseini & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017; Paek, 2005; Wang, Jiao, Young, Brooks, & Olson 2007, 2008). Different hypotheses have been advanced by the researchers of the testing domain to explain such effects of testing mode administration. For examples, time limits of testing, test difficulty, cognitive processes required by test, and presence or absence of test administrator are influencing factors that may lead to testing mode effects. Clariana and Wallace (2002) found out that even two exact versions of the same test would not necessarily lead to the equivalent scores and measures of students learning. They also pointed out that much time, cost, and attempts are required to reduce testing mode effects on test takers' performance (p.44). Converting PBT into CBT should be done through carefully well-organized empirical investigations. The empirical investigations examine the existence of distinctive effects that are caused by changing administration mode from conventional PBT to modern CBT. Conducting these kinds of comparability investigations help test practitioners to see if the scores obtained from computerized tests remain valid and that students are not disadvantaged by taking CBT.

Second language reading ability has been investigated in a comparability study of paper and computerized versions of the test conducted by Al-Amri (2009). Measuring the comparability of both versions of second language reading achievement test showed no significant discrepancy between two testing modes. The findings of the comparability research between test scores of CBT and PBT that was done by Al-Amri among undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia indicate that although students performed better in PBT, no significant difference was found between mean scores of two versions of a test. To reach the answers for his research hypotheses, Al-Amri used t-test to compare the scores received from PBT and CBT, correlation analysis to examine possible relationship between some external variables and CBT scores, ANOVA to compare scores obtained from various groups and content analysis to analyze qualitative data. He also used within-subject group to prevent the influences of individual differences on test performance. Like this study, not only he investigated the score differences between PBT and CBT, but also he examined the relationship between some external variables such as computer familiarity, computer attitudes, testing mode preference, and kinds of testing strategies taken on CBT performance. The results of his research show no significant relationship between attitude and familiarity with computer and test performance on CBT. He also concluded that test takers needed more various test taking strategies in CBT than in PBT (Al-Amri, 2009).

A similar study done by Anakwe showed no significant differences between scores received from test takers who took two CBT and PBT versions. Within subject group method was used in this

study to reduce the influences of individual differences. In this study, 75 test takers took two tests including one in CBT form and one in PBT format (Anakwe, 2008).

In a research that was done in Iran, Hosseini and her colleagues (2014) utilized an available standard computer-based testing system named SAD that has been used in the PNU (Payam-e Noor University). They used within-subject group method among Iranian undergraduate students with wider range of age. In addition to the differences between the scores of two versions of the same test, she studied the relationship between testing preference, computer experience and attitudes towards the use of computer and the scores obtained from CBT. The findings of her research indicated high positive attitudes towards computer and high familiarity with computer and positive preference for CBT. But no association was found between these external variables and testing performance of test takers on CBT. Then, the idea of no relationship between these factors and testing performance on CBT was supported in their research (Hosseini et al., 2014).

ANALYSIS OF CHABAHAR MARITIME UNIVERSITY'S CBT

In a research project conducted in Chabahar Maritime University (CMU) in Iran, two sets of scores received from two modes of testing administration i.e. PBT & CBT were compared to determine whether computerized testing affected student's achievement. In fact, mode effect on testing performance of test takers was investigated. Mode effect is defined as a discrepancy that is recognized between the PBT and CBT testing modes. Clariana and Wallace (2002) define mode effect as the "empirical evidence that identical paper-based and computer-based tests will not obtain the same results" (p. 593). As it was mentioned, the study conducted in CMU compared the test scores of the students' vocabulary knowledge who took the computer-administered Vocabulary in Use test to the test scores of students who took the same test in the conventional paper-and-pencil manner using score sheets to record answers. Then, the researcher proposed that in the case of existing difference between mean scores or mean ranks of two sets of scores, some major external moderator variables could affect testing performance. So, he opted for the most common constructs related to the computerized testing performance. Therefore, the major section of the aforementioned study was devoted to the variables that were considered as the constructs might have impact on CBT performance of test takers. The correlation of four constructs with CBT performance including familiarity with computer, attitude towards the use of computer, computer aversion and testing mode preference of the research participants was also examined (Hashemi Toroujeni, 2016).

The research for comparability of paper-based and Computer-based vocabulary assessment for EFL learners has not been taken serious in Iranian universities so far. In several comparability studies done to compare the results of PBT and CBT, some researchers declare that two versions of the test were comparable (Hashemi Toroujeni, 2016; Higgins et al., 2005; Khoshshima, Hosseini & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017; Wang et al., 2008). On the other hand, some others claim they are not (Clariana & Wallace, 2002; Hosseini et al., 2014; Khoshshima & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017; Pommerich, 2004). Here, we look in a comparability study conducted in the Iranian academic context in details. In the study done by Hashemi Toroujeni (2016) in Chabahar Maritime University (CMU), 80 research participants were assigned to two testing groups who

were given two versions of the test in a counter-balanced design. The order of testing sessions was reversed for two testing groups to examine the effect of test order on CBT performance of testing group.

According to the findings that were resulted from both parametric (mean score-based) and nonparametric (rank-based) tests, no significant difference was found between PBT and CBT performance of test takers. The results of the research supported the comparability of PBT and CBT scores in higher educational contexts. Secondly, computer familiarity, computer attitude and aversion had no significant relationship with CBT performance among Iranian graduate students studying in state universities. In fact, it was demonstrated that those factors had not impact or interaction on computerized counterpart of PBT. Thirdly, no interaction between testing mode preference and testing performance on CBT was found. Furthermore, the results of interview data were in line with the quantitative findings. It means that although most of the participants showed high preference for CBT, they did not have better performance on this mode of testing administration (Hashemi Toroujeni, 2106).

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this review research was to examine some advantages and disadvantages of Computer-Based Testing and to investigate the equivalency of test results received from CBT and PBT by comparing the test scores of two modes of testing administration. The researchers should conduct independent investigation of cross-mode comparability to ensure that the cross-mode comparability is supported by convincing evidence. In some comparability studies conducted in Iranian academic context, in addition to establishing the cross-mode comparability of the PBT and CBT versions the test for Iranian university students, the research made some other critical contributions to the research literature (Hashemi, 2016; Khoshshima, Hosseini & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017; Khoshshima & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017a,b). For example, in two of these studies, based on the findings of the studies, it was concluded that some external factors were not relevant to the CBT performance and other factors should be considered for improving CBT testing environment (Hosseini et al., 2014; Khoshshima & Hashemi Toroujeni, 2017).

Moreover, computer technology is considered effective and practical tool for educational objectives in 21st century. This viewpoint may lead to accept it blindly. However, in testing domain, if the practitioners fail to consider all aspects of it, this opportunity may be changed to an obstacle. The blind tendency or acceptance of the computer technology could be the reason why Iranian students show high preference towards CBT mode while they outperformed in the traditional version of the test i.e. PBT.

Although applying computer-based testing in educational contexts may be difficult due to some limitations such as weak computer literacy, the high cost of facilities, and extra training to educators, curriculum developers, test designers, teachers, educators and all those who can make decisions in educational settings are recommended to use computerized exams in their programs. It seems that better results is obtained by including CBT in lower levels of education such as elementary schools as the common tool of assessment.

Language institutes may also enjoy the findings of the study because applying computer both in teaching and testing domains simultaneously develop the sense of using new learning strategies that may have positive influences on the performance of institutes' students. Consequently, they can make their English learners more ready for doing computerized and online TOEFL, IELTS, GRE, or similar determinant exams. Teachers, instructors and professors are also suggested to become more familiar with technological tools to use them to implement their quizzes, midterms, and finals. Hashemi (2106) states that the current limitations of computer analyses of human language do not allow us to address directly the more important assessment of communicative competence. Additionally, in conjunction with the linear model of computerized multiple-choice vocabulary knowledge test, the proposed study was confined to the linear scoring approaches to examine the score equivalency of CBT and PPT. More sophisticated approaches such as Computer-Adaptive Testing (CAT) are suggested to be used in the future studies. Although some variables such as computer anxiety, prior computer attitude, testing mode preference, prior computer familiarity, and gender should be considered in comparability studies, many other related variables such as ethnicity, intelligence, affective and motivational factors, test anxiety, test effects, test order effects, testing comfort levels, differences in testing conditions, cognitive processing, characteristics of computers being used, screen size and resolution, font characteristics, line length, number of lines, interline spacing, white space, scrolling, item review and item presentation that may influence the measured performance of the participants are recommended for further research. Another suggestion is to test other language skills such as reading skill in a more comprehensive study in order to widen the insights to the language testing in comparability studies.

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THE CHALLENGES FACING LEGAL TRANSLATORS/ INTERPRETERS AT IRAQI COURTS

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the challenges by legal translators/ interpreters at the Iraqi Commercial Courts in Baghdad, Najaf and Basrah. The paper starts with an introduction about the subject, and the general characteristics of the legal translators in general, and an ample clarification about the translation in a legal setting. Then the paper tackles the real challenges facing the translator/interpreter in the legal setting of these commercial courts, and provides ways to overcome these challenges. The paper shows that the challenges and problems can be overcome, although sometimes at a cost in the rendering of the meaning in the TL.

KEYWORDS: *legal translation, translation challenges, interpretation, equivalence.*

INTRODUCTION

With the regime change in 2003, and the financial openness policy adopted by Iraq to attract foreign investment, Iraq sought to achieve a real economic growth that can create jobs and refresh its long time war and sanctions stricken economy. Baghdad Commercial Court was established by the Higher Judicial Council in 2010. The jurisdiction of the Court states, according to Article 22 of the Iraqi Judicial Regulation Code (160) 1979, that the commercial court tackles commercial cases related to foreign, not local investment. The court was entitled with two types of cases conditions: (1) There must be a foreign element in the dispute, (2) It must be of a commercial nature. Any case that meets these two requirements will be accepted for arbitration. Iraq now has three commercial courts in Baghdad, Najaf, and Basrah, and they undertake the commercial cases. They have resolved a great amount of cases. The commercial courts in Baghdad, Basra and Najaf tackle cases related to the oil industry and religious tourism.

This paper tries to shed light on the challenges facing the legal translators in the cases put before the commercial courts, as well as introducing translation/interpreting in the legal setting, and how translators/interpreters should behave, and what are the rules and methods they should follow to produce better translations or interpreting that can serve resolving these cases.

Translation in a legal setting

This effect of translation/interpretation in general, has an immense positive effect on the continuity and smoothness of the trial and proceedings. It is a great thing to happen from the legal point of view. It enables the trial procedures to go faster, and creates a better communication atmosphere. This might be considered as the major point whereby the court can overcome the barrier of the foreign language, and make the trial go further. The hearings stated in English, are translated into Arabic at the court in an efficient way so that the meaning is conveyed through the bridge of translation.

In his book *Justice as Translation: An Essay in Cultural and Legal Criticism*, James White proposes that the classical hypothetical view that, in translation, anything stated in one language can be stated in another, is not right all the times, and can not be applied as a generalization. Language is a set of encoded messages that need to be decoded in a delicate way, so that the meaning is transferred. Languages do not have the same linguistic, semantic and syntactic tools. There must be devices to decode the encoded messages in a certain language, so that they can flow easily. We must ignore the presupposition that the translator or the interpreter is a mechanical tool that can change anything said in a certain language into another. There are cases or examples where the text in a foreign language and its translation in the legal setting can only relate to the final rendering. There must be a return to the original text to grasp the meaning of it, and adapting it in the language translated into it. (White:1990:253)

Douglas Robinson, in his book *The Translator's Turn* in 1991, explains that dichotomizing and labelling the translator as the salvation tool that can do the undoable will result in extremism in success or failure in swaying across the bridge between the two languages. We quote here the words of Robinson: "Actually, the romantic ideal is word-for-word and sense-for-sense: the Augustinian display of determined fortitude in submerging despair over the impossibility of ever knowing or

translating God's (or the SL writer's) total meaning is here intensified into a powerful (although still always frustrated) messianic hope. Translation soon becomes an all-or-nothing affair, either total meaning, total understanding, total liberation from oppression, or total failure, total untranslatability." (Robinson:1991:68)

The old presupposition that translation is rendering something said in a language into something with the same original effect in the TL is not applicable now. Translating something into another language cannot lead to producing the same effect in the rendering, and that there must be a failure in the rendering across the bridge between the two languages. The translation process is not perfect, and there must be a failure in producing the same effect as the original. That must be given some more consideration in the legal commercial translation, since the law must show the effect, in order to build solid foundations for the legal case and its proceedings.

In a legal case, there is no room for risking miscommunication, although some failure in translation is inevitable. The translators or interpreters are required to provide ways to show that behavior, using literal translation. If there is a case of an ambiguous word or phrase, they, translators or interpreters, are asked to render that ambiguity in TL; and if that ambiguity is deliberately made, they are still required to produce it in the TL as well.

Another fact worth mentioning here is how lawyers competency can be affected if they are interrupted. "Lawyers pride themselves on their ability to manipulate language and express themselves with precision; if they are not understood by those who rely on interpreters to participate in the proceedings or by interpreters themselves, the fault clearly lies with the latter, not with the lawyers. To admit that an argument has not been made cogently, that a sentence has not been completed, that a word has been misused, that a grammatical construction has been flawed, that hesitation has been present, is to admit to imprecision and imperfection. The mechanical, transparent provider of interpreting services is not supposed to interrupt or comment on lawyers' performances, for this can generate a negative impression of judicial functioning. (The translator: 1995: 25-26)

Susan Berk-Seligson in her book *The Bilingual Courtroom: Court Interpreters in the Judicial Process* in 1990 explains that the "interpreters' interruptions of lawyers were perceived by mock jurors (particularly Hispanics) as showing the lawyer to be less competent and intelligent. (Berk-Seligson:1990:195b)

Add to that what the study of Anne Graffam Walker says that the parties of the trials, including lawyers and judges like all their tongue slips and even mistakes to be rendered in the proceedings of the trial.

Translators and interpreters need to be very interactional, and with an ability to play on the juggling robes of the game between the lawyers, judges, and those who are in between. They must develop strategies to set the misunderstandings, and shed light on the intentions, in order to sail safe to the shores of meaning in the TL. It is also important to state that any strategy chosen by the translator or interpreter will come at a cost, and the translator or interpreter should be aware of that. Finally, the

translator or the interpreter should be aware that he/she might be deliberately used by the lawyers in a maneuver to serve a purpose in the mind of the lawyer. He/she must have the wit and gut to interrupt them whenever he/she feels that this has started.

With the advent of these courts dealing with the representatives of foreign investment, the need for translation and interpretation emerged as a crucial need to facilitate communication in the court. This paper tries to explore the most common challenges that encounter translators working in that field. We will categorize the translation problems in the legal setting, and they will be specific to legal commercial translation between the English and Arabic legal systems and languages, as challenges arising due to differences in legal systems and languages.

English vs. Arabic: General Characteristics of Legal Language

This paper sheds light on the characteristics of legal language in English and Arabic. There will be a concentration on the common characteristics between the two languages. We will start with the definitions of legal language by Melinkoff and Tiersma, since they are the best studies to define and set the boundaries of legal language formation and development through the ages.

Melinkoff indicated that the legal language is special and differentiated from other language forms in that it is "preserving a professional monopoly by locking up the trade secrets in the safe of an unknown tongue" (Melinkoff:1963:101). Tiersma, on the other hand, indicates that lawyers tend to put the laws in that unknown tongue in order to protect the ordinary people. (Tiersma:1999:28).

According to lawyers, the use of technical vocabulary is necessary and complimentary to communication within their profession, as it is easy for them to communicate with each other with the use of that terminology. The most common characteristic of legal language is that it depends on contextualizing words in a special way to provide a certain denotation. That can be said of English and Arabic. The difference here is in vocabulary and style in the language used

The legal language tends to use very long sentences in English and Arabic. Both languages follow that style because of the need for putting all the details and information on a certain topic in one sentence, and to convey the meaning clearly and systematically, avoiding vagueness and lack of coherence of short sentences in a legal text. There is also the characteristic of joining words or phrases with the conjunctions "and, or" in English and "و / أو" in Arabic. These conjunctions, according to Tiersma, are used in legal style much more than in other types of style. (Tiersma:1999: 61).

There is also the use of words and phrases that talk to people in general, like the use of the third person to address the judge. (Tiersma:1999:67) In Arabic, on the other hand, the judge is being addressed as "سيدي القاضي" which means "Sir Judge"

Another characteristic includes the use of terminology and vocabulary in legal language. In English legal language, we notice the use of words and phrases that are either derived from Latin, or words and phrases that are not used on an ordinary basis in daily language. As for Arabic, we notice that there are many terms and legal phrases that are rendered from English or French legal systems,

although they have an old relationship with Arabic.

There is also the use of the modal verb "shall", that express in futurity in ordinary English, and command or obligation in English legal language (Tiersma 1999:105). In Arabic legal language, is often rendered into the simple present tense to convey the sense of obligation.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Most of the previous studies on legal translation between English and Arabic tackle either semantic or syntactic aspects in the process of translation.

The study of Mellinkoff in 1963 dealt with the language of law, the characteristics of legal language, the history of the legal language, and the legal language in practice. The study of Crystal and Davy in 1969 tackled, in one of its chapters, the legal language of the legal documents, with translation examples. They were of the view that the legal language is the least communicative type of language, since it is made for a certain amount of people, and since it needs to be obscure and differentiated from other types of language. The study had come up with the belief that the legal text conveys a high amount of linguistic conservation as found in court verdicts, police reports, constitutions, charters, treaties, protocols and regulations.

The study of Abu-Ghazal in 1996 investigated some aspects of semantics and syntax related problems of legal translation from English into Arabic, with a sample of students' translations from Yarmouk University. The study was conducted with the aim of describing the linguistic and translation problems that face translators. It came up with results that surveyed students should get more precise training in the field of legal translation before starting their careers.

As for the study of Emery in 1989, it tackled the linguistic features of the Arabic legal texts, and compared them with their equivalents in English. The study recommended that the beginner translators should first absorb the structural and stylistic difference between English and Arabic discourse so that they can make better translations of legal documents. The study of Emery is considered one of the best works to investigate general characteristics of Arabic legal language.

The study on Newmark in 1982 commented on legal translation, and found a difference in the translation of legal documents for the purposes of information, and the translations which are considered valid in the TL. The study found that the approach suitable for such translations is the communicative approach.

On the first track, the study of Butt and Castle in 2006 delved into the roots of traditional legal language and its characteristics. The study founded a guide to draft in modern style, with the use of examples from leases, company constitutions, wills and conveyances.

The study of Sarcevic in 2000 held a survey of comparative texts of legal translation. The study emphasized the importance of producing translations with a legal effect by legal translators, and that

the translators first and only mission is to create a translated text with the same legal effect as of the original text. The study also emphasised on the importance of the legal text, not the word, and that the translator must provide the same legal equivalent of the original effect. The study suggested that legal translator must abide with, and be guided by the principles of fidelity.

Challenges Arising in Translating Legal Commercial Texts Between English and Arabic

The process of translation from English into Arabic, and vice versa, carry some challenges and difficulties within. These challenges and difficulties are due to the nature of the linguistic system and its special characteristics in both English and Arabic. Below, we will discuss these problems and difficulties in detail, giving examples and methods to avoid and overcome any loss in translation. There will be concentration on the legal commercial texts translation from English into Arabic and vice versa.

The challenges and difficulties in translating legal commercial text from English and Arabic and vice versa will be studies and compared with translation examples in English and Arabic. There will also be a conclusion to reach a solid basis for understanding these challenges and difficulties.

This is based on the nature of the legal systems in both languages, and the differences within. In every legal system of a language, there are some cultural specificity. This is a great difficulty for a legal commercial translator, and the difficulty lies in that the translator does not find the lexical equivalence in the target text.

Newmark indicates that “synonymy, paraphrase and grammatical variation, all of which might do the job in a given situation, but would be inaccurate” (Newmark:1988:198). Instead, he is of the view to think of the equivalent effect, although at some cost in meaning. (Newmark:1988:49) If the equivalent of a term is not found the target language, then we should look for the equivalent that carry the best meaning rendering. It is the mission of the Arabic legal commercial translator who tries to find a way to defeat the problem of cultural untranslatability:

a) Paraphrasing

Translators often are coincided with the problem of no equivalent for a word or a term in Target Language. This unfamiliarity of the term should be avoided anyhow to produce a good rendering, and in this case, paraphrasing is the best solution. This solution is inevitable, because the literal translation will be of no sense at all.

The translation of "value added tax" and "life cycle analysis" are problematic, since in the Iraqi commercial system there are no such things applied. In order to translate these two terms, we have to grasp their meanings in English, and how they are applied in a commercial setting.

Hence, the translation of "value added tax" will be "ضريبة القيمة المضافة" which is an additional tax imposed on products, and put on cover of the product. As for the term "life cycle analysis", it can be translated as "تحليل دورة الحياة", which means for manufacturers, the assessment of the environmental impacts related to all the stages of a certain product from cradle to grave. Although the translation of

these two examples may seem literal translation, we can simply assume that the translator had to paraphrase at the beginning of the term formulation, due to the fact that they were originally derived from English.

Paraphrasing a concept of a term happens when it is not shared by both the source and target cultures. The same can be applied on all concepts related only to the Western legal and commercial, and the only way to translate them is through paraphrasing.

b) Functional Equivalence

Eugene Nida is of the view that, "in general it is best to speak of 'functional equivalence' in terms of a range of adequacy, since no translation is ever completely equivalent. A number of different translations can in fact represent varying degrees of equivalence" (Nida:2001:47). Functional equivalence, based on that, is the use of the nearest expression in the TL to render the term in the SL. It tries to share what is in common between the two languages.

Legal functional equivalence, according to Sarcevic, is the use of the function of the term in the legal system of the TL, and creating a concept that gives almost the same meaning of the term in the SL. (Sarcevic:1988: 964; 1989:278-279)

Let us take the example of a notary in the English legal system and think of a functional equivalent for it in Arabic. Since there is no direct equivalence for it in Arabic, the need will go to look for the role of "notary" in the Iraqi legal system, and so we will find that "كاتب عدل" is the best equivalent. The same can be applied on the term "ledger" which is translated by finding the functional equivalence for it in the Arabic legal commercial system, "دفتر الأستاذ".

c) Literal Translation

Literal translation is rendering a term in the SL with a literal translation in the TL. It is used in technical and legal translations more than other types of translations. Let us take the English term "letter of guarantee". This is translated into Arabic, using the literal translation method, as "خطاب ضمان". Other examples include terms like "accrued revenues" which is translated literally as "ايرادات مستحقة", and "long term loans" which is translated as "قروض طويلة الأجل".

CONCLUSION

It is a fact that there must be a loss in translation, and that it is impossible to give the same identical meaning from the SL to the TL. Yet, translators must translate a text in a way that creates the same legal effect as of the SL. The translator must understand the legal effect of the sentence, so that he can produce it in the TL.

A legal translator in a commercial court must master the language of legal commercial texts so that the translation produced can give the same legal effect. He/she must also be familiar with the legal rules and styles of the legal language.

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