In the Name of God

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It is a monolingual (English) journal which operates on a blind peer review policy; it publishes twice- yearly (biannually) papers which report the findings of original research on the current trends and topics in different language related issues.

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Aims and Scope

Considering the National Master Plan for Science and Education in the country and the necessity of *localizing* the humanities, this journal welcomes English articles contributing to this aim.
Aims of this journal include but are not limited to:

- Promoting scientific and professional knowledge of researchers in the below mentioned areas.
- Sharing the findings of researchers in the mentioned fields.
- Promoting general and professional knowledge necessary for learning English as an international language among Iranians and international interaction in the future.
- Promoting Iranian culture along with the English.

The main focus of the Journal is on research conducted on language learning and teaching. We are in particular interested in research papers on L2 education (in particular EFL/ESL), in a variety of levels, including school level, university level, institute level, etc. The Journal welcomes papers on teaching and learning any component of language including skills and sub-skills, as well as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, discourse and pragmatics, TESL or TEFL, Teaching Persian to Speakers of Other Languages (AZFA), language evaluation/testing, language and culture, teaching language for specific purposes, teaching methodology, English and Persian literature, language studies, translation, and linguistics but written only in English.

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/authors' name(s), their institutional affiliation(s), phone number(s), and the email(s), preferably the academic one(s). In case of multiple authors, the corresponding author should be indicated.

The second file, the main manuscript, starts with the abstract. The abstract should be between 150 and 250 words, followed by five keywords, separated by commas. The abstract should include information on the purpose of the research and/or research question(s), the methods and materials used, information on the analysis procedures as well as the major findings. The Persian translation of the abstract should be provided too. The font type should be Times New Roman and the size is 12. The whole manuscript should be double-spaced throughout and the new paragraphs should be indented. The manuscript should be divided into clear sections such as: Introduction, Review of literature (which may include sub-sections), Method (including participants, materials, and procedure), Results, Discussion, Acknowledgements (if necessary) and References (and Appendices, if needed). The reference list should be on a new page, double spaced, and the hanging indent method should be used (all lines after the first one are indented). The length of the paper should be between 7000 and 10000 words. The following pages provide key information and give examples of APA style. More information on APA can also be found in the website: http://www.apastyle.org/

REFERENCES

All in-text citations must be listed in full in the reference list at the end of each article following the specifications of the *APA* manual and all references listed must be cited somewhere in the text. Begin the reference list on a separate page entitled "References" and double-space it throughout. Each entry must include the author's name, co-authors (if any), publication date, and title of work. For a journal article, also provide the name of the journal, volume and issue numbers, and page numbers for the article. For an article in an edited volume, list the editor's name, title of the collection, and page numbers of the article. For a book or monograph, list the edition, volume number, series, and name of publisher. For all online works, the DOI should be provided as well. If not available, the URL can be provided instead. Punctuate and capitalize as in the following examples:

Book

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1989). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge University Press.

Journal article

Bacon, S. M., & Finnemann, M. D. (1990). A study of the attitude, motives, and strategies of university foreign language students and their disposition to authentic oral and written input. *The Modern Language Journal*, *74,* 459-473.

Journal article with volume number

Lee, M-B. (2002). A closer look at language learning strategies and EFL performance. *Foreign Languages Education*, *10*(1), 115-132.

Article in a book

Dechert, H. (1983). How a story is done in a second language. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in inter-language communication* (pp. 175-195). Longman.

Journal Article with DOI

Paivio, A. (1975). Perceptual comparisons through the mind's eye. *Memory & Cognition*, *3*, 635-647. http://doi.org//10.1037/0278-6133.24.2.225

Journal Article without DOI (when DOI is not available)

Hamfi, A. G. (1981). The funny nature of dogs. *E-journal of Applied Psychology, 2*(2), 38-48. http://www.ojs.lib.swin.edu.au/index.php/fdo

Encyclopedia Articles

Brislin, R. W. (1984). Cross-cultural psychology. In R. J. Corsini (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 319-327). Wiley.

Developmental genetics. (2005). *In Cambridge encyclopedia of child development*. http://www.credoreference.com.library.muhlenberg.edu:80/entry/cupchilddev/developmental_genetics

Reference citation in text

Direct citation 1
She states, "the 'placebo effect' ... disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner" (Miele, 1993, p. 276), but she did not clarify which behaviors were studied.

Direct citation 2: Fewer than forty words
Lee (1999) found that "The EAP writing curriculum incorporate reading and analysis of major academic journal articles in the specific field to identify macro-level organization an obligatory 'moves' in conjunction with writing practice." (p. 21)

Direct citation 3: More than forty words
Miele (1993) found the following:
The "placebo effect," which had been verified in previous studies, disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner. Furthermore, the behaviors were never exhibited again, even when reed rings were administered. Earlier studies were clearly premature in attributing the results to a placebo effect. (p. 276)

One work by two authors
- Smith and Takamoto (1997) argued that. ...
- In recent study of SLA (Smith & Takamoto, 1997) ...

One work by multiple authors: Use et al.
- First citation: Jones et al. (1997) found that...
- in a recent study of second language acquisition (Jones et al, 1997)....
- Subsequent citations: Jones et al. (1997) further argued that. ...
- In a recent study of second language acquisition (Jones et al., 1997)...

One work by multiple authors, more than 6
- First citation: Dresler et al. (1992) showed that...
- In a recent study of second language acquisition (Dresler et al., 1992)...

Multiple works: Arrange in alphabetical order
Previous research (Lass, 1992; Meyer & Sage, 1978, 1980; Nichols, 1987a, 1987b; Oats et al., 1973)...
For works not included in the above examples refer to *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (7th ed.).

Review Policy

Since the Journal uses a double-blind review system, it is essential that all author identifying information be removed from the paper and that author(s) information should only be provided in the title page. In case the author's/authors' work is mentioned in the manuscript, replace the name(s) with *Author(s)* in the the text. In other words, there should be no trace of the author in the text.

Before submitting your article to be considered for publication in the Journal of *Language Horizons*, make sure that it adheres to all guidelines given in this document; otherwise, the Journal office may reject the paper before sending it out for review. The papers following these general criteria may be submitted to be evaluated for possible publication. Please be informed that the Journal takes plagiarism very seriously and the contributors are cautioned against this.

The journal follows a rigorous reviewing policy. Each submitted paper is first evaluated for its style consistency and appropriateness of the topic. If found faulty or not appropriate, the paper is returned to the corresponding author for further work and resubmission. The papers that meet initial submission criteria are then reviewed by members of editorial and advisory board as well as external review-ers. A final decision is made on the status of the paper based on the feedback offered by board members and anonymous reviewers to the Editor in Chief. The final decision will be in form of 1) Accepted as it is; 2) Minor revisions; 3) Major revisions; and 4) Rejected. The Journal keeps the right of literary and technical changes but not changes in the content of the articles. Also, article publishing depends on the editorial board's approval.

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Journal of Language Horizons

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A Comparative Study of Text Formality of Applied Linguistics Articles Written in English by Iranian and Native Speaking Researchers

Research Article
pp. 7-25

Sasan Baleghizadeh*[1]
Faria Asadi[2]

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Abstract
International scientific communication is mostly conducted in English. Consequently, writing and publishing in English is of significant importance in academic settings. Alongside many other factors, proper academic writing has an appropriate level of linguistic formality. Research has shown that linguistic features can distinguish between formal and informal texts. Different scholars have utilized different methods to define and measure formality. The present study compares the degree of formality of applied linguistics articles written in English by native English speaking and Iranian non-native English-speaking researchers by calculating their F-scores, a measure of formality introduced by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999). In total, 80 articles were selected from four international journals. Half of them were written by Iranian non-native researchers and the other half by native researchers. The results indicated a medium level of formality in both groups. However, articles written by Iranian non-native researchers were found to have a significantly higher degree of formality. Broadly, this research has implications for teachers of English in different areas, journal editors, materials developers and researchers who want to publish internationally.

Keywords: formality, native English-speaking researchers, non-native English-speaking researchers, applied linguistics, research article

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Introduction

There is no doubt that publication is the dominant way in which scholars can share the findings of their research with other members of their scholarly community. Publishing in international journals which have a wide international audience can expand the readership of papers. More specifically, publishing in English, which is the main language of scientific research, results in wider readership and recognition of articles. In order to be successful in publishing in prestigious international journals written in the medium of English, in addition to a high language proficiency, researchers need to have a good command of the rules and trends that govern academic writing in English. One of the many characteristics that a proper academic paper possesses is an appropriate level of language formality. The need for academic writing to be formal is not a new subject and has been discussed for a long time. In practice, however, following the rules of formality is not that straightforward. What further complicates the matter is the situational flexibilities that linguistic formality allows and sometimes even values. Not knowing how to benefit from rigidity and flexibility of formal language in a balanced manner may result in rejection of papers by well-known journals. Nowadays, with the undeniable increased use of the Internet, the line between formal and informal language may be getting blurry since many of the contents on the Internet (e.g., blog posts) are usually informal, while academic writing (e.g., research article) is formal. As stated by Pavlick and Tetreault (2016), "the ability to recognize and respond to differences in formality is a necessary part of full language understanding" (p. 72).

Language, as Mesthrie et al. (2009) state, is "said to be indexical of one's social class, status, region of origin, gender, age group and so on" (p. 6). Consequently, it can be said that different language backgrounds lead to different language uses, including linguistic formality.

In the previous studies in this area, different methods were introduced and operationalized in measuring/assessing the formality level of different types of texts.

The present study compared the applied linguistics articles written by native and Iranian non-native researchers which are published in international journals whereas in similar studies, the Iranian samples were chosen from Iranian local journals. Therefore, this study was conducted in order to find out whether the level of formality adopted by native and non-native researchers vary on a wider international scale.

Review of the Related Literature

Background

Nowadays, there is an increasing focus on professional academic writing around the world alongside a growing pressure on researchers to publish in the medium of English (Canagarajah, 1996, 2002; Curry & Lillis, 2004; Flowerdew, 1999; Hryniuk, 2015; Lillis & Curry, 2006; Mur-Duenas & Jolanta, 2016; Tardy, 2004). Such a condition is making it hard to avoid concluding that words "international" and "English" are becoming synonymous in academic writing (Lillis & Curry, 2010). Although researchers have not stopped publishing in their national languages (Belcher & Connor, 2001;

Canagarajah, 2002; Curry & Lillis, 2004), the benefits of it pushes scholars to want to publish in English international publications.

In general, it has been proved in previous research that linguistic features such as choice of words can differentiate between formal and informal language (Biber, 1988, 1995; Biber & Conrad, 2019; Conrad & Biber, 2001; Graesser et al., 2014; Graesser et al., 2011; Sardinha & Pinto, 2014). This has been confirmed in different languages, such as English (e.g., Biber, 1988), Korean (Kim & Biber, 1994), Somali (Biber & Hared, 1992), and Spanish (Biber et al., 2006), and in specialized areas, such as academic writing, university textbooks, and university student papers (Biber & Conrad, 2019).

Lillis (2013) maintains that "the binary between what constitutes formal/informal seems to be in widespread use in sociolinguistic texts yet is rarely precisely defined" (p. 9). Hyland and Jiang (2017) highlight the same point by stating that informality is "a slippery concept, difficult to pin down with a clear definition. It is typically either defined in contrast with formality, or in terms of lists of language features which are thought to comprise informal elements" (pp. 40-41).

Abu Sheikha and Inkpen (2010) claim that "vocabulary choice is perhaps the biggest style marker" (Introduction section). Liardét et al. (2019) found that usage of appropriate vocabulary is among the two most significant characteristics of formal language. In a nutshell, when confronted with a formal situation, people shift from informal words to equivalent formal ones. This "vocabulary shift is indeed the most salient feature of academic writing" as stated by Swales and Feak (2012, p. 14).

Abu Sheikha and Inkpen (2010) found features that influence linguistic style of a text and are good indicators of formal and informal language. Table 1 lists the features they found ordered from the strongest to the weakest.

Table 1

Formality Attributes and Their Weights by Abu Sheikha and Inkpen (2010)

Attributes	Their Weight
Informal pronouns	0.9031
Word length's average; Formality: (complex words, high value) Informality: (simple words, small value)	0.7729
Informal words list	0.4153
Active voice (informal)	0.3159
Contractions (informal)	0.2697
Type Tokens Ratio (TTR); TTR is the number of distinct words in a text comparing to the total number of words. In formal texts its value is lower than in informal texts.	0.1523
Passive Voice (formal)	0.1174
Abbreviations (informal)	0.0967
Phrasal Verbs (informal)	0.0735
Formal words list	0.057
Formal Pronouns	0.0183

Formality, as stated by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999), is one dimension of style which is seen as the most important aspect of variation in language. Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) introduced contextuality as

fundamental to formality. They formulated a quantification method which is based on context-dependence of the word categories in a text. This formula is known as the F-score and measures the formality of the whole text. Based on this context-dependence concept, an expression is formal when it has a "stable, recognizable form" and an invariant meaning that does not change when is used "at different times, in different situations, or by different people, that is to say in different contexts" (Heylighen, 1999, p. 27). As Heylighen (1999) further argues, context-dependence, which is the opposite of formality, states that it is the context of the expression (e.g., speaker, audience, situation, etc.) that determines its meaning.

Pavlick and Tetreault (2016) mention that the F-score (Heylighen & Dewaele, 1999) is perhaps the best-known measure of formality for larger units of language. Moreover, as Nowson et al. (2005) assert, "it is Heylighen and Dewaele's F-measure which has been used specifically to investigate individual differences between writers within a genre" (p. 1667). Therefore, this measure is utilized in the present study.

As Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) argue, where an expression lies on the continuum of formality is determined by choices made by the speaker/writer. As Heylighen and Dewaele (2002) argue, the variation of context-dependence found between different styles is "apparently due to the personal preferences of the subjects" and explains "more than half of the variance" between them (p. 14).

F-Score Formula

Conducting a statistical factor analysis on different word classes in French, Dewaele (1996) found that the number of nouns, adjectives, articles, and prepositions varied positively with formal requirements of situation and negatively with the number of verbs, pronouns, adverbs and interjections. Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) claim that nouns, adjectives, articles and prepositions are usually used to create context-independent expressions, while verbs, pronouns, adverbs and interjections usually build context-dependent expressions. Based on this proposition, Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) introduced the following formula as a measure of formality:

$$F = \frac{noun\ freq. + adjective\ freq. + preposition\ freq. + article\ freq. - pronoun\ freq. - verb\ freq. - adverb\ freq. - interjection\ freq. + 100}{2}$$

Applying the formula to data about frequency of word classes in different languages confirmed this hypothesis. Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) did factor analyses on existing data on seven different languages and found that a factor similar to the F-score appears as the most distinguishing factor in them. In other words, factor analyses on seven languages, including English, showed that there is a specific factor which explains the majority of the variation observed between different samples. Nouns, determiners and prepositions obtained positive loadings on that factor, whereas pronouns, adverbs, and verbs obtained negative loadings.

Peterson et al. (2011) suggested that comparing the behavior between different social groups can give some information about their culture by exploring "communication techniques such as formality" and identifying the norms and outliers of behavior within that social group (p. 94). Chambers et al.

(2003) assert that different social, educational and cultural backgrounds lead to different writing styles. Similarly, as mentioned earlier, language is "said to be indexical of one's social class, status, region of origin, gender, age group and so on" (Mesthrie et al., 2009, p. 6). Drawing on such propositions which indicate that language can divide people into different groups, it can be concluded that native and non-native speakers of English form two distinct groups.

Although it has been argued that native-speaker norms should no longer be the standard form (e.g., Jenkins, 2003, 2006), what is actually observed is that native-speaker norms are still preferable in some cases (e.g., Celik, 2006; Florence Ma, 2012; Jenkins, 2011; Ozturk & Atay, 2010; Strauss, 2017, 2019). For example, Strauss (2017) herself condemns forcing non-native speakers to follow native-speakers' accepted norms. However, she also confirms that "a number of highly respected researchers believe that the English currently used in prestigious journals is the best vehicle in which to report research. They are concerned that changes to the language will impact on the clarity and succinctness of such writing" (Strauss, 2017, p. 6). In Strauss's (2019) study, in the same vein, international journal reviewers were interviewed and some of them recommended that authors consult native speakers. Hence, as Moreno (2010) states, in such conditions "protesting against and criticizing mainstream practices would be a disservice to the scholars" (p. 58). Therefore, it can be concluded that non-native speakers of English need to be aware of the appropriate and accepted English in international publishing.

The Present Study

The present study sought to answer the following research questions:

RQs: What is the degree of formality of applied linguistics articles written in English by native and Iranian non-native writers? Are they significantly different? If yes, which group (native or non-native) writes more formally?

Methodology

Corpus

Eighty articles were randomly selected from RELC Journal, SYSTEM, Language Teaching Research, and Language Learning Journal. These journals are internationally well-known in the field of applied linguistics and have almost the same prestigious level. They are among journals in which Iranian scholars have published their papers.

There were 4 journals in total, and 20 articles were selected from each: 10 written by native writers and 10 by Iranian non-native researchers. That is to say, 40 of them were written by Iranian non-native speakers of English and 40 by native speakers of English in total. The reason for selecting all 20 articles written by both native and non-native scholars from the same journal was that some differences are due to journal guidelines for publishing not because of some differences among the authors. Therefore, by minimizing the number of journals and having a more homogenous sample, the risk of having a false difference was minimized as well.

The articles were selected randomly according to the criteria mentioned below:

- They were published between 2010 and 2020.

- They were written solely by non-native authors, not co-written by native ones or vice versa.
- They had one to three authors.
- They were accessible online.
- Different articles that were written by the same author were excluded because some authors have their own style of writing that may affect the sample and bias the results. In other words, articles that were written (or co-written) by same authors were not included.
- The authors' affiliations were checked. Regarding the Iranian non-native sample, only articles which were submitted from Iran were included. The same procedure was followed for native authors and articles submitted from English-speaking countries were selected.

Procedure

As mentioned earlier, all the 80 articles were retrieved online and downloaded in PDF format. In order to compute the formality of the 80 articles, some parts of them needed to be discarded including references, acknowledgments, footnotes, tables, direct block quotations, sample questions of questionnaires, interview excerpts, appendices, declaration of conflicting interests, and funding.

In order to do so, all the PDF files were converted into Microsoft Word format and the unwanted parts were deleted manually. In case there were some spelling errors caused after the conversion, all word files were read and edited manually using Review feature of Word.

Then, the texts of these Word files were copied into TagAnt_64bit (version 1.2.0), a freeware (non-commercial) Part-Of-Speech (POS) tagger[1]. This program is built on TreeTagger, which is a tool for annotating text with part-of-speech and lemma information developed by Helmut Schmid. It has been successfully used to tag many languages including English. Here, TagAnt analyzed the texts and labeled the words according to their part of speech. After having the words of the texts tagged, the word classes needed for computing the F-score introduced by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) were selected. These word classes are: nouns, adjectives, prepositions, articles, pronouns, verbs, adverbs and interjections. The F-score formula can be found below:

$$F = \frac{noun\ freq. + adjective\ freq. + preposition\ freq. + article\ freq. - pronoun\ freq. - verb\ freq. - adverb\ freq. - interjection\ freq. + 100}{2}$$

As the next step, in every article, the number of words belonging to each part of speech was counted by a Phyton software programmed by Farzad Asgari[2]. The resulting information was inserted into the F-score formula using Microsoft Excel. The frequency of each part of speech in this formula is expressed as percentage with respect to the total number of words in each text. The same procedure was followed for all the 80 articles and the resulting F-scores were compared. Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) asserted that this formula can be used for comparison within the same language and on samples

[1] Anthony, L. (2015). TagAnt (Version 1.2.0) [Computer Software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University. Available from https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software

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containing at least a few hundred words. These two criteria were met in the present study.

TagAnt does not tag articles (a, an, the) separately, instead, it includes all of them in a broader category alongside other types of determiners. To find the frequency of each of these articles (a, an, the), the text of all the 80 articles were analyzed using the same Phyton program. The number of each definite and indefinite article was counted and then added up for each research article.

Results

Human beings, as Bei (2011) mentioned, "appear to boast the ability to distinguish intuitively between different degrees of formality in language" (p. 32). As a student of English language who has continuously been exposed to English texts for about 6 years, the present researcher intuitively hypothesized that in general, English articles written by non-native Iranian authors seem to be more formal. Intuition, however, appears less helpful when more accurate explanation is required. Therefore, by using the F-score as a proven measure of formality, this was checked in this study. The arguments for choosing this measure is elaborated below.

Bei (2011) found that the F-score is a sensitive measure when it comes to detecting subtle differentiations in different situations and "a great extent of precision could be reached in measuring formality, especially with the use of the F-score" (pp. 37-38). Pavlick and Tetreault (2016) analyzed human perceptions of formality and their results also accorded with definition of context-dependence by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999). By reviewing linguistics literature, Pavlick and Tetreault (2016) further found that treating formality as a continuum is the supported view in this field. Larsson and Kaatari (2020) adhere to this view by stating that formality should be treated "as a cline rather than a dichotomy" (p. 12). In the same vein, by calculating the F-score, instead of a 0 or 100 distinction of formal versus informal, a relative score between the range of 0 to 100 is obtained.

Below are other characteristics of the F-score, stated by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999), which render it suitable for the present study:

1. F-score seems to be capable of doing its expected job. It distinguishes different types of language in terms of formality level as intuitively and theoretically expected by human judgment.
2. This formula is applicable to different samples or styles.
3. More fine-grained analyses are hardly more informative than more general ones. Therefore, considering the amount of time and effort spent on more fine-grained designs, working with more coarse-grained measures seem to be more efficient.

Furthermore, since assessing formality of smaller units of language (at sentence level) is more subjective (Lahiri et al., 2011; Hyland & Jiang, 2017), adopting a measure which captures a bigger picture of text formality seems to be more suitable for the goals of the present study.

Investigation of the Research Question: Finding the Degrees of Formality

The research question investigated the degree of formality in the native and non-native sample. F-score ranges from 0 to 100; a higher F-score reflects a higher level of formality (Heylighen & Dewaele, 1999). As it can be seen in Table 2, the native sample obtained a mean score of 50.27 and the non-native sample a mean score of 50.29 on a scale of 0 to 100. These numbers, according to Heylighen and Dewaele (1999), indicate a moderate amount of formality. Therefore, it can be concluded that English articles in the field of applied linguistics written by native and Iranian non-native researchers have a moderate amount of formality.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics

	Nativeness	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Formality	Native	40	50.271	.034	.005
	Non-native	40	50.291	.022	.003

Investigation of the Research Question: Comparing the Degrees of Formality

The research question was also posed to find out whether the native and non-native samples of this study have significantly different degrees of formality. First, in order to establish whether the dependent variable is normally distributed for each level of the independent variable, normality tests were done using SPSS.

Table 3
Tests of Normality

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Nativeness	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Formality	Native	.110	40	.200*	.947	40	.060*
	Non-native	.117	40	.183*	.963	40	.216*

*$p < .05$

As it can be seen in Table 3, both tests show that the F-scores in both native and non-native groups are distributed normally ($p > .05$).

Consequently, in order to compare the means of both groups, a *t*-test for independent samples was calculated using SPSS (Table 4).

Table 4
Independent Samples t-Test

		t-test for Equality of Means				
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Formality	Equal variances not assumed	2.984	66.968	.004*	.019	.006

*$p < .05$

The results of the *t*-test reject the null hypothesis of equality of means in the two groups and show that compared to native researchers, Iranian non-native authors of English utilized significantly higher degrees of formality in their articles, t (66.968) = 2.984, p = 0.004 at the specified level of $p < .05$, two-tailed, 95% CI [.032, .006].

In order to find the strength of the difference, Cohen's d was calculated (d = 0.67). This number, according to the guideline from Cohen (1988), indicates that the non-native group mean is higher than the native group by a medium effect size (of 0.67).

Discussion

The results of the statistical procedures show that though both native and non-native writers gained a moderate formality score, they are significantly different. Iranian non-native researchers obtained a higher mean score which, based on the *t*-test results, indicates that they write more formally in comparison with native researchers. These results are consistent with those of Alipour and Nooreddinmoosa (2018) and Ebrahimi and Fakheri (2019). They compared their results with those of Hyland and Jiang (2017) and concluded that applied linguistic articles published by Iranian researchers are more formal than those published by native writers. For example, in Ebrahimi and Fakheri (2019), contractions, which are normally considered as informal, were totally ignored by Iranian writers while this was not the case in non-Iranian sample in Hyland and Jiang (2017). What makes this study different is that both native and non-native samples were selected from the same international journals, whereas the Iranian non-native sample of both aforementioned studies are taken from articles published in Iranian local journals.

Possible Explanations for the Observed Difference

According to Ebrahimi and Fakheri (2019), this higher degree of formality can be due to two reasons. One is teaching methods of English in Iran which present academic writing as a strict inflexible genre in which writers are merely reporting the experiment and its results. The other reason is that Iranian postgraduate students are not required to write creatively and critically. As a result, fearing the rejection of their articles because of using an informal language, Iranian researchers see themselves as mere reporters of experiments. However, by doing so, they neglect the need for claims to be objective and representative of the writer-reader relationship. Martinez (2018) focused on first person distribution in different sections of biology papers produced by native and non-native speakers of English. Among other differences, it was found that native speakers used first person in a higher degree in the Results section to show that they assumed responsibility for their results. In addition, Ebrahimi and Fakheri (2019) mention that by merely reporting the experiment, Iranian authors are ignoring the fact that the writers' stance on the results is also valued by many journal editors when assessing articles for publication. Lack of such an authoritative stance, could be one of the reasons that some applied linguistics articles get rejected when submitted to well-known international journals. The following examples taken from the corpus can further illustrate this point.

Excerpt taken from the native sample:

"We are not reporting the results of a controlled experiment but rather an initial attempt to develop …" (Poehner & Lantolf, 2013, p. 325).

"We therefore agree with Kozulin and Garb …" (Poehner & Lantolf, 2013, p. 338)

Excerpt taken from the non-native sample:

"The current study suggests that …" (Rahmati et al., 2019, p. 471)

"This study documented salient findings …" (Tajeddin& Moghadam, 2012, p. 365)

In these excerpts, based on the above-mentioned explanations, the language of native researchers helped them take the responsibility of their research, while Iranian writers' language distanced them from their results and from taking the responsibility of arguments.

Native and non-native speakers of a language are also believed to have different levels of proficiency in different language skills. Lack of language proficiency can be stated as another probable source of the observed difference since expressing ideas in an informal yet acceptable language may be difficult for Iranian writers when writing in English. For example, research has shown that compared to native speakers, non-native speakers "often have a restricted range of lexis" (Hinkel, 2003, p. 294) and exhibit "a more restricted repertoire of recurrent word combinations" (Adel & Erman, 2012, p. 90). In the extreme case, it can be said that not having the proficiency required for greater specificity, non-native writers may end up using a term which sounds either too formal/informal in a specific context.

Incorporating an appropriate use of informality into academic writing could add to the complexity of this demanding task (e.g., Hyland & Jiang, 2017) particularly for those writing in a second language. Chang and Swales (1999) who took their sample from advanced writing classes for non-native speakers of English found that majority of their sample were uneasy about the increased use of informality and believed that it can make academic writing even more complicated.

There is no doubt that what is acceptable in a specific language depends on its social, cultural, and discursive conventions which, as mentioned by Johns (1990), may not be obvious to outsiders of a discourse community. Non-native English writers who do not possess a comprehensive knowledge and experience of these areas are faced with problems when writing in English.

Askarzadeh Torghabeh (2007) mentioned another problem that is rooted in the theory of transfer. It happens when learners of a new language transfer patterns of their native language and culture to that new language. Specifically, Iranian writers may transfer some linguistic or cultural patterns from academic writing in Farsi, which is believed to strictly follow conventions of formality, to English. Abdi (2010) compared the use of metadiscourse in English and Persian articles on sociology, education, psychology, physics, chemistry, and medicine. He found that the biggest difference between the two languages is in use of self-mentions, with Persian writers tending to write more impersonally than English authors. Also, Taki and Jafarpour (2012) studied sociology and chemistry articles in Farsi and English. They found that while Persian writers usually employ words like 'the researcher' to refer to

themselves, English writers use first person pronouns and possessive adjectives. This is exemplified below by a few excerpts taken from the corpus.

Excerpt taken from the native sample:

"Many students confided in me during interviews …" (Gleason, 2014, p. 128)

"Results of our investigation suggest that …" (Baecher et al., 2014, p. 131)

"If we did that, then the normal citation patterns for work in 2006 would be disrupted …" (Meara, 2012, p. 9)

Excerpt taken from the non-native sample:

"The responses were coded and interpreted by both researchers …" (Ghahari & Sedaghat, 2018, p. 12)

In the native excerpts, based on the above-mentioned explanations, the researchers freely talked about themselves by using personal pronouns. However, Iranian researchers in the non-native excerpt preferred an impersonal way of addressing themselves.

Faghih and Rahimpour (2009) also found that the type of metadiscourse Iranian researchers use in their articles on applied linguistics are different when they write in Farsi and English. Interestingly, they discovered a contradictory pattern of self-mentions being more frequently used in Farsi. Such observations can suggest that the rigidity Iranian authors presume to exist in English formal writing is not transferred from Farsi, but rather is probably due to a fixed framework they have in mind for English academic writing.

Durrant and Schmitt (2009) talked about non-native speakers' conservative approach to writing which manifests itself in usage of common forms of language and repetition of favored items. This can be seen as another reason for the observed difference between native and non-native samples. Having studied the attitudes of two French full professors who had their English articles rejected, Sionis (1995) revealed that they just wanted to learn "a few recipes and tips" to improve their skills in writing and just by doing that become successful writers who publish in English-medium journals (p. 100). Another possible explanation, therefore, is that non-native writers tend to view academic writing as a rather fixed style and follow its rules more strictly. In an Iranian context, this tendency can be attributed to "the more-or-less traditional type of instruction supplied in research writing and EAP classes in the Iranian academic context, which places an overemphasis on formal aspects of academic writing, overriding the role that informality can play in article development to engage readers" (Alipour & Nooreddinmoosa, 2018, p. 367). How native researchers are different from Iranian researchers in this aspect is exemplified by a few extracts from the corpus below.

Excerpt taken from the native sample:

"However, in 2009, we saw the publication of the first full-length volumes dealing with …" (Forman, 2012, p. 239).

"In Table 5, we see an example of this process …" (Forman, 2012, p. 246).

Excerpt taken from the non-native sample:

"In line with Walsh, it can be seen that Managerial Mode occurs most

often at the beginning of …" (Ghafarpour, 2017, p. 215).

In these excerpts, based on the above-mentioned explanations, it can be seen that native researchers tried to engage their readers in their text by creating a kind of writer-reader community. Such an approach, however, cannot be found in the non-native excerpt.

Another possible explanation for the observed results may be attributed to the nature of applied linguistics papers which, as Hyland and Jiang (2017) observed, are less informal compared to those on biology, engineering, and sociology. For example, in their study of writer's presence in chemistry research articles written in English, Behnam et al. (2014) found that non-native Iranian writers use first person pronouns more than native ones. However, it should be noted that a feature like self-mention is just one among many other elements which affect formality of language.

Shift Toward Informality

In their book on teaching academic writing, Coffin et al. (2003) defined formality as the "use of technical, elevated or abstract vocabulary, complex sentence structures and the avoidance of the personal voice" (p. 28) and stated that "in particular we look at ways of avoiding an overly personal and anecdotal style when drawing on professional experience" (p. 68).

As it can be seen, formal speech has been treated as a "very correct and serious rather than relaxed and friendly" language (www.collinsdictionary.com, 2020) and informality has been defined as "the absence of full grammatical sentences, a decrease in concern about punctuation, and a high tolerance for typographic and spelling errors" (Coffin et al., 2003, p. 141). However, as it is discussed in the following paragraphs, what seems to be happening in academic writing right now is different from these definitions.

Bennett (2009) studied style manuals and revealed that some authors expect the grammar and lexis of academic writing to be formal while some other prefer "simplicity of style" (p. 52). Fairclough (2015) proposes the concept of 'synthetic personalization' which values being interpersonally involved in discourse. It roughly means personalization of the author and addressing the audience directly as individuals. Synthetic personalization is becoming increasingly widespread these days; therefore, it may not be easy to prevent even the most objective styles such as academic writing, which is believed to possess an air of detachment, from following this trend. In the same vein, Seone and Loureiro-Porto (2005) claim that in scientific English papers, passive is no longer the default choice, but actives are progressively replacing them. Nonetheless, the language of these papers does not seem to be undergoing colloquialization.

Though conventions of formality which necessitate avoiding informal elements are becoming less strictly followed compared to earlier times (e.g., Constantinou et al., 2020), as Swales and Feak (2012) state, "a formal research report written in informal, conversational English may be considered too simplistic, even if the actual ideas and/or data are complex" (p. 14).

To briefly describe this shift over the last decade or so, it can be said that "academic writing has gradually lost its traditional tag as an objective, faceless and impersonal form of discourse and come to be seen as a persuasive

endeavor involving interaction between writer and readers" (Hyland, 2005, p. 2). Informality should be regarded as the instantiation of a reader-friendly approach to writing which has expanded to writing academic texts (Hyland & Jiang, 2017).

It is worth mentioning that increase or decrease of informal features in different genres does not follow a fixed pattern. For example, Hyland and Jiang (2017) found that while second person pronouns/determiners had increased in applied linguistics papers, they had diminished in sociology articles.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the degree of formality in applied linguistics articles written in English by native and Iranian non-native researchers in international journals. It was found that native speakers of English write less formally than Iranian non-native researchers when writing in English.

Nowson et al. (2005) asserted that "there is little variation in the levels of formality per genre" (p. 33). Hence, it is worth mentioning here that though the degree of formality in two samples were significantly different, both of them, having come from the same genre, had a mean F-score of about 50 which shows a moderate amount of formality on the formality scale according to Heylighen and Dewaele (1999).

Types of instruction used in Iran for teaching English in general and for academic writing in specific, inadequate language proficiency, lack of social, cultural and discursive knowledge of English, transferring patterns of academic writing from Farsi to English, conservatism in following linguistic conventions, and nature of applied linguistics field which make incorporating informal voice an added burden in academic writing were mentioned as possible explanations for the observed result.

Distinctions between formal and informal language should not only be introduced but also be practiced. Corpus-based instruction can help non-native writers discover the existing patterns which may sound informal to them but are actually accepted and are being used by research communities. What is worth mentioning here is that this approach should not lead to mere repetition of what has been practiced and kill the creativity of individual writers. In other words, rather than being restricted by the so-called standard norms, non-native researchers would feel more comfortable and liberated expressing their own style of writing.

Research article writing is and should be treated as a specialized form of writing which requires specialized knowledge and training. The same is true about linguistic formality, that is, it needs specialized introduction and practice.

In addition to teachers of English in different areas (such as English as a second/foreign language, English for academic purposes, and language skills in general), journal reviewers, course designers and materials developers should also take formality and its situational flexibility into consideration to help learners, apprentice writers, novice researchers, and non-native speakers of English in general.

Academic writing in different disciplines is getting less formal (Adel, 2008; Hyland & Jiang, 2017; McCrostie, 2008) and all researchers need to be

aware of this shift. Research articles should be responsive to the demands of the new conditions. If academic writing is undergoing a gradual shift away from rigid detached styles to ones that encourage more personal involvement, all researchers need to be aware of this trend in order to be successful in the new publication environment. In this way, non-native researchers can improve their work by appropriate incorporation of informal elements into their writings just as expert native writers do. The same issues may suggest the emergence of a new style of academic writing which is less concerned with formality in general.

The limitation of this study was inherent to the concept of nativeness. Richards and Schmidt (2010) summarize characteristics of a native speaker as "a person who learns a language as a child and continues to use it fluently as a dominant language". They further maintain that native speakers of a language "identify with a community where it is spoken" and possess "clear intuitions about what is considered grammatical or ungrammatical in the language" (p. 386). As abstract concepts, like identification with a language, emerge as characteristics of native speakers of that language (Liaw, 2004), deciding exactly who a native speaker is becomes a more complex task. In the same vein, preparing a sample in which native and non-native researchers could be fully distinguished in a clear-cut manner was not possible in the present study. While collecting the corpus, the present researcher decided on the native and non-native samples by checking the affiliations of the authors and institutions from which the articles were submitted.

Further studies can investigate whether other characteristics of writers other than nativeness, such as personality, background knowledge and previous experience in academic writing, play a role in determining the formality of their writings. In addition, more detailed analyses as to exactly what linguistic factors are contributing to the differences in formality can be conducted in future research.

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A Move Analysis of Iranian English Language Institute Websites: *Homepage and About Us*

Research Article
pp. 27-47

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Abstract
This study examines how Iranian language institutes represent themselves in two pages of their institutional websites, namely, *Homepage* and *About Us*. Accordingly, this study aims at comparing and contrasting three formerly-established and three newly-established Iranian English language institutes in terms of their representation in the above-mentioned webpages. Swales' model of move analysis (1990) within genre analysis was applied to dissect the *Homepage* and *About Us* pages of the two groups of websites. The analysis reveals that the websites of the two groups of institutes are similar regarding their *Homepage* and contain the same five moves. There are, on the other hand, some differences between the moves and steps in *About Us* pages of the former and newer institutions' websites. The formerly-established institutes rely mainly on their long-lasting reputation to represent themselves, while the newly-established institutes represent innovative institutes conforming to the learners' needs and expectations as well as offering some free services. It seems that newer institutes apply lengthier *About Us* pages to convince their learners of their capability to fulfill their claims. The results and models would be of high significance to language institutes businesses and to the researchers in genre analysis.

Keywords: move analysis, language institutes, websites, homepage, about us

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Introduction

The increasing importance of the English language in Iran can be witnessed through the proliferation of English language institutes (Sheibani, 2012). Lack of sufficient materials, resources, and teaching methodology has resulted in unsuccessful endeavors of official ELT programs in Iran, specifically at schools (Farhady et al., 2010; Maftoon et al., 2010). Accordingly, language learners aiming at developing their communicative language skills eagerly choose to study English at private language institutes (Borjian, 2010; Ghorbani, 2011; Mohammadi Haghighi & Norton, 2017). Consequently, the increasing demand for language learning beyond the school curriculum has caused a considerable surge in the number of language institutes.

The large number of language institutes causes a competition for being the best. Winning such a tough competition, language institutes have implemented several advertising strategies to satisfy language learners' needs (Biria & Hassani, 2016). The medium of language institutes for advertising and communicating with prospective learners has changed over time. Like newspapers as the main media in the past (Poonchako, 2017), recently students can connect to their intended institutes, mostly through the medium of the Internet due to its high accessibility at a low cost (Schlegelmilch & Pollach, 2005), and one of the appropriate advertising strategies for language institutes is possessing official websites to offer relevant information to the prospective learners (Biria & Hassani, 2016).

A Website as a medium provides a set of novel media forms and genres (Gervais, 2013). Today, the myriad of available websites, caused the emergence of a new discourse (Dalan & Sharoff, 2016), which it encompassed countless diverse topics in numerous fields that discourse analysts have applied various approaches to explore the text and context of electronic discourse (Villaneueva et al., 2018).

Most institutional or organizational websites prefer to follow the same content organization (Symonenko, 2007). Perhaps the reason for the tendency in such conventionalization is to help the users easily navigate and explore the website (Alhojailan, 2020). Ho et al. (2016) explored the significant role of websites' Homepage in developing a universal image for national and international students to apply for that university. Overall, the Homepage of every educational institute is part of the image of that institute or its entire conception perceived by the students (Ho et al., 2016). More specifically, authors open the academic homepages with introductions through greetings, revealing the background and history of the institute (Dalan & Sharoff, 2016). Moreover, the autobiographical and personal description of the institute is presented in About Us webpages (Wu & Cheong, 2020) with a detailed introduction and complete description of the institute (Bano & Shakir, 2015). Casan-Pitarch (2015) believes that About Us places trust in readers.

Accordingly, this study tries to open up a new phase in discursive studies through examining Homepage and About Us of six selected Iranian websites, three formerly-established (over fifty years), and three newly-established (less than twenty years) language institutes. The study aimed at answering the following two research questions through Swales' move analysis model in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) school (1990).

RQ1: What are the moves in the Homepage and About Us of language institutes' websites according to Swales' move analysis model in ESP school?

RQ2: How do the moves differ in formerly-established institutes from newly-established ones?

Theoretical Background

Genre, as a significant concept in both academic and professional communications, has been defined and characterized differently. Fairclough (1995) depicts it as "a socially ratified way of using language in connection with a particular type of social activity" (p. 14). It is also defined based on the rhetorical or communication purposes of the texts used among the members of a discourse community in a specific context (Bhatia, 2002). According to Swales (1990), genres are a set of communicative events in which the members share some set of communicative purposes such as structure, style, and content. Xia (2020) raised the nature of genre in language learning procedures as providing highly predictable steps to follow in the effort of text construction. Henry and Roseberry (2001) also explained genres as sociolinguistic activities that people apply to achieve specific goals.

Genre analysis is the study of text structure by analyzing the order of the rhetorical structure that differentiates one type of text from another (Swales, 1990). Moreover, Bhatia (1993) states that genre analysis aims to identify the moves orders, genre strategies, and linguistic features of the particular genre. Overall, it is a process of analyzing similarities and differences of the collected textual data in a genre (Bhatia, 1997). Different approaches to genre analysis can be applied to written and spoken texts (Pho, 2013) and the advent of World Wide Web adds a new avenue of electronic texts in the study of genre analysis (Villanueva et al., 2018).

Move analysis is an approach of genre analysis (Cotos, 2018), which was developed as a top-down approach (Cotos, 2018; Upton & Cohen, 2009). Swales (1990) defines it as a focus on meanings and ideas to analyze the discourse structure of texts from a genre. Move is a "functional unit in a text used for some identifiable purposes" and "it is often used to identify the textual regularities in certain genres of writing" (Ding, 2007, p. 369).

Create a Research Space (CARS) is a move analysis model of genre analysis in ESP by Swales (1990), who analyzed a corpus of research articles from different disciplines and identified three common moves in their introduction sections with several steps within each move (Table 1). This model was the modified form of Swales' (1981) move analysis which previously had included four moves with possible steps (Bunton, 2013). He modified the early version due to the criticisms from some scholars (e.g., Crookes, 1984), who argued that two of the moves were confusing, and some did not exist in most examined research articles. Inspired by the Swales' (1990) CARS model, the researchers of this study have attempted to recognize the moves and steps in About Us and Homepage sections of language institute websites through a deep study of the aforementioned sections followed by classifying their contents as several moves and steps within them.

Table 1
Create a Research Space (CARS) Model for Article Introductions by Swales (1990)

Moves
Move 1: Establishing a Territory
Step 1: Claiming centrality, and/or
Step 2: Making topic generalization(s), and/or
Step 3: Reviewing items of previous research
Move 2: Establishing a Niche
Step 1A: Counter-claiming, or
Step 1B: Indicating a gap, or
Step 1C: Question-raising, or
Step 1D: Continuing a tradition
Move 3: Occupying the Niche
Step 1A: Outlining purposes, or
Step 1B: Announcing present research
Step 2: Announcing principal findings
Step 3: Indicating RA structure

Empirical Background

Genre and Move Analysis in Academic Contexts

Following the emergence of move analysis, many scholars started to analyze the moves in academic contexts, mostly research papers' abstracts (Al-Khasawneh, 2017; Benham & Golpour, 2014; Cross & Oppenheim, 2006; Li, 2011; Marefat & Mohammadzadeh, 2013; Nasseri & Nematollahi, 2014; Talebzadeh et al., 2013). Adopting Swales' (1990) CARS model, Bunton (2013) created a model for moves and steps in 45 Ph.D. dissertation introductions by modifying and adding extra steps. Other models of move analysis like Hyland (2000) have been adopted in some other studies like Ninpanit (2017) that examined the rhetorical structure of proceedings' abstracts and discovered different move structures in different disciplines.

Genre and Move Analysis in Electronic Texts

With the prevalence of the World Wide Web, several studies carried out genre analysis within the discourse of electronic texts (El-Zohiery, 2019; Franczyk, 2020; Hui et al., 2020; Isa et al., 2016; Tomarkova, 2015; Xia, 2020), and educational websites (Alhojailan, 2020; Graham, 2013; Hoang & Rojas-Lizana, 2015; Villaneueva et al., 2018; Wu & Cheong, 2020; Yang, 2013; Zhang, 2017). There are also some studies on move analysis (Villaneueva et al., 2018; Zhang, 2017; Zhang & O'Halloran, 2013), and on non-academic websites such as hotel websites (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2008; Hallett & Kaplan-Weinger, 2010; Leelertphan, 2017), or a comparison between the moves of an academic website and a business company (Giannomi, 2018).

Among the abovementioned studies, Graham (2013), for instance, provides a summary of seven conventional information in *About Us* sections including; a) introducing and explaining how the institute started; b) stating the

origin of the business; c) telling the story behind the products; d) sharing creative inspiration for the institute's products and management; e) presenting the institute's or owner's background experience with the aim of establishing instant credibility; f) discovering the institute's vision, dreams, and aspirations; g) and linking work, values, and beliefs with motivation.

Focusing on academic websites, Yang (2013) studied 40 university websites through textual and keyword analysis to find out how structural and lexico-grammatical features of the *Why choose us?* sections convey their communicative purpose. The result was establishing a six-move structure for *Why choose us?* section. About the keywords, the study organized the overly-used and less overly-used words to mirror the promotional nature of this section. The six elicited moves included a) establishing a distinguished status; b) presenting a leading role in research; c) ensuring excellent teaching quality; d) enjoying a friendly environment; e) offering attractive incentives; and f) suggestions.

Analyzing the move structure, the communicative purposes, and the linguistic features of *About Us* sections from five Chinese university websites, Zhang (2017) elicited seven moves and 11 sub-moves as the following: a) welcoming (presidents' message); b) establishing credentials (history, publications, overview, facts and figures); c) describing administration (leadership); d) attracting attention (university logo, motto, video, song); e) providing more services (international student services, facilities); f) locating the service (visiting the campus); g) willingness to response (contact us). The study revealed that most features resemble the generic structure of advertisements. Besides, the universities promote their locations in their websites that is a sign of marketization.

Villaneueva et al. (2018) explored *About Us* pages of Asian Association of open universities' websites, and focused on 12 rhetorical moves as the following: a) introducing the institute; b) greetings; c) establishing administrator' suitability; d) establishing integrity; e) establishing accomplishments; f) introducing the administration; g) detailing organizational structure; h) supplying organizational data; i) reinforcing accomplishments; j) offering services; k) establishing contact; l) establishing influence and connections.

Implementing critical discourse analysis, Alhojailan (2020) examines how some Saudi university websites advertise themselves in *About Us* sections. The study sought to explore the rhetorical move employed for marketization purposes. The findings reveal use of eight main rhetorical moves and 13 sub-moves were elicited from the websites as the following: a) welcoming (president's message, vision, mission, values); b) establishing credentials (overview history, facts and figures, statistic publications, quality assurance); c) describing administration (leadership); d) offering extra services: facilities available; e) locating the service (visitors); f) soliciting responses (contact us); g) showing financial security: (university endowment); h) protecting users' privacy (privacy policy).

Wu and Cheong (2020) explored the rhetorical structure on *About Us* webpages of Chinese universities. The findings revealed a dynamic interwoven linguistics and multimodal resources rhetorically organized through the

interplay between 13 moves and different inter-discursive elements, which are classified into three main communicative purposes as the following. First, informative purpose, which is to provide largely information about the universities, and to inform the public about the academic programs and facilities offered at the universities. Second, promotional purpose that aims at introducing and offering products of the university and promoting the university as an academic institute. Third, social purpose which is provided for establishing and strengthening a personal and close relationship with the webpage readers, and for fostering the formation of a discourse community between the university webpage and the actual/potential readers.

Generally, the overall review on aforementioned studies and other empirical studies (Giannoni, 2018; Han, 2014; Hoang & Rojas-lizana, 2015; Mampaey, et al. 2015; Teo & Ren, 2019; Xiong, 2012) conclude the recurrent notion of the impact of marketization and globalization on educational promotion. For instance, comparing a website of a university with that of a company, and investigating their move structure, Giannoni (2018) concluded that both websites shared the same values of most commercial websites.

Studies on Electronic Texts in Iranian Context

Regarding the context of the present study, it should be noted that a few studies have been conducted on Iranian websites. A content analysis (Mardaninezhad & Farhadi, 2020) on keywords in Iranian top virtual websites of the medical sciences universities, for example, reveals the inappropriateness of using keywords in the websites. Khademizadeh & Mohammadian (2019) studied all one hundred and thirty-nine websites of Iranian public universities to evaluate their central library webpages. Out of this number, thirty-six central libraries had independent webpages. Through observing and filling a questionnaire on Likert scale for each library webpage, the researchers of this descriptive survey found weaknesses and strengths of different tabs and navigation tools of the central library webpages.

The vast number of the studies prove the importance of analyzing this relatively new discourse from different aspects including genre analysis. Move analysis also gets more importance in terms of educational websites that have crucial roles in forming the culture of every community. Despite the fact that there are 7800 registered language institutes in Iran (Zarrabi & Brown, 2015), with many of them having official websites, no study focused on investigating the discourse of their websites. In addition, language institutes are other educational society, generally owning websites to introduce and promote themselves, to emphasize the potentials of these centers to serve Iranians' intellectual needs. Accordingly, this study is an attempt to fill the existing gap and pave the way for similar studies in English as a foreign language (EFL) context.

Method

For this genre-based study, six language institutes in Iran were selected to be analyzed in terms of the *Homepage* and *About Us* pages of their official websites. In the first phase, a number of well-reputed institutes in Tehran were identified. Six institutes were selected through stratified sampling

from two inventories; formerly-established institutes, and newly-established institutes to study their websites deeply and find a model or models which show their similarities and differences, in a qualitative approach.

Three of the websites were among the formerly-established institutes which existed for over fifty years, with their websites being created many years after their establishment. The other three had a history of twenty years or shorter. Hence, they had official websites from their early days. The names of the institutes were replaced by A1, A2, A3 in case of the formerly-established ones and B1, B2, B3 in case of the newly-established ones to avoid advertising or any other implications. The study investigated the current state of the websites (i.e., during the data collection in autumn 2020), and analyzed the *Homepage* which is their first impression with the visitors. The study also probed the *About Us* section that provides the more interested viewers with more textual data.

After the selection of the samples and collecting the texts available on *Homepage* and *About Us* pages of the websites, the sample texts were analyzed manually conducting move analysis inspired by Swales' (1990) CARS model, with an attempt to identify the presented moves and steps within themfor either page. A team of three experienced EFL researchers (i.e., a university lecturer, and two EFL teachers) conducted the analysis. Every sentence was read carefully several times. Then every group of sentences that showed any functions or purposes were labeled as a move and then they were scrutinized for any optional or mandatory steps within them. The two groups of former and newer institutes had differences in some steps.

Findings

Formerly-Established Institutes' Websites

Homepage. A1. This part includes changing photos to see and read highlights like the motto of the institute "Good to be helpful", advertising and announcing different courses they offer and job vacancy.

By scrolling down the page, a brief history of the institute could be read. All the other sections of the website are introduced briefly and links are provided to parts related to the courses held by the institute, invitation to cooperate with the institute. The end of this page links the viewer to the news and events of the institute.

A2. The homepage of this institute is much more concise and includes a series of large changing photos with different messages or announcements. They are: how to enter online classes, the extension of the enrollment deadline due to the learners' request. To enter other sections, the main menu should be opened and the section should be selected. No more links on the homepage.

A3. Large changing photos with advertisements are the first thing in this homepage. They are about different courses they administer like Teacher Training Courses (TTC), and TESOL course.

As the viewer scrolls down, they can see the motto of the institute "a new language, a new life" and then the promotion of the English and other language courses which are held in this institute. Below this part, the other services are introduced like a magazine membership, photo and video gallery and employment. After this part, the latest news of the institute can be read,

then the list of the top students. Finally, the latest articles loaded in the website could be seen.

About Us**. A1.** The first paragraph gives the establishment date and the founder's name and being the oldest private institute:

> *Established in 1950 by….the longest standing… provider of EFL courses geared specifically toward the needs of Iranians, particularly…*

The next paragraph describes the situation of English learning before establishment of A1:

> *Prior to the inception of A1… to study English at home were…at The British Council and the precursor to TOEFL classes at …*

The third paragraph informs the reader of the aims and intentions of founding this institute and the method adopted then and its triumph:

> *To bridge this gap…own method of teaching for Iranian students … proved highly successful … move on to our pre-advanced classes…comprising listening, speaking, reading and some basic writing. … more advanced classes culminating in TOEFL and Proficiency classes.*

The final paragraph briefly names all the courses and exams provided:

> *Our classes cater to all age groups…international examinations such as…*

A2. The establishment year and previous name and activities are mentioned in the first paragraph:

> *A2, previously known as …, was established in…., In the past …various educational services including teaching English to….*

Then the changes after the Revolution like its expansion came in the second paragraph:

> *After the Islamic Revolution, …Intellectual Development of Children, this educational center expanded…under the name of ….*

The number of branches and number of students:

> *Currently, having more than 290 centers in … cities, A2 offers courses in English, French, … to more than...*

In the end, the name of the current director of the institute comes:

At present, …. is the Managing Director of A2.

A3. The *About Us* section of this institute is a long paragraph that begins and ends with thanking God. The other parts include the name of the founder and the year of the establishment, thanking students and finally the new director of the institute.

> *… Mr….. Founded the institute in the summer 1959 in Tehran …. He is always grateful to the students and their parents…. At the present, Mr. …is the CEO of this institute …. It is an honor for us to be … in Iran.*

Newly-Established Institute Websites

Homepage. **B1.** Like the older institutes, this page presents large changing advertisements on the top including the most complete and professional IELTS package, TTC courses, etc.

Below that, there are links to different courses they offer. Then by scrolling down, "news and articles" of the center and after that other links like "employment in B1", "virtual courses", etc. are provided. Finally, a map of Tehran with the location of their branches and contact numbers of the central office are represented.

B2. The top part of the homepage like other websites consists of large changing photos to advertise different courses they offer. Under the ads there are links to different departments and online enrollment links. Then, a brief explanation of the online courses offered for several languages. Finally, links to all language departments are depicted by the flag of the related country.

B3. In the English version of this website first comes a big picture with a motto *"language is the infinite use of finite means."* Under this picture *"Learn to communicate in English, fluently and accurately."* After that, links to different departments like Adults, Teens, etc. could be seen. As you scroll down, you come across a sentence: *"We are the best English language institute in Iran. Here's why:"* Then the viewer would see the awards and honors of this institute. The next part mentions the advantages and perks of the institute like having teachers with international certificates, free advisors, free extra classes, the best English materials.

About Us. B1. This section begins with a heading of "*Professional teaching with modern methods and devoted experienced teachers."* and then the establishment year (1386/2008), their motto "*Promoting language learners' skills*", adopting the standard and well known "*system of Oxford Academy from England*" build the first paragraph of this section.

The second paragraph bears the aims of the center, "*Teaching language professionally … supporting, consulting and keeping in touch …",* and the next paragraph includes claims of the center to be the best, "*B1 is one of the best language centers. We apply songs and games to attract children…."*

The final paragraph mentions that:

> *Children will construct the future of our country …with our ten-year experience of being in the top levels of … we attempt to develop and prepare our students for the future.*

And in the end of the paragraph, it is justified that "*Having 17 branches in various parts of Tehran is for the convenience of our learners."*

B2. The three paragraphs of this section give a general overview of the institute. First the year it was founded *"1381/2002"* and *"beginning to teach foreign languages according to the needs of the learners"* come. The languages they teach are listed and the accomplishments their learners have achieved like *"success in their majors or immigrating to study abroad…"* complete this paragraph.

Next paragraph announces that "*Since 2016 we have granted the permission to administer GRE and TOEFL in Iran".* Moreover, the third paragraph explains the secret of their success as "*cooperation and never giving up*" beside their efforts to "*offer creative and innovative education*", "*ease of learning*" and

"*high standards*". In addition, in the end, learners are informed that "*You will be prepared for any international exam in this center"*.

B3. With four short parts, this section elaborates on some points. First part is titled as *"History"* and begins with the year of establishment then promotes the institute:

> *As one of the greatest centers… offers English language courses to adults, teens and … including general English, English for jobs and international tests.*

Then their teachers and educational system they provide with emphasis on "ONLY" focus on English are the advantages this section highlights, "*Motivated and experienced teachers, state-of-the-art educational system and …".* Then the next part of this section is entitled *"Accomplishments"* and five awards in various years are listed. And the third part, *"Values"* states that they care about all the students,

> *Our students' satisfaction is our first priority. … best effort on offering the best educational services to our students. Ethics, honesty and professional behavior …respectful manner ….*

Then comes welcoming innovative ideas and doing their best:

> *…use the most sophisticated means of teaching and motivating students, … ready to put any innovative ideas to use. We believe in teamwork… as the most effective way …*

The last part of this long section is *"Commitments"* which includes claims about, "*High Quality English Courses…, Classroom Equipment and Learning Material".* And then having *"Full Educational Support …", "Reports about Students' Academic Progress" and finally having "Scored Practice Tests to Prepare Candidates to take International Exams"* are declared as their commitments to their students.

Move Analysis of the Findings

Moves in the Homepage Sections. Studying the *Homepage* section of the both groups of websites, the authors found plenty of similarities in the moves and steps that could be applied to the *Homepage* of the formerly- and newly-established institute websites. Hence, one common model of moves which was inspired by Swales' (1990) CARS model would suite both groups with slight interchangeable moves. Moreover, some of the moves or steps do not exist in every studied website. They are named "optional" as Swales' (1990) model suggested by putting "or" between the steps. No steps were found in some moves, for instance, move 1.

Move 1: Highlights and announcements on the top, all websites had this as their first move. It does not have any steps within it.

Move 2: Motto of the institute, this optional move only includes a motto that is generally a motivational sentence or a positive fact about the institute.

Move 3: Links to main sections of the website, this move exists in all websites. They are not only in a specific part of the Homepage. Only one institute did not have the links in its Homepage.

Move 4: Brief description of the institute, an optional move that encompasses either of the *steps:* a summary of the *About Us* section, or a short description of the courses or departments.

Move 5: News about the institute, consisting of four steps: enrollment

announcements; achievements of the center; educational articles; top students (only in one institute). Not all steps may be present in one website but a combination of two or three of them occur in each website.

To sum up, the moves and steps of all six *Homepages* were as the following: Highlights and Announcements; Motto or a quote; Links to other Sections; Brief descriptions; and the Institute News and events. Table 2 represents the moves, which are not different between the two groups of institutes. Obligatory moves and steps exist in all the websites, while the optional ones may disappear in one or more websites.

Table 2

Homepage: Formerly- and Newly- Established Institutes

	Moves	Steps	Example(s)	Optional/ Obligatory
1	Highlights and announcements	-	Course advertisements Important institute events in periodic pictures	Obligatory
2	Motto or a quote	-	"Good to be helpful" "A new language, a new life"	Optional
3	Links to other sections	-	By clicking on the links (button or photo) one is led to the other pages of the website like kids' courses, adults' courses, other languages, recruitment terms and conditions, etc.	Obligatory
4	Brief description	1. Summary of About Us	A brief history of the institute /founder or the CEO	At least one is obligatory
		2. Describing the course and departments briefly	Why Choose us/ the international exams held/ Educational consultation	
5	Institute news and events	1. Enrollment announcements	Extending the enrollment deadline	Optional
		2. chievements of the center	Achieving international licenses	Optional
		3. Educational articles	Ways to motivate kids to learn English.	Optional
		4. Top students	Why should we learn English? The list of the top students in different branches of the institute	Optional

*Some moves like moves 2, 3, and 4 may be displaced in different websites

Moves in the About Us Sections

About Us Moves in Formerly-Established Institute Websites. As represented in Table 3, the moves in the *About Us* section of the formerly-established institutes are as below.

Move 1: Establishment information, including five steps: year (and other names if there is any); name of the founder (optional); goal of establishment; past activities and present activities.

Move 2: The situation of EFL before and after establishing this institute, an optional move that some websites adopt to justify their establishment in the first place. It can include up to three steps as: EFL problems in Iran before this center; the effect of this institute in overcoming this problem; the aims, methods and intentions.

Move 3: Courses and exams administered, this move is seen in all websites and seems as the most important move to ensure the viewer that they have updated themselves in this competitive business.

Move 4: Number of branches and students, an optional move to show the growing, long-lasting nature of these institutes.

Move 5: Present director, seems that their directors are well-known persons whose names are the credit of the institute. This move is optional, as well.

Table 3
About Us: Formerly-Established Institutes

	Moves	Steps	Example(s)	Optional/ Obligatory
1	Establishment information	1. Year of establishment /Previous names if there is any	…established in 1950…	Obligatory
			…previously known as …	
		2. Founder of the institute	…established by Dr. …	Optional
		3. Goals of establishment	Devised his own method of EFL courses geared specifically towards the needs of Iranians, particularly those with little or no knowledge of English language.	Obligatory
				Optional
		4. Past activities	…various educational purposes, also teaching Persian to speakers of other languages.	Optional
		5. Present activities	Expansion after revolution	
			After eight terms of grammar-based classes move to pre-advanced …	
2	Before and after establishment	1. Problems in EFL before the establishment	The British council and … were too advanced	Optional
		2. Overcoming the problems (the effects of the institute)	To bridge the gap … devised his own method of teaching …	Optional
3	Courses and exams administered	-	… offers courses in English, German, Arabic, …	Optional
			Our classes cater to all age groups	
			International exams such as TOEFL, IELTS, …	
4	Number of branches and students	-	Having more than 290 centers in over 131 cities	Optional
			More than 1,200,000 students per year	
5	Describing administration	-	At present, Dr. … is the directing manager of …	Optional

About Us Moves in Newly-Established Institute Websites. As represented in Table 4, the moves in the *About Us* section of the newly-established institutes are as below.

Move 1: establishment information, seems a compulsory move. The steps are different though. Motto is an optional step and then the system of the books and teaching.

Move 2: Aims of establishment, the new wave of the language centers in the present century have to justify their existence through representing the needs of the community for their innovations in methods of education and similar aims.

Move 3: Claims of being the best, they may bring testimonials from their successful and satisfied learners and continue their efforts to prove themselves to the viewers. However, it is optional.

Move 4: New methods and systems, with steps like hiring highly qualified teachers, revealing secrets of their success and honors of the institute.

Move 5: *Respect for learners and commitment*, mentioning that learners are their priority and all the staff respect them; they are devoted; they welcome any innovative idea; learners can enjoy the support and consultation of the center. This move is considered optional. Table 4 summarizes the moves of in the newer institutes.

Table 4
About Us: Newly-Established Institutes

	Moves	Steps	Example(s)	Optional/ Obligatory
1	Establishment information	1. Year of establishment	Established in 1386/ 2008….	Obligatory
		2. Motto of the institute	Promoting language learners' skills	Optional Obligatory
		3. Adopted educational system	System of Oxford Academy from England State-of-the-art educational system and environment	
2	The aims of the institute	-	Teaching language professionally Teach foreign languages according to the needs of the learners, like planning for the embassy exams	Optional
3	The status of the institute	-	… is one of the best language centers in Tehran As one of the greatest English language teaching centers…	Optional

4	New methods and high-quality system	1. Employing highly qualified teachers	… employing professional devoted teachers	Obligatory
			Motivated and experienced teachers	Obligatory
			…	
		2. Revealing secrets of success	cooperation and never giving up	Optional
		3. Students' success	we attempt to develop and prepare our students for the future	Optional
			… success in their majors or immigrating to study abroad…	
		4. Awards and honors	Since 2016 we have granted the permission to administer GRE and TOEFL in Iran	
5	Respect and commitment	1. Learners are the priority	Our students' satisfaction is our first priority	Obligatory
		2. Welcoming innovations	Offer creative and innovative education	Obligatory
		3. Consultation and educational support	Supporting, consulting and being in touch with the young learners' parents	Obligatory
		4. Extra classes and other perks	Official certifications and focus on ONLY English language…	Optional

Comparing the moves in *About Us* pages of the intended websites reveals that these two groups were similar in the first move of Establishing Information. Meanwhile, they did not follow the same order in other moves. The formerly-established institutes focused more on their past and history while the newly-established institutes emphasized mostly on their aims, their distinguished states, and new methods and high-quality systems.

Discussion

Analyzing the first conventional information of **About Us** revealed that the first employed rhetorical move of all intended institutes also resembled

those that were mapped by previous researchers as Introducing and Identifying the institute (Villaneueva et al., 2018; Wu & Cheong, 2020; Yang, 2013). Meanwhile, two studies (Alhojailan, 2020; Zhang, 2017) found the first move in their intended websites as Welcoming, which was not found in the websites of the institutes in the present study or the literature.

Comparing *About Us* in the formerly and newly-established websites revealed the first move as the same; however, they were different in steps. The focus of formerly-established institutes was mainly on their history and establishing credentials as in Alhojailan (2020) and Zhang (2017). In other words, adhering to Graham's (2013) conventions, the formerly established institutes preferred to stay in their former positions and focus mainly on their history, years of establishment, and background rather than following the same values of most commercial websites. However, most of the moves in **About Us** webpages of newly established institutes represented the promotional discourse of educational websites used for marketization and globalization effects that were also found in most previous studies (Alhojailan, 2020; Giannoni, 2018; Han, 2014; Hoang & Rojas-lizana, 2015; Leelertphan, 2017; Mampaey, et al., 2015; Teo & Ren, 2019; Wu & Cheong, 2020; Xiong, 2012; Zhang, 2017).

In an attempt to examine the educational system and status of the institute, the newly-established moves were more similar to the moves of Yang (2013) which were *establishing a distinguished status, presenting a leading role in research, and ensuring excellent teaching quality*, as well as one of the moves of Villaneueva et al. (2018) as *establishing administrators' suitability*. Compared to the formerly-established websites, the moves adhered mainly to the conventional information of Graham (2013); although they did not pave the ways of the conventions to their ends and confined their moves to introducing their branches and directors. Introducing leadership is not seen in the newly established institutes; yet, the formerly-established ones used it as the last move which was the second moves in Alhojailan (2020) and Zhang (2017).

There are some moves and steps not seen in the **About Us** pages; preferably, they were referred in the **Homepage** of the studied websites such as *welcoming* (Alhojailan, 2020; Zhang, 2017), *greeting* (Villaneueva et al., 2018), and *creating a closer relationship with audience* (Wu & Cheong, 2020). In the previous literature (Alhojailan, 2020; Villaneueva et al. 2018; Wu & Cheong, 2020; Zhang, 2017), there exist some more moves and steps which were not seen in the moves of the present study, specifically, related to the social purposes or soliciting responses (Wu & Cheong, 2020) and suggestions (Yang, 2013).

Conclusion and Implications

This study has attempted to explore the generic structure of the *Homepage* and *About Us* sections of six Iranian language institute websites. These are the sections implemented by the institutes to introduce and present their services and products. The move analysis of the three formerly-established and the three newly-established institutes revealed that both groups made efforts to attract more learners by convincing their superiority to the prospects.

Regarding the *Homepage,* all these six institutes had similar moves. Five shared moves were in the *Homepages* among which one was not in all institutes. That second move, motto, was optional, whereas the others were obligatory. Some of them contained steps that the moves and steps appeared in different orders. Both groups of institutes included five moves in the *About Us* sections with slight differences. While the focus in formerly-established institutes was on the secrets of being long-lasting, the newly-established ones emphasized their new methods, innovation, and commitment.

The findings of the present study could have implications for language centers to follow successful guidelines in creating, modifying, or even adding creative moves and steps for their websites. It can also be the target of critical analysts to discover the marketization attitudes and linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1996) that is the dominance of a language like English in many parts of the world in Iranian language websites. The websites of institutes could be scrutinized to find traces of linguistic imperialism. They could also be analyzed to understand whether the websites have the commercial or educational inclination.

To the knowledge of the authors, there were no previous studies on analyzing Iranian language institute websites as a genre and then comparing them to other types of educational or non-educational websites. The present research was impartial and it was not intending to promote or criticize the institutes, and the content of the websites was not confirmed or denied by the researchers. Since the present study had a small corpus, more comprehensive move analyses of language websites can be conducted by considering a larger corpus. Further studies might focus on keyword analysis and critical analysis to have a better understanding of the hidden layers of the websites.

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Gender and Paratextual Visibility: A Case Study of Iranian Fiction Translators

Research Article
pp. 49-63

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Abstract
Radical orientation in the feminist movement evoked numerous criticisms calling for a more neutral and non-political paradigm toward women. The urge for visibility is a long-established intersection between gender and translation. Paratexts, as elements outside the text proper, have created a promising avenue for redirecting translators' visibility outside the textual background. This study sets out to investigate how male and female fiction translators employ their prefaces as an opportunity to elaborate on themselves as translators and their profession as a delicate and serious task. One hundred translators' prefaces in the fictions translated from English into Persian were analyzed using thematic analysis. The contents of translation- and translator-oriented themes reflected female translators' preference for speaking in the first person and asserting more personal accounts, whereas men preferred the third-person point of view and focused mostly on introducing the original authors and their works. The overall results of this study showed that female and male translators were mostly reluctant to talk about their translation process and its possible challenges or delicacies.

Keywords: paratext, visibility, preface, male and female translators, theme

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Introduction

The intersection between translation and gender was highlighted through the works of Simon (1996) and Von Flotow (1997). Simon (1996) sheds light on the practices of many feminist translators, focusing mostly on the translation of the Bible from French into an Anglo-American background. Working on the historical background, and premises of feminist approach, Von Flotow (1997) provided a more organized account of the interrelation between translation and feminism.

Feminism has been criticized for its inconsistent and paradoxical ethics that provided the ground for the manipulation of translation as an instrument for attaining feminist interests and benefits (Arrojo, 1995). Afterwards, new paradigms such as "women identified" (Godayol, 1998), "gender in translation theories" (Eshelman, 2007), and "gender-conscious" (Martin, 2014) have been proposed to readdress the women position in the translations. In this respect, Godayol (1998) asserts that feminist advocates have a markedly political disposition, and the manifestation of delimited feminists' policies and ideals, but "women identified" and the related concepts imply a primary preoccupation that isn't always feminist.

The present research strives to look at differences between male and female translators from the relatively new perspective of paratexts to explore how Iranian female and male translators resorted to prefaces as their commentaries to highlight accounts of translation discourse and uncover their personal assertions. Any information given by translators in their prefaces that draws readers' attention to translators and the act of translating is referred to as paratextual visibility.

Gender, Translation, and Paratextual Visibility

Undeserved preconceptions of inferiority and second-class status ascribed to "women" and "translation" have developed a long-standing relationship between these two categories. Both women and translation phenomena have strived to foreground their presence, and visibility through various approaches. For this purpose, foreignization as a textual orientation was proposed by Venuti (1995) more than two decades ago. He coined the term "(In)visibility" to describe the positions of translators in Anglo-American culture. He believes that translators are invisible because they follow the norms established by reviewers, publishers, and readers that a good translation is fluent and readable. Venuti (1995) advocates the foreignized approach to translation to uncover cultural differences and translators' creativity in translation. This dichotomy of foreignization and domestication has been widely criticized (Pym, 1996), Shamma (2009), and Cronin (2010). In this regard, Pym refers to three points that have not been adequately supported by Venuti's theory: firstly, ignoring the translator's authorship by copyright contracts; secondly, the low proportion of English language publications and, thirdly, the notions of invisibility and readability identified mostly in the English language. Moreover, foreignized target texts may not be consistent with the requirements of the reader, and due to the limited freedom in the rendering process, the textual domain provides limited space for translators' visibility.

Translators' traces and footprints in the text domain have also been

previously urged in women-identified approaches that have been criticized from different perspectives. Chesterman (2009, p. 19) criticizes the textual orientation of translation studies because it undermines translators' presence and role behind the target texts. Leech also points out that the focus of the translation discipline has been on "the power that a translator has in relation to the text rather than to his relations as a professional being (2005, p. 14).

Therefore, opening up new avenues to illuminate translators' visibility and presence is strongly felt. Genette divides paratexts into "peritexts"—internal parts like as prefaces, dedications, notes, titles, and blurbs—and "epitexts or distant elements"—outside the text itself, such as interviews, reviews, criticism, and so on (1997, pp. 4-5). In Batchelor's view, the paratextual study in translation studies establishes an interaction between ideological concerns through the topic of gender (2018, p. 36). The detachment of paratexts from actual translations, especially in prefaces, set translators free from the constraints of the source text and its equivalent, and paved the way for adding assertions for which no place is found in a translated book. As Hermans asserts, translators have a "second voice", which may not be detected in the actual translations but is directly heard in the paratextual elements (1996, p. 27).

In female-oriented methods, approaching paratexts in this way has not been overlooked, and prefacing has been recognized as a technique for boosting the standing of female translators. Prefaces are one of the most common types of peritexts, accounting for roughly one-quarter of Genette's book on paratexts and offering almost limitless space for translators' assertions.

Prefaces as the Most Significant Peritext:

The paucity of discourses on translations, especially among female translators, seems to be a common concern. Dimitriu (2009) points out that the limited number of translators' prefaces has put them in a more invisible position than before and created a considerable gap between theory and practice in translation studies. She urges the translators to "develop a more professional meta-language" to improve the "quality" of their prefaces (2009, p. 204). Prefaces are viewed as translators' "ontological narrative" (Somers & Gibson, 1993) and their "democratic spaces of individuality" (Feltrin-Morris, 2016), that "can construct and contest authority" (Oktar & Yetkiner, 2012).

Wechsler (1998, p. 262) declares that when reviewers are encountered with sophisticated prefaces inserted by translators, they are obliged to regard translators as prominent contributors to developing the translated versions. Translatorial prefaces refer to "introductions, notes, afterwards, or any other commentary preceding or following a translation written by the translator" (McRae, 2010, p. 7). Venuti (1995) as the most prominent advocate of translator' visibility, regards prefaces as significant contributors in enhancing the visibility of translators. In a similar vein, Bush (1994) agrees that translators' prefaces, as well as their footnotes and names on the book cover, are a technique to emphasize the translators' authority. Publishers, he argues, are among the forces who oppose the inclusion of translational prefaces in fiction (pp. 115-116).

The paramount importance of these opening elements may be due to their independent nature from the source texts that gives translators more freedom in how they are presented and visible. Several scholars have discussed the functions and potentials of prefaces. Prefaces, according to Landers (2001, p. 103) and McRae (2010, p. 40), can provide substantial evidence and intriguing insights into a book's self-assertions and reasoning, as well as explanations about the decision-making process. Preface, according to Venuti (1986, p. 181), is a crucial, concrete tool for uncovering the translation process and explaining the text's "labor of transformation."

A careful investigation of the translators' prefaces and comparing them with translations, according to Dimitriu, may also be useful and valuable for translation studies in determining translation norms and ideals at any particular moment (2009, p. 202). Prefaces are particularly important in paratexts, according to Tahir-Gürçalar, because they can be used to identify the translator's agency (2011, p. 115). In Norberg' opinion prefaces provide possibilities for translators to reinforce their reputation, writing on the translation points "without being immediately challenged" and "anticipate and prevent criticism from reviewers and readers" (2012, p. 104). This paramount significance pertaining to prefaces, on the one hand, and the rarity of translators' prefaces, especially among the females, on the other hand, justifies further research in this area.

Literature Review

In her study of translators' prefaces, Eckerle (2016) discovered that female translators have a tendency to follow certain patterns, such as establishing a personal connection with their readers and including personal dedications in their reader-oriented prefaces as doorways into the world of print. With respect to the influence of gender on the translation field, Leonardi is recognized as among the first scholars to focus different ways of translating among men and women, based on the presuppositions of different patterns of speaking. She introduces a framework "for the contrastive analysis of the translation strategies of male and female translators" (2007, p. 19) and raises interest in how females and males translate the same original text differently. She explored the Italian into English translated novels in terms of lexical, textual, grammatical, and pragmatic levels and concluded that ideologically-driven shifts in the translation are affected by translators' gender.

Ahmadian (2010) examined 150 female and male translators concerning their translation quality in expressive and informative texts. Females showed better performance, but their differences were not statistically significant. LotfiKashmar et al. (2013) also explored the theoretical knowledge and practical skills of MA female and male translation students. It was concluded that both groups' practical skills were superior to their theoretical knowledge, and males exhibited higher levels of theoretical factors than females, though this difference was not statistically significant.

In two translations of Austin's pride and prejudice, Panou (2013) looked at the disparities in linguistic forms used by male and female translators. The study showed that the female translator was mostly concerned with elaborate descriptions of emotional assertions and hedging devices; while

the male translator showed the tendency toward a more formal and more sophisticated use of language.

Araghizadeh and Jadidi (2016) conducted a study on 53 MA translation students to investigate the relationship between translation quality, translators' epistemological beliefs, and gender. Their findings depicted no significant relationship between epistemological belief and translation quality; however, in the case of gender, it was revealed that male translators translate better than females with respect to translation quality.

Regarding the effect of translators' gender on translation adequacy, Diachuk (2017) investigated the translations of Marguerite Yourcenar's novel *L'Oeuvre au Noir.* She demonstrated that male translators applied a wider circle of lexical and stylistics resources of Ukranian words and expressions. On the other hand, female translators unearthed sensitivity to gender-related issues, and sometimes deviated from original author's storyline and the characters' gender representations.

Method

Materials

Using a convenient sampling, 600 fictions from various authors and genres were selected from English to Persian translations. Fictions, here refer to novels, novelettes, and short stories based on made-up events (Abrams & Harpham, 2011). The books were written by a diverse group of English writers and were translated by a large number of Iranian translators, that result into a deeper understanding of the context and roles of prefaces.

Procedure

First of all, the gender of the translators and the presence or absence of translatorial prefaces were examined in the corpus. Three hundred and thirty books were translated by males and 210 versions by females. One hundred and 64 books were found with prefaces among the male translators and 54 books with prefaces by female translators, indicating the severe paucity of prefaces among females. Finally, 50 females' and 50 males' prefaces were randomly chosen for the final analysis.

These prefaces were studied concerning their point of view that is regarded as a narrative tool that accounts for observed modifications in literary translation and as a sign of the translator's authority and visibility (Munday, 2008). Secondly, prefaces were investigated through thematic analysis, which was proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006) as an accessible and adaptable qualitative method. This method was chosen because, in Batchelor's view, it leads to unearthing thematic patterns of translator's prefaces and could "deepen our appreciation of what paratexts do", and contribute to finding "something that actually presents common practice in a given culture or era" (2018, p. 161). Finally, the fictions containing the extracted themes were counted in the whole data, and their frequency was obtained in all the corpus. Some of the books, for example, had no theme on the translator or the translation discourse, and in some other cases, all the subcategories of the themes were found.

Data Analysis

According to Braun and Clarke (2006, pp. 16-20), thematic analysis, a qualitative analytical technique used in this study, is carried out in six steps:

1. Getting to know the data: During the first step, all of the translators' prefaces were read numerous times to get a sense of the overall context. Some notes were taken at this time, and early impressions for the next steps were formed.

2. Initial code generation: preliminary codes were constructed in this step based on interesting or relevant patterns observed in the data. The study's goal was kept in mind at this point, and each segment of data that was pertinent to the goal was coded. Due to the lack of an electronic version of the fictions, all of the processes were completed manually using hard copies of the books.

3. Theme extraction: This process involved extracting themes by identifying data relationships. These were transient themes that could be categorized as main themes or sub-themes later or deleted entirely.

4. Theme review: The initial themes from the previous phase were developed and re-evaluated. They were divided into multiple themes or combined with others. The relationship between each theme and its pertinent data was investigated, and the themes' consistency over the full data set was assessed.

5. Theme naming and defining: Each theme was examined in depth in this step to verify that it had sufficient content and fit into the overall work. Themes were finally identified by concise and explicit names after the scope and subject matter were determined.

6. Writing-up: The final stage began with a well-developed set of themes to be examined in the final analysis. It is critical that the analysis delivers a clear, cohesive, logical, non-repetitive, and entertaining presentation of the data's story. Finally, some straightforward and simple examples were provided to further elucidate each concept.

The Results

Regarding the point of view, prefaces were divided into the first-person, the second-person, and the third-person. Male translators reflected more tendency toward writing in the third-person (60%) and females were more oriented toward the first-person point of view (52%) that the overall results can be found in the following table:

Table 1

Translators' Point of View in Their Prefaces

Type	Males		Females	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
The first-person singular	17	34%	26	52%
The first-person plural	3	6%	5	10%
The third-person	30	60%	19	38%

Thematic analysis of the prefaces in the first step yielded two overall contents of original-oriented and translation-oriented themes. Original-

oriented themes were categorized into information on the original authors and their works. Translation-oriented were classified into accounts associated with translators themselves and those with the discourse of translation. Table 2 depicts the overall results of these two themes, and in tables 3 and 4, further categorizations of "translator" and "translation discourse" are presented.

Table 2
Themes Extracted from Female and Male Prefaces

Types	Sub-categories	Males		Females	
		Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Original	original author	38	76%	29	58%
	original work	38	76%	32	64%
Translational	Translator	18	36%	28	56%
	translation discourse	21	42%	19	38%

Original-Oriented

Original Author. This theme included personal information, social and political status, and previous works or interviews of the original authors. Although all the translators were highly concerned with elaborating on the original author, this preoccupation was higher in men (76%) than women (58%). Moshref (1938/2009), in his preface of *Brighton Rock,* introduces Green as a prominent writer: "Green accompanies the modern man and, in various individual and social moods, he talks, sees and listens on behalf of him. Consequently, he is considered among the most popular writers in the world" (p. 7).

Original Text. This category explored the content of fiction, as well as its characters, the motivation for its development, and its history. It also took into account the originals' popularity among SL readers, and also their translations into other languages and film adaptations. A large proportion of the extracted themes were dedicated to this content, and like the previous theme, male translators devoted a higher degree (76%) comparing the female translators (64%). Eftekhari, in his preface of Crichton's *Terminal Man*, talks about the notions discussed in the book:

> *Scientific theories and methods in the present book go back to the beginning of the 1970s. Therefore, there is a big difference between these theories and today's complicated discoveries. Many of these theories and methods have been proved today that may set the ground for accepting Crichton's other opinions in the future (1972/2005, p. 5).*

Translation-Oriented

Translator. This category was concerned with any information that draws readers' attention to the translator as a real individual on his/her own. Eckerle (2016) believes that prefaces are the most appropriate places for inserting translators' personal information (p. 105). Asserting emotional feelings bring translators out of their shadowy presence and undermine their existence as prominent individuals who has the right to make comments on what they have done. Constraints on source and target text are removed in the

prefaces and translators are free to speak directly to their readers. In the present study, the frequency of the "translator" theme was found to be surprisingly higher (56%) in female translators in comparison to male translators (36%). This theme was further classified into the following subcategories:

Translators' Sympathy. Paratexts can be applied to elaborate on translation where translators can assert their personal feelings toward the original author or the source text that have been preoccupied with all its lines and words during the translation process. These kinds of self-assertions can be inserted nowhere except prefaces. In the male and female prefaces, only four and three examples of this type of intimate association were found, respectively. Samiyian, for example, talks about her close engagement with the story of the country of men and its events:

> *When starting the translation of this book, I never imagined being absorbed by its every line and page. All the moments of the rendering process, I found myself not as the translator but as someone engaged in the sequence of events narrated by Soleiman. It is safe to claim that I saw myself not as the translator but as a member of the protagonist's family (1970/2016, p. 7).*

Choice of the Public. Translators' limitations as mediators between source and target texts lower their latitude for direct communication with their readers. Eckerle (2016) holds that intimate connection between translators and readers help "to make the preface a metaphorical bridge between private life and established text" (p. 103). Warhol is of the view that when the actual reader is addressed as "you", the text is elevated to a "real event, an exchange of ideas that the novelist hopes will result in real consequences" (1989, p. 203). In the present study, 22% of the whole themes in female translators' prefaces were identified with the choice of the public that was much higher in comparison to 8% found in male translated fictions. Dana, as an example, in her preface of Matheson's *Feather,* talks about her readers' affections:

> *When I write these lines, my heart is infused with the love and kindness of my unseen readers that encouraged me in my work. Some of my dear readers have posted me some beautiful gifts in the shape of feathers. All of these favors show that you are satisfied with my translation (1927/2016, pp. 18-19).*

Behnam specifies and addresses his audience in his translation of Mark Twain's The *Prince and the Pauper*: "The readers of this book are generally adolescents and young people who are interested in reading funny and advisable stories. It is hoped that they will be satisfied with the work" (1881/1909, p. 3).

The above-mentioned quotations are examples of the communication of female and male translators with their audiences. In the first one, Dana, as a female translator, creates a much more intimate interaction with her readers in the first-person point of view, but in the second one, Behnam, as a male translator, addressed his audience from a third-person point of view and by

applying more neutral words.

Lightening Rods. Lightening rods, coined by Genette, involves modest remarks of translators, is a method for defending against criticisms, "that is, to neutralize them -and indeed- to forestall criticism by taking the initiative" (Genette, 1997, p. 208). On this basis, translators admit their possible mistakes and any modifications, especially in translating great works that pose significant challenges. Eight percent of the males' and 6% of the females' extracted themes were devoted to this category. Haji Nasrollah, in his preface of the translated version of Wild's *fisherman and his soul,* talks humbly about the possible weaknesses in his work: "This rendering definitely suffers from its own deficiencies […]. I hope that specialists in the translation field support amateurs like me" (1981/2005, p. 7).

Exit Notes. Exit notes, mostly located at the end of the prefaces, revolved around three items: dedications, acknowledgments, and hope for the translated version's popularity. Pruneau (2016), in his Ph.D., categorizes dedications into personalized and generalized and argues that writers develop a close contact with their young readers by using the first-person possessive pronoun "my," whose pragmatic role is to construct identity (p. 99). Exit notes, in Bilodeau's view, may provide "a stronger rhetorical convention" (2019, p. 71) to draw the readers' attention to the translators' presence. This theme allows translators to dedicate their work to general readers and, more specifically, personal readers, and to express gratitude to various agents, such as friends, publishers, families, or collaborators, who were somehow influential in completing the final version. These insertions bring prominent visibility to translators as agents who regard the translated version as their own property. One of the surprising points in the present study is the much greater tendency of females (56%) in comparison to males (24%) to add exit notes in their prefaces that, like the findings in "point of view" and "translator points", indicate more emotional assertions.

Translation Discourse. This theme included accounts concerned with the phenomenon of translation, divided into translation strategies and challenges, the choice of the original texts, faithfulness, and translation aids. Prefaces provide a precious opportunity for translators to underscore their profession as a delicate and sophisticated task and eliminate unrealistic misconceptions about it as a straightforward and unchallenging activity. This information is influential in enriching the translation field and reducing the gap between theory and practice in translation studies. Moreover, since translators are mostly recognized as hidden and reticent in their work, these accounts provide valuable explanations of their choices and translation procedures applied to their books. Forty-two and 38% of the books contained this kind of information by males and females, respectively.

Strategies and Challenges. This theme is devoted to any explanation of various strategies taken for rendering different items, such as proverbs, proper nouns, archaic words, titles, or information on the overall method adopted for translating the whole work, and the difficulties encountered in the translation process. Female and male translators were equally concerned with adding these kinds of accounts to their prefaces (28%). Manipulations of the original title or the explanations behind its choice are among the subjects

explained in this category. Translators sometimes deviated from the original title and even chose a new title which prefaces provide an appropriate space to talk about their rationales behind their modifications. Mosaed, for example, in her preface of William Golding's *The Spire,* justifies her last choice of the title: "The title "spire" had no appropriate equivalent in Farsi. The closest word was "منار" which has its corresponding "minaret" in English sounded as inappropriate. Consequently, I chose the title "برج" (tower) as the best (Golding, 1983/1990, p. 14).

***The Choice of the Text for Translation*.** This theme is dedicated to the process in which translators were attracted to translating the original texts and the motivations behind their rendering. Just 2 and 5 cases in this regard were found in male's and female's commentaries, respectively. Haghparast, for example, in her translation of Asimov's *Last Answer* (1980/2014), elaborates on choosing the original version for translation:

> *Selecting a work among Asimov's hundreds of books was a challenging task. I wanted to translate this book because our today's science fiction literature needs to enjoy the inclusion of books like this and children now have the right to enjoy a portion of Asimov's work and his sweet language (p. 2).*

Table 3
Categorization of "Translator" Theme in Males' and Females' Prefaces

Types	Males		Females	
	Sum	Percent	Sum	Percent
Choice of the public	4	8%	11	22%
Sympathy	4	8%	3	6%
Lightening rods	4	8%	3	6%
Exit notes	12	24%	28	56%

Table 4
Categorization of "Translation Discourse" Theme in Males' and Females' Prefaces

Types	Males		Females	
	Sum	Percent	Sum	Percent
Strategies and challenges	14	28%	14	28%
Choice of the text for translation	2	4%	5	10%
Faithfulness	2	4%	4	8%
Translation aids	7	14%	2	4%

Faithfulness. Declaring fidelity to the original authors and their works is one of the contents that accounts for a low proportion of the overall themes (4% in males and 8% in females). The scarcity of this theme may be due to the fact that strict fidelity to the source text is no longer regarded as a yardstick in translation studies. Behnam (1881/1909), in his translation of Mark Twin's *prince and pauper*, confesses to his loyalty in translating the original text, "In this version, the translator has done his best not to distort the content of the original. The author's conclusion and message are preserved at 100 percent, so readers will not feel any shortage in this respect" (p. 3).

Translation Aids. Talking about multiple sources of help in translating

the original text in terms of human support or using various books, dictionaries or encyclopedias, etc., is included in this theme. The male translators were more associated with referring to their aids in the translation process (14%) comparing the female translators (4%). Hosseini, a well-known translator, in his preface of Faulkner's *Absalom, Absalom* (1936/1999), admits others' help in the translation process:

> *I owe it to my scholars' friends if I was able to complete this masterpiece. Toraj Yarahmadi edited the three first chapters, and Dr. Parviz Talebzadeh paralleled these three chapters with original text again. Dr. Kamran Ehtesham and Dr. Mahmood Darom also revised some parts of the book based on the original version, and they helped me tackle some of its problems. There is a legal letter in chapter 8 that was translated by the well-known lawyer and translator, Manoochehr Badiei (pp. 11-12).*

Conclusion

This study aimed to present a snapshot of the differences between Iranian female and male translators in applying their prefaces as an opportunity to accentuate themselves and their work. The thematic analysis of the prefaces revealed that both female and male translators were highly preoccupied with introducing the original authors and their books, although the percentage of this engagement was higher for men. These findings are consistent with Norberg's words that finding prefaces, as the most significant type of paratext, written by translators is rare and finding commentaries about translation by them is even rarer (2012, p. 105).

Expressing more self-assertion and personal intimacy by female translators, despite the rarity of their prefaces, was noticeable. These results are consistent with Eckerle's assertions about women's tendency toward some conventions, such as creating an intimate connection with their readers and inserting personal dedications in their reader-oriented prefaces as channels for entering the world of print (2007, p. 103). Panou (2013), similarly, showed that female translators were more concerned with extensive explanations of emotive declarations and hedging strategies, whereas male translators tended to employ language in a more formal and sophisticated manner.

Except for the highlighted female translators in terms of their self-assertions and personal statements, which have been proved to be their inherent psychological characteristics, few commentaries were discovered on the translation discourse among females and males. This finding contradicts Bilodeau's (2019) findings, which found that the topic of translation was covered in somewhat more than half of the publications in the sample, including discussions of translation techniques and text selection. As a result, prefaces in the present study have not applied in Shamma's view (2015) as a ground for elevating the status of translation and the overall position of their discipline, or as a "ample room for an author's manipulation and creativity" (Eckerle, 2007, p. 97).

The paucity of translation discourse in translators' prefaces needs further investigation that may be better understood in interviews or questionnaires conducted on translators. Norberg's (2012, p. 114) claim that

elaborating on translation strategies and principles may draw criticism from reviewers, might be regarded as a possible hypothesis in explaining males' and females' reluctance to talk about their translation choices and strategies. External pressure to not insert translators' prefaces or their content from influential factors such as publishers may be another rationale for explaining the paucity of their prefaces. Publishers, according to Bush (1994), are among the agencies who oppose the addition of translational prefaces to fiction (pp. 115-116). Landers (2001, p. 166) proposes supplying translations to scholarly publications as a solution because they are more likely to include a preface discussing the translations' obstacles and difficulties. The current study's concentration on the English language, and fiction genre may limit its applicability. As a result, investigating gender and paratextual visibility in a variety of languages and genres could yield intriguing results.

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Persian and Arabic Language Students' L3 Acquisition of English Plural Marking: Language of Instruction Matters for Cross-Linguistic Influence

Research Article
pp. 65-85

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Abstract
This study aims at comparing the effects of order of acquisition (L1 vs. L2) and language of contact instruction on third language acquisition (L3), exploring whether the context of acquisition affects learners' knowledge of the L3. To this end, four groups of L3 English learners were selected: The first and the second groups had Persian as their first language (L1) and Arabic as their second language (L2). The participants of the first group were students of Persian Language and Literature, while the participants of the second group were students of Arabic Language and Literature. The third and fourth groups had Arabic as their first language and Persian as their second language. The participants of the third group were students of Persian Language and Literature, while the participants of the fourth group were students of Arabic Language and Literature. The knowledge of English plural marking was elicited via a grammaticality judgment correction task and a picture description task, aimed at examining how these groups learn number agreement between the noun and its adjective modifier in English as their L3. Results revealed that Persian and Arabic A groups (those with Persian as their language of instruction) outperformed the other groups in both tasks, suggesting that they transferred plural marking facilitatively from Persian.

Keywords: transfer, multilingualism, third language acquisition, language of contact instruction, cross-liguistic influence

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Introduction

The effect of formerly learned languages (L1, L2, L3, ...) on the acquisition of subsequent ones (L*n*) has been among the most hotly debated issues in the studies of language acquisition. Second language acquisition is undoubtedly a well-explored territory. On the contrary, the specific research on third language (L3) acquisition is a new research field, especially within formal linguistic approaches, and is expanding rapidly due to its relevance to our multilingual world. The acquisition of the first (L1), second (L2) and third language is different in the initial stage and developmental sequence, because the components available to the learners in each process are different. In the last decades, there have been many studies investigating the acquisition of a third language. However, they often focused on how the L3 relates to the first language and/or the second language, and they have obtained different results.

Studies conducted in L3 acquisition have varied in the variables proposed to explain transfer from previous languages. Some have attributed privileged roles for the L1 (e.g., the L1 Factor, Hermas, 2010, 2014a, 2014b) or the L2 (e.g., the L2 Status Factor, Bardel & Falk, 2007; Falk & Bardel, 2011). Others consider both the L1 and the L2 as possible sources of transfer (e.g., the CEM, Flynn, et al., 2004; the TPM, Cabrelli Amaro et al., 2015; Giancaspro et al., 2015; Rothman, 2010, 2011, 2015).

While several recent studies have provided support for the TPM (see Puig-Mayenco et al., 2020), most of the language combinations in these studies are unambiguously typologically similar. In an effort to provide data from pairings where the typological distance between the L3 and the background languages is less straightforward, this study investigates the effect of Persian and Arabic on English L3 Acquisition.

A further understudied aspect in this study is whether the language that the individuals have selected and learned as their major and received most of their university instruction in plays a role in the transfer patterns observed at the early stages of third language acquisition. This study takes up that challenge.

Theoretical Framework

Four logical possibilities are introduced by Rothman (2015) for how morpho-syntactic transfer may manifest. The first is called the 'no transfer position.'It suggests that the primary state of language learning for any adult language learner is the same, irrespective of previous linguistic knowledge. The second and third are the "L1 factor" and "L2 status factor", which assume a deterministic role for the L1 and L2 of the learners, respectively. The fourth position considers either or both the L1 and/or the L2 as the transfer source of grammatical features and functional categories. This approach has traditionally been taken up by two different models, named Cumulative Enhancement Model (Flynn et al., 2004) and Typological Primacy Model (Rothman, 2015). The four competing hypotheses based on which the L3 acquisition of English noun-phrase number agreement by Persian-Arabic bilinguals is investigated are explained below.

1. L1 Factor Hypothesis

The second position introduced by Rothman has sometimes been

dubbed the 'L1 factor' or 'L1 status factor' (e.g., Håkansson et al., 2002; Hermas, 2010, 2014a, 2014b; Na Ranong & Leung, 2009). This hypothesis, first discussed by Håkansson et al. (2002), highlights the role of L1 in the early stages third language acquisition.

2. L2 Status Factor

The third logical position introduced by Rothman (2015) for morpho-syntactic transfer is the 'L2 Status Factor' (Bardel & Falk, 2007; Falk & Bardel, 2011). It borrows the name from the study on the L3 lexicon by Williams and Hammarberg (1998) and Hammarberg (2001). The L2 status factor model suggests that the cognitive and contextual nature of the L2 grammar makes it have a more prominent role than the L1 at the early stages of L3 morpho-syntactic development. Cognitively, both the L2 and the L3 are non-native languages. Contextually, both are acquired in different settings and at different ages from the first language, often as post-pubescent or adult learners in formal instruction settings. These authors assert that, due to age of acquisition and maturational constraints, the L1 grammar is stored in a memory system different from the one subserving the L2 and L3/L*n* (procedural versus declarative memory, respectively). Therefore, the L2 and the L3 are more similar to one another in terms of cognition. This naturally entails that the L2 has a higher chance to influence the development of the L3 grammar, and thus an overall more substantial effect on L3 acquisition.

3. Cumulative Enhancement Model

The fourth position introduced by Rothman (2015) considers either or both the L1 and/or the L2 as the transfer source of grammatical features and functional categories. This approach has traditionally been taken up by two different models. They both agree that all formerly learned linguistic properties are accessible for transfer. They are the Cumulative Enhancement Model (CEM) of Flynn et al. (2004) and the Typological Primacy Model (TPM) of Rothman (2010, 2011, 2015). The CEM maintains that transfer from the earlier acquired languages can be facilitative or neutral. Crucially, the CEM predicts that if transfer is potentially negative from one of the transfer sources, it simply does not happen.

4. Typological Primacy Model

Rothman (2011) proposed the Typological Primacy Model, in which The choice of the previously obtained grammar as a transfer source in the acquisition of L3 is limited by the structural similarity (real or perceived) between the three grammars considered by the internal parser. Rothman claims that the comparison for establishing proximity has a specific order. It goes over similarities in the lexicon, then phonetics/phonology/phonotactics, then functional morphology, and, finally, syntactic structure. However, these levels are not mutually exclusive: they can all influence the parser's (unconscious) perception of similarities. In contrast to CEM, this model proposes that initial transfer is wholesale, not property by property.

Research Background

Below we present some related studies that examined the L3 transfer models explained in the previous section, along with some recent proposals considering roles for the dominant language in the learners environment in L3

acquisition.

While some scattered studies point to a prominent role of the L1 (e.g., Håkansson et al., 2002; Hermas, 2010, 2014a, 2014b; Na Ranong & Leung, 2009), García-Mayo (2012, p. 137) explains that although the absolute transfer of L1 in the early stages of L3 is a logical working hypothesis, there is no research in the recent literature to clearly defend this position. Similarly, De Angelis (2007) emphasizes the role of L1 transfer, although she does not attribute a privileged role to it, considering instead that the non-native language may play a more critical part in L3 acquisition.

The first and most cited study supporting the L2 status factor model is Bardel and Falk (2007). It presented new data on the acquisition of L3 Swedish and Dutch sentence negation, which supported transfer from the L2. The participants in this study had different L1s and L2s and acquired Swedish and Dutch as their L3. The study investigated the placement of negation at the early stages of L3 Swedish and Dutch. The learners' L3s were taught via Direct Method, and they produced semi-spontaneous speech in interaction with their teacher. The data supported the stronger role of the L2 status factor than the typology factor in L3 acquisition: learners seemed to transfer negation placement from their L2, irrespective of the typological relationship between the L3 and their L1 or L2.

Berkes and Flynn (2011) investigated the acquisition of relative clauses by two groups of L3 English learners of L1 Hungarian-L2 German and L2 English learners of L1 German. All three languages are head initial while German is underlyingly SOV, as seen in its obligatory verb-final word order in embedded clauses. Using an elicited imitation task, they investigated the acquisition of lexically headed and specified, lexically headed and unspecified, and free relative clauses. The results of the study revealed that the English L2 group outperformed in the production of the free relatives and lexically headed clauses while the English L3 group did not. The authors concluded that there was facilitation in L3 acquisition over what would have been non-facilitation from L2 German to L3 English. So their results can be considered as counter-evidence to both the L2 status factor model and TPM and good evidence for CEM.

The foundational evidence for the TPM comes from a study by Rothman and Cabrelli Amaro (2010). This study also built on the notion of Bardel and Falk's (2007) 'L2status factor' for syntactic transfer and explored the role of (psycho-)typology by examining the status of the Null Subject Parameter (NSP) in four different (L2 and L3) groups of Italian and French (see below for details), at the early levels of acquisition. Their participants were four groups of native English speakers. Two of them were acquiring French and Italian, respectively, as an L2. The other two were already highly proficient L2 speakers of Spanish and were acquiring Italian and French, respectively, as their L3. Comparing the languages under scrutiny in this study, Spanish is positively valued for the NSP, while English is negatively valued for this parameter. Crucially while Italian behaves like Spanish (and most other Romance languages) in that it has null subjects, French is not like English.

Despite the seeming support for the L2SF in this study, Rothman and Cabrelli Amaro discussed that psychotypology or even actual typology might be

at play. This means that both the L1 and the L2 are in principle accessible for transfer, in support of the CEM, but only one is transferred as the initial L3 interlanguage hypothesis, yielding both target like and non-target like performance (depending on where the target L3 grammar and the transferred L1 or L2 grammar coincide or diverge

Another recently advanced position is that, in the early stages of third language learning, transfer comes from the speakers' dominant language, irrespective of whether it is an L1 or L2 (Fallah et al., 2016). Fallah et al. connect this claim to the Activation Threshold Hypothesis (Paradis, 2004, 2007). This hypothesis asserts that the choice of a specific background linguistic system in the multilingual mind depends on its activation threshold. In other words, frequent language use decreases the activation threshold and makes the more activated language more available for future use (Fallah & Jabbari, 2016).

However, not all studies have found dominance to play a significant role. Lloyd-Smith et al. (2016) found that syntactic transfer was not related to overall dominance or heritage language proficiency in a group of early Italian-German bilinguals. The structure under scrutiny where embedded wh-questions. Lloyd-Smith et al. used a proficiency index and vocabulary test to measure proficiency of the learners in German and Italian and investigated to what degree these measures predicted performance in the L3. Participants were all German-dominant heritage speakers of Italian, with different Italian proficiency levels. Using an acceptability judgment task, Lloyd-Smith et al. found that in L3 English the heritage speakers incorrectly accepted stimuli that followed to a similar degree the linear word order of both German and Italian. The results of this study questioned the role of typological proximity at later levels of L3 acquisition. Furthermore, the results showed that cross-linguistic influence from Italian happened for all speakers irrespective of proficiency/dominance.

Despite its relevance to the above claim, very few empirical studies in L3 acquisition have examined the role of the language of contact instruction, defined here as the language that individuals have selected and learned as their major of study and received most of their university instruction in. Language of contact instruction is markedly different from the concept of "language of communication" or "dominant language" proposed by Fallah et al. (2016), who describe it as a language that can be acquired naturally without formal instruction, usually as a result of living in a specific place, and used as a language for daily communication in the family, social environment, and school. It is also different from what Puig-Mayenco et al. (2020) have referred to as the "language of instruction." They considered the language of instruction as the language in which English as the third language is taught (at least for beginner learners) and investigated its effect as an extralinguistic factor on the third language development of the learners.

The present study aims to examine morphological aspects of the early L3 interlanguage grammar in order to assess whether (a) the L1 has a more prominant role in L3 acquisition, (b) the L2 somehow blocks access to the L1, (c) transfer comes from both the L1 and the L2, or (d) transfer seems to come only from one of the two languages, but this does not seem dependent on the

order of acquisition. Therefore, the first goal of this study is to test which, if any, of the models discussed above (L1 Factor, L2 Status Factor, CEM, and TPM) predict transfer patterns in the case of noun phrase attributive adjective agreement in L3 English by Persian-Arabic bilinguals with different orders of acquisition. The second goal of this study is to examine whether the language of contact instruction plays a superseding role in syntactic cross-linguistic influence (CLI)/transfer at the initial stages of L3 acquisition.

Syntax of Noun Phrase Attributive Adjective Agreement in Persian, Arabic, and English

A noun phrase contains a group of words headed by a noun. Each noun phrase contains modifiers that may follow or precede the head noun. Agreement occurs between nouns and their modifiers in some situations. It commonly happens in languages such as French, Spanish, and Arabic, in which articles, determiners, and adjectives agree in number (and, sometimes, gender) with the nouns they modify. In languages in which grammatical gender plays an important role, such as French and Arabic, a noun and its modifiers often agree in gender. In languages that have a case system, such as German and Arabic, there is often agreement by case between a noun and its modifiers.

The focus of this study is on singular or plural agreement between the nouns and their adjective modifiers in noun phrases in Arabic, English, and Persian. This phenomenon is described, compared, and contrasted in these languages in the rest of this section.

In Persian, nouns can be marked as singular or plural in terms of grammatical number. The singular form refers to one person or thing, while the plural form refers to more than one of that noun.

Persian nouns are pluralized in one of these three ways: Using the plural suffix "ha:", using the plural suffix "a:n", or using the original irregular form in Arabic borrowings (in the written register only, see below).

The most common way of marking number in Persian is through the suffix "ha:":

(1) Mi:z→Mi:zha:
Table→Tables
(2) Si:b→Si:bha:
Apple → apples
(3) Danesha:mu:z→Danesha:mu:zha:
Student → Students

Once productive across all nouns, the plural suffix " a:n" is now restricted to animate nouns and, in particular, human nouns:

(4) Danesha:mu:z→Danesha:mu:za:n
Student → Students

Arabic loan words are marked for plural either with the regular Persian suffix "ha:" (in spoken Persian) or with an irregular, idiosyncratic form (in written Persian):

(5) Keta;b→Keta:bha:
Book → Books
(6) Keta:b→Kotob
Book → Books

Number agreement between nouns and their adjective modifiers in noun phrases does not happen in Persian in any of the cases mentioned above:

(7) Mi:zhayebozorg
Table.pl.Ez big
big tables

(8) Si:bha:ye Khoshmæze
Apple.pl.Ez delicious
Delicious apples

(9) Da:neshamu:zane Ku:sha
Student.pl.Ez studious
Studious students

The plural in Arabic is of two kinds: regular and irregular or "broken". The regular plural is, in turn, divided into the regular masculine plural and the regular feminine plural. The regular plural is thus called because the singular form remains unchanged; the omission of "ة" (marking feminine gender) is not considered as breaking the form (Sterling, 1904). Therefore, nouns are singular, dual, or plural in Arabic. Each of these types may be masculine or feminine. The feminine is formed by adding *" feminine /t/"* (ة *)* to the end of the masculine form:

(10) Telmizon→telmizæton
Student-M student-F

The dual form is formed by adding "a:ne" to the singular for the nominative and "æine" for the genitive form:

(11) Telmizon→Telmiza:ne
Student-sing.M Student-dual.M.Nom
Telmizon → Telmizæine
Student-sing.M Student-dual.M.gen.

(12) Telmizæton→Telmizata:ne
Student-sing.F Student-dual.F.Nom.
Telmizæton→Telmizætæine
Student-sing.F Student-dual.F.gen.

The plural masculine form is formed by adding "u:næ"(in the nominative case) to the end of its singular form and "i:næ" (in the genitive case) to the end of its singular form.

(13) Telmizon → Telmizu:næ
Student-sing.M Student-pl.M.Nom.
Telmizon→Telmizi:næ
Student-sing.M Student-pl.M.gen.

The plural feminine form is formed by adding " a:ton" to the end of the singular masculine form in the nominative case and "a:ten" to the end of the singular masculine form in the genitive case.

(14) Telmizaton→Telmiza:ton
Student-sing.F Student-pl.F.Nom
Telmizaton →Telmiza:ten
Student-sing.F Student-plural.F.genetive

These processes all apply exclusively to indefinite nouns. When nouns are definite in Arabic, the prefix "al" is added to both the noun and its adjective modifier in all cases, and "*tanween*"(ـٍ ،ـًا) is omitted. *Tanween* is a /n/ sound

added to the end of a word in certain situations in Arabic sentences, and its function is similar to "a" and "an" in English, indicating an indefinite article.

Adjectives in Arabic agree with the nouns they modify in gender, number, case, and definiteness.

English also inflects nouns for number. The plural morpheme "s" (or "es" in some cases) is suffixed to the end of the count noun in regular cases:

(15) Student → students

(16) Watch → watches

In irregular cases, the noun is not suffixed, but instead, its root undergoes some change. One of them is a change in the vocalic sound of the root, although some plural forms are entirely different from the corresponding singular.

(17) Man → Men

(18) Person → people

In this language, adjectives are not inflected for number.

(19) good student → good students

In general terms, noun phrase attributive adjective number agreement is similar in English and Arabic, and in turn, dissimilar in Persian. According to Husseinali (2016), "the attributive adjectives follow their head nouns in Arabic and agree with them in gender, number, and case when the head noun is human. However, in English, the attributive adjectives precede their head nouns, but they agree with them in number (like Arabic) whether the noun is human or not." (p. 90).On the other hand, Persian is a strictly head-initial language in which attributive adjectives follow the nouns in a noun phrase, but they do not agree in number. (See Table 1 for a comparison of attributive adjective agreement in Persian, Arabic, and English).

Table 1

Noun Phrase Attributive AdjectiveAgreement in Persian, Arabic, and English

	Singular	Dual	Plural
Persian	daneshamu:zekhu:b student good		daneshamu:zanekhu:b students good
Arabic	telmizunjahidun student-M. good-M. telmizætun jahidætun Student-F. good-F.	Telmiza:nejahida:ne student-dual.M good-dual-M. telmizæta:ne jahidæta:ne student-dual.F. good-dual.F.	Tæla:mizunja:hidu:n student-pl.M good-pl.M. telmiza:tun ja:hida:tun student-pl.F. good-pl.F.
English	a good student		good students

These language pairings allowed us to test the following hypotheses (see Table 2):

1. The L1 properties are the deterministic sources of transfer in the early stages of L3 acquisition according to the L1 Factor hypothesis. If the L1 fully determines the acquisition of L3 English, both Persian A and B groups are predicted to transfer their L1 Persian, bringing about a facilitative effect. On the other hand, the Arabic A and B groups are predicted to transfer L1 Arabic, resulting in a detrimental effect. Therefore, Persian groups will not pluralize the adjectives in noun

phrases in L3 English, while the Arabic groups will.

2. The L2 properties are the deterministic sources of transfer in the primary stages of L3 acquisition according to the L2 Status factor model. If the L2 fully determines the acquisition of L3 English, both Persian A and B groups are anticipated to transfer their L2 into their L3 detrimentally, while the Arabic groups are predicted to transfer L2 Persian, bringing about a facilitative effect. Therefore, Persian A and B groups will pluralize the adjectives in noun phrases in L3 English, while the Arabic A and B groups will not.
3. Both L1 and L2 properties will be transferred into L3 regardless of the order of acquisition, resulting in facilitative effects for all four groups. Therefore, all participants will transfer Persian into their L3 English. This model predicts no differences across the four groups' performance on the tasks predicting that all of them will not pluralize the attributive adjectives in English noun phrases.
4. According to TPM, L1 or L2, which is more similar to L3 in typology, is the main transfer source. To determine such underlying similarity, the linguistic parser processes a hierarchical continuum of four linguistic cues subconsciously, including the lexicon, phonological cues, functional morphology, and syntactic structure. While lexical and phonological cues are likely to be uninformative to select between Arabic and Persian here, there might be more similarities in functional morphology overall between Persian and English than between Arabic and English. The attributive adjectives do not agree with head nouns in noun phrases in both languages. Therefore, the TPM anticipates that Persian would be the deterministic transfer source (the predictions of TPM and CEM are confounded in this study) at the early stages of L3 English acquisition, resulting in facilitative effects for all four groups. Thus all four groups will not pluralize the attributive adjectives in English noun phrases.
5. The dominant language of contact instruction serves as the deterministic transfer source in the initial stages of L3 acquisition. So Persian A and Arabic A groups, with Persian as the language of contact instruction, will not have any difficulty in comprehending or producing plural marking in English but, both Persian B and Arabic B groups, with Arabic as the language of contact instruction, will tend to pluralize the adjectives in accordance with the nouns in noun phrases.

Table 2

Predictions for the Transfer of Number Agreement in NPs

	Persian A	Persian B	Arabic A	Arabic B
L1 Factor	Persian(F)*	Persian (F)	Arabic (D)	Arabic(D)
L2 status Factor	Arabic (D)*	Arabic (D)	Persian (F)	Persian (F)
CEM	Persian (F)	Persian (F)	Persian (F)	Persian(F)
TPM	Persian (F)	Persian (F)	Persian (F)	Persian (F)
Language of contact instruction	Persian (F)	Arabic (D)	Persian (F)	Arabic (D)

F= facilitative effect D= detrimental effect

Method

Participants

The participants consist of four groups:

The first and the second groups had Persian as their first language (L1) and Arabic as their second language (L2). The participants of the first group were students of Persian language and literature, while the participants of the second group were students of Arabic and literature. The third and fourth groups had Arabic as their first language and Persian as their second language. The third group were students of Persian language and literature, while the fourth group were students of Arabic language and literature. (see Table 3 for a description of the participants.)

The participants of this study included male and female students studying Persian language and literature and Arabic language and literature at Yazd University and Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz. Ahvaz is one of the cities in south Iran, the people of which have Arabic as their first language, but Persian as the official language. So the Ahvazi children get familiar with Persian as a second language when they enter school at the age of 7, but they start learning English when they enter secondary school at the age of 12, just like the children all over Iran. Of course, some people prefer their children to learn English before school, but this factor was controlled in this study to ascertain that all the participants started learning their L3 English at the same age.

The students selected from Yazd University had Persian as their first language and Arabic as their second language, which they were exposed to at the age of 7 in language learning institutes as their second language. They also started learning English at the age of 12, when they entered secondary school.

Sixty-four participants were selected from the students who took the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). The selected students' proficiency scores ranged from 18 to 29, so they were considered as elementary learners of English according to the interpretation guide provided with the OQPT (Geranpayeh, 2003). The age range of the subjects varied from 20 to 30.

Table 3

Description of the Participants

Group	First language	Second Language	Third language	Language of contact instruction
Persian A	Persian	Arabic	English	Persian
Persian B	Persian	Arabic	English	Arabic
Arabic A	Arabic	Persian	English	Persian
Arabic B	Arabic	Persian	English	Arabic

Tasks

The tasks used in this study are a Language and Social Background Questionnaire (LSBQ), the Oxford Quick Placement test (OQPT), a timed Grammaticality judgment/ correction task (TGJ/CT), and a Picture description task (PDT)**.**

The Language and Social Background Questionnaire (Anderson et al., 2018) is a questionnaire containing 22 items which includes information about the participants' proficiency as well as their environmental context. It provided

us with the participants' personal information about the participants, as well as information about their exposure to Persian, English, and Arabic. This questionnaire was also used to elicit information about the participants' age, gender, place of birth, their language backgrounds, the age and the context of language acquisition, the length of time they had been learning English, when they first began learning English, the type of instruction they had received, and their approximate proficiency levels in the respective languages according to their own self-evaluation.

According to Geranpayeh (2003), the Oxford Quick Placement test is a flexible test of English language proficiency developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) to provide teachers with a reliable and time-saving method of finding a student's level of English. We used the OQPT to ascertain that the participants were at low proficiency levels in L3 English. The simultaneous administration of the OQPT and the LSBQ ensured that our participants were both at low proficiency and had had relatively low exposure to English.

The paper and pen version of this test was used for the purpose of this study. All items in this test use a multiple-choice format to test students' reading and structure, including grammar and vocabulary. This test takes about 30 minutes to administer. The answers are recorded directly on the answer sheet, and the answer sheets are quickly marked using the answer key provided. The test consists of two parts. Part 1 was taken by all candidates. This part contains 40 items, including items of vocabulary, grammar, and cloze passages. Part 2 is for higher proficiency students only. Participants who obtain scores of 30 and above can take the second part.

The Timed Grammaticality Judgment/Correction Task (Appendix A) comprising 28 items was administered to assess the participants' comprehension of the plural features in English. The GJ/CT is a set of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences for which the learners are supposed to judge their grammaticality and correct the ungrammatical ones. There is a time limit to complete the task in order to ensure that it taps into the implicit knowledge of the learners with the least possible intrusion of metalinguistic knowledge. The test contained sentences including the target structures (plural NPs) as well as several distracters (14 items). Distracters tested structures other than the target ones to divert the participants' attention from the structures in focus. They consisted of grammatical and ungrammatical items (7 for each). The items focusing on the target structures (14 items) also consisted of both grammatical and ungrammatical types (7 for each):

(1) The good students were doing their homework at home.✓
(2) The strongs workers were working in the building.×

The Picture Description Task was used to check the participants' production of plural marking in noun phrases. It comprised two pictures containing plural items to be described. Below each picture, some sentences were provided (12 in total), each containing a blank. The participants had to fill in the blanks with plural nouns using the picture above the items (see Appendix B). There were also 12 distractor sentences in this task. The participants were provided with possibly unknown words.

Procedure

As the first step in the data collection procedure, the number of the participants was estimated by running some power analyses to ascertain achieving decent statistical power and effect sizes using the R statistical package. Considering the large effect size (f = 0.432) and the alpha level of $p < .05$, the number of participants equals 15.6 for the power level of 0.8.

To tap into the participants' L1, L2, and L3 use, they were asked to complete the Language and Social Background Questionnaire. Meanwhile, They took an English proficiency test to ascertain that they were at the initial level of English proficiency. After one week, they took the timed grammaticality judgment/ correction test (TGJ/CT).

The next week, participants were provided with some pictures to describe in the PDT. They completed the description of the printed pictures in English in a specified space below each picture.

The participants' L2 knowledge of the structures under study was tested (after the L3 testing) to ascertain that they have differentiated L1 and L2 background knowledge available for the structure of interest.

Correct answers in both GJ/CT and PDT were coded as 1, and the incorrect ones as 0 in SPSS. By correct answers, we mean those in which an incorrect sentence was marked as such, followed by the right form, as well as those correct sentences which were appropriately marked as such by the participants. In the PDT, NPs which were grammatically correct were considered as correct answers and coded as 1.

Results

Descriptive statistics of the two tasks are presented in table 4. Regarding the GJ/CT, the Arabic A group got the highest mean (M = 5.1) in terms of their performance on the 14 items checking plural marking amongst the four groups, followed by the Persian A group (M = 3.87), while the lowest mean is 1.5, obtained by the Persian B group. Regarding the PDT, the Arabic and Persian A groups obtained approximately the same means, 10.8 and 10, respectively, and the lowest mean is obtained by the Arabic B group (M = 2.37). These results also showed that the overall performance of the participants in the picture description task was better than their performance in the grammaticality judgment task

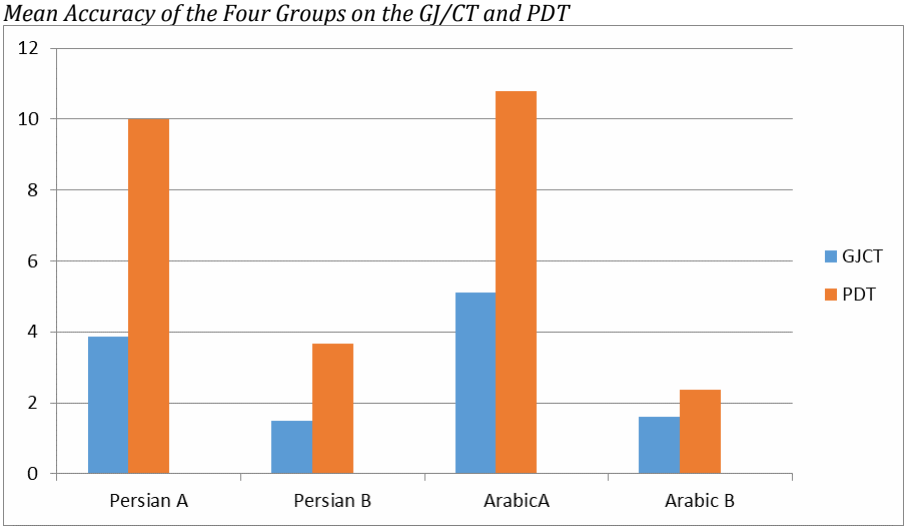
Table 4

Mean Accuracy of Four Groups on the GJ/CT and the PDT

Groups	N	GJCT		PDT	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Persian A	16	3.87	4.42	10	2.64
Persian B	16	1.5	2.82	3.68	2.12
Arabic A	16	5.1	7.1	10.8	1.85
Arabic B	16	1.6	4.3	2.37	2.91

Figure 1

Mean Accuracy of the Four Groups on the GJ/CT and PDT



In order to compare the participants' scores in both tasks, Kruskal-Wallis tests which are the non-parametric alternative of One-way ANOVA were run because the data violated the assumption of normality.

A Kruskal-Wallis test showed a statistically significant difference among the four groups' scores on the PDT, $\chi 2(3, N = 64) = 42.8$, $p = 10^{-9}\times 2$, but not the GJ/CT, $\chi 2(3, N = 64) = 4.9$, $p = .17$ in GJ/CT.

On the other hand, The results of the Mann-Whitney U tests conducted on the data obtained from the PDT indicated a significant difference in the performance of Persian A and Persian B groups ($z = -4.37$, $p = 10^{-6} \times 12$), Persian A and Arabic B groups ($z = -4.43$, $p = 10^{-6} \times 9$), Persian B and ArabicA ($z = -4.71$, $p = 10^{-6} \times 2$) and Arabic A and Arabic B groups ($z = -4.73$, $p = 10^{-6} \times 2$)but neither Persian and Arabic A groups ($z = -.616$, $p = .53$) nor Persian and Arabic B groups ($z = -1.7$, $p = .08$) performed significantly differently.

Table 5

Results of the Mann-Whitney U Tests Conducted on the Data Obtained from the PDT

	Persian A		Persian B		Arabic A		Arabic B	
	z	*p*	*z*	*p*	*z*	*p*	*z*	*p*
Persian A								
Persian B	-4.37	0.000012*						
Arabic A	-6.16	.53	-4.71	0.000002*				
Arabic B	-4.43	0.000009*	-1.7	.08	-4.73	0.000002*		

Discussion

According to the results reported in the previous section, the Persian and Arabic A groups, whose language of contact instruction is Persian, outperformed the other groups in the PDT. While there were some numerical trends favouring these groups over the Arabic-instructed groups in the GJCT, differences between them were not statistically significant. This may have to do with the overall poor performance of all groups in this task (5 out of 14 being

the highest group mean), which might obscure potential differences between them. The production data in this study shows that those learners with Persian as their language of contact instruction constructed attributive adjective-noun number agreement correctly in English, observing the morphological rule that the attributive adjective carries no plural marking, even within plural NPs. This suggests that Persian may have been a source of facilitative transfer, especially in contrast with the performance of the B groups (with Arabic as a language of contact instruction), who seemed to transfer number marking on the adjective from Arabic. Producing phrases such as goods students, males classmates, opens books, and actives boys to fill in the blanks in PDT.

Another fact clearly shown by the results of the study is that the participants' performance in the PDT was generally better than their performance in the GJ/CT. This seems to indicate that the participants' production of noun-attributive adjective agreement is better than their comprehension of it.

Returning to our hypotheses, the L1 factor hypothesis (Håkansson et al., 2002; Hermas, 2014a) claims that the L1 fully determines the acquisition of the L3. For this study, this means that Persian A and B groups are predicted to transfer the target property from their L1 Persian, facilitatively. In contrast, the Arabic A and B groups are predicted to transfer L1 Arabic, bringing about a detrimental effect. The results of this study, however, contradict this hypothesis, with Persian A and B and Arabic A and B groups performing differently from each other, respectively—and the A group outperforming the B group in both cases.

The second hypothesis we reviewed above, the L2 Status Factor, would expect the Persian A and B groups to pluralize the adjectives in English noun phrases to agree with the head nouns, in line with (L2) Arabic, and the Arabic A and B groups to keep the adjective singular, in line with Persian. For the same reason as with the L1 hypothesis, the L2 Status Factor is not supported here: groups with the same L2 perform differently from each other.

The next hypothesis, the Cumulative Enhancement Model (Flynn et al., 2004), predicts no differences across the four groups' performance on the tasks because it maintains that previously acquired languages can be transferred facilitatively to the subsequent language acquisition or remain neutral. According to the CEM, all participants in this study are predicted to transfer Persian, regardless of the order of acquisition, resulting in facilitative effects for all four groups. As we have seen before, groups differed in their performance in the PDT, contrary to this prediction. While they did not differ in the GJCT, their performance was remarkably low, which would not be expected under the CEM's prediction that Persian NP number agreement is transferred here.

According to TPM (Rothman, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2015), L1 or L2, which is typologically/structurally more similar to the L3, is the main source of transfer. To determine such underlying similarity, the linguistic parser processes a hierarchical continuum of four linguistic cues subconsciously, including the lexicon, phonological cues, functional morphology, and syntactic structure. While lexical and phonological cues are likely to be uninformative to select between Arabic and Persian here, there might be more similarities in functional morphology overall between Persian and English than between

Arabic and English. If this is the case, the TPM would expect Persian to be the source of transfer for all four groups. In any case, a natural prediction for the model would be that all groups behave the same. This was not the case, at least in the PDT, although it did hold for the GJCT. To the extent that the specific prediction of a transfer source is indeed Persian, the poor results of the GJCT would also contradict this.

The results of the present study are compatible with the predictions of the last hypothesis discussed in our introductory section, which posits that the dominant language of contact instruction serves as the deterministic source of transfer in the early stages of L3 acquisition. This is most clearly supported by the results of the PDT, where the Persian and Arabic Agroups clearly outperformed the B groups, arguably showing facilitative transfer from their dominant language of contact instruction, Persian. The similarly low performance of all groups in the GJCT does not add further support to these results, although the lack of significant differences might reflect methodological shortcomings rather than a true absence of differences. For example, it might be that the lexical knowledge of our learners was too low, complicating the parsing of the test sentences for them and thus limiting our insight into their grammatical competence.

Conclusion

This study investigated the acquisition of number agreement between the attributive adjective and the head noun in (L3) English noun phrases by four groups of students of Persian language and literature and Arabic language and literature with different combinations of Persian and Arabic as L1 or L2. The data collected using a GJ/CT and a PDT were analyzed to test which, if any, of the L3 transfer models (L1 Factor, L2 Status Factor, CEM, and TPM) correctly predicted transfer patterns in these groups. Simultaneously, our goal was to test these hypotheses against one in which the language of contact instruction plays a superseding role in syntactic transfer at the early stages of L3 acquisition. Since the Persian and Arabic A groups with Persian as their language of instruction outperformed the other groups in both production and comprehension of the noun phrase attributive adjective agreement rule, the results of the present study suggest that the dominant language of contact instruction plays a more significant role than assumed to date, serving as the deterministic transfer source in the early stages of L3 acquisition.

The results also suggest that the context of learning affects the acquisition of the third language. This means that if the learners associate instructed learning with a specific language (Persian or Arabic in the case of this study), it might show that this language is more prominently activated in any other instructed context, including the L3 classroom. In the case of the present study, students of Arabic language and literature and Persian language and literature associated the academic context of English learning with Persian as their language of contact instruction and seemed to transfer the agreement rule from this language facilitatively.

The findings of the present study can be useful for material developers in the ELT domain and also for those who design and present language learning tasks to enhance the learners' comprehension and production of English as a

third language.

Since the participants of this study were elementary L3 learners of English, the findings may not be generalized to learners at other levels of English (who will have had more experience with the language and potentially overcome initial difficulties). The role of gender, the proficiency level of language of contact instruction, and the dominant language of communication is not taken into consideration either. Considering these factors in their research, future researchers may use various tasks, especially oral ones, to see the effect of language of contact instruction on the learners' acquisition of the L3.

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Appendix A
Grammaticality Judgment Correction Task

Grammatical plural:

1. The hungry kids were looking at the dish.
2. He was looking at the stressed students.
3. I visited the kind doctors in the clinic.
4. His mother talked with the patient nurses in their room.
5. The good students were doing their homework at home.
6. I didn't know the five drivers.
7. Brave girls are watching a violent movie.

Ungrammatical plural

1. My beautifuls sisters are at school.
2. His nices boys were playing in the backyard.
3. Mr. Smith wanted to discuss the issue with his hard workings employees.
4. The clevers kids usually answer the questions.
5. The strongs workers were working in the building.
6. Honests men were in the court.
7. The calms babies are in their beds.

Grammatical distracters

1. The girl came home after running.
2. She was making dinner.
3. The baby was crying.
4. They were listening to the music.
5. She made lunch yesterday.
6. They're busy all day long.
7. She said that her last trip was really scenic.

Ungrammatical distracters

1. The windows is broken.
2. I've been in England for 1989.
3. Neil Armstrong were an astronaut.
4. John were a police man in 2015.
5. She opening the door.
6. He's smoking yesterday.
7. The coffee are hot.

Appendix B
Picture Decription Task

Attractive = جذاب
Cute = با مزه
Male= مذکر
Nervous = نگران
Formal = رسمی
Shelf = قفسه

Plural:

1. The _____ _____are in the library.
2. The _____ _____are studying.
3. The sad girl is looking at her _____ _____ .
4. The ____ ____ are looking at their books.
5. There are three ____ ____ on the desk.
6. There are three ____ ____ on the desk.
7. She is satisfied with her ____ ____ .
8. The teacher is wearing____ ____ .

Distracters:

9. The library is ____
10. There are many books on the ____ .
11. Another ____ is sitting next to the shelves.
12. A(an) _____ _____is their teacher.
13. The studious boy is looking at the book.
14. The _____ _____is helping his classmate.

Active = فعال
Naughty = بازیگوش
Excited = هیجان زده
Shy = خجالتی
Sunny = آفتابی

Plural:

1. They are all ____ ____ .
2. The____ ____ are playing.
3. The tall girl is looking at her____ ____ .
4. The man enjoys watching the ____ ____ playing.

Distracters:

5. All the children are ____ a good ____ .
6. This picture ____ a playground in spring.
7. The weather is ____ and nice.
8. The trees are _____and beautiful.
9. The handsome manloves to ____ children playing.
10. The little girl___ swinging and shouting.

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Teachers' (Dis)Respect for English Language Learners: Developing a Cross-Cultural Model

Research Article
pp. 87-114

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Abstract
Batelaan (2001) posits that a teacher-student respectful inter-relationship is conducive to a safe learning context. This study presents a multi-faceted scale that cross-culturally measures teachers' (dis)respect for learners as a crucial dimension of teacher-student relationships. The teachers' respect for learners questionnaire (TRLQ) is premised upon literature review, focus groups and online interviews. We examined the dimensionality of the TRLQ via Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to seek confirmation for our hypothesized six-factor model among native and non-native English language teachers and learners (N = 472). The six-factor structure was obtained through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) of the TRLQ, which was developed based upon three overarching categories consisting of 14 minor themes gained from focus groups and online interviews. Hinged upon these analyses, the six-factor structure strongly indicated the best fit. These dimensions include a) teachers' interpersonal characteristics, b) teachers' insightfulness, and c) teachers' occupational attributes. Reliability coefficients revealed that the internal consistency of the six factors was excellent. Further, we tested the convergent, divergent, and predictive validity of the TRLQ. Teachers' (dis)respect for learners appeared to predict learners' academic achievement, particularly their GPA and self-assessed success in learning English. The results lend support to the six dimensions derived from EFA and focus groups and online interviews and offer concrete proof of the psychometric properties of our scale. This scale can be used by educators and policy makers to oversee teacher-student respectful relationships.

Keywords: teachers' (dis)respect for learners, cross-cultural study, English language teachers, English language learners, confirmatory factor analysis

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Introduction

People feel a basic psychological and social need to connect to others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). The desire for connectedness may be a strong motive in educational contexts for behaving in a way favoring close social bonds (Walton et al., 2012). When students' needs for relatedness are fulfilled, they will be properly equipped to deal with the affective and cognitive learning demands (Martin & Dowson, 2009; Roorda et al., 2011). According to Wubbels et al. (2016), teachers' positive relationships with students have substantial impacts on educational outcomes.

As Goodman (2009) defines respect, it is "a cardinal virtue in schools and foundational to our common ethical beliefs, yet its meaning is muddled" (p. 3). Moule and Wallace (2017) proposed three elements for disrespect: "(1) an interaction or lack thereof (2) between two or more parties, (3) and violations of conduct norms, experienced or observed directly or vicariously" (p. 135). Therefore, disrespect indicates perceived violations of the expectations of interpersonal behavior or challenges to one's social standing (Collins, 2008).

According to Hill (2000), "History echoes with passionate pleas for justice and charity, but in our times, increasingly, what we hear are demands for respect" (p. 59). Defining *disrespect*, Honneth (1996) reiterates that, "the moral categories that play a dominant role are those - such as 'insult' or 'humiliation' - that refer to forms of disrespect" (p. 131). Respect, fairness, and equality of treatment are the desired elements of our daily life (Tyler, 2006), and infringing on these norms of behaviour may arouse perceptions of disrespect (Miller, 2001). Additionally, Batelaan (2001) believes that teacher–student respectful interaction is at the heart of an efficient learning context. Nevertheless, the meaning of (dis)respect is still controversial (Sennett, 2004).

Shwalb and Shwalb (2006) assert that (dis)respect is a neglected issue; further, it is a key topic "for both cross-cultural and mainstream developmental studies" (p. 1). For English language learners, acquiring a new language heightens the requirement for a classroom environment fostering respect. Therefore, what is required is an understanding of how teachers and learners conceptualise (dis)respect, which is the purpose of the current study as an initial attempt to broaden the scope of (dis)respect research. The following research questions motivated the study:

RQ1. What are native and non-native English language teachers' and learners' perceptions of teachers' (dis)respect for learners?

RQ2. What structural model best represents the dimensions of teachers' (dis)respect for learners?

Literature Review

Extant literature indicates that healthy interpersonal relationships have significant impacts on human's personality development, thereby students' educational success (Adler, 1973; Fromm, 1955; Maslow, 1987; Rogers, 1983). As Henry and Thorsen (2018, p. 2) maintain, "Given the importance of positive relationships with teachers for students' learning outcomes, classroom-based research into teacher–student relationships is surprisingly rare." Whereas there exists a considerable body of literature on the teacher–student relationship (e.g., Charalampous & Kokkinos, 2013; Docan-

Morgan, 2011), the research into teachers' (dis)respect for learners remains limited.

As Telli and Den Brok (2012) put it, "the literature provides support for the premise that high-quality teacher–student relationships are an important factor in effective teaching" (p. 187). Lightfoot (2000, p. 180) asserted, "Piaget returns repeatedly to the importance of the social relationship to the formation of mutual respect." Further, correlations are found between caring teacher–student relationships and academic achievement (e.g., Gest et al., 2005; Valiente et al., 2008). Moreover, students are more motivated to learn in long-lasting teacher–student relationships (Wentzel, 2009); they are also more engaged during the class (Claessens et al., 2016; Martin & Collie, 2018).

Indeed, the underlying assumptions of this study are that, in human relationships, (dis)respect is of utmost importance and (dis)respect within the teacher–student relationships is crucial for students' success. Therefore, as teacher–student interpersonal relationships are "two-way streets; teachers and students construct these relationships together" (Brinkworth et al., 2018), we aimed at investigating both teachers' and learners' perceptions.

Huo et al. (2010) presented the *dual pathway* model of respect, which is "one of the best available theoretically articulated models of respect" (Blincoe & Harris, 2011, p. 509). The researchers examined their prediction that being treated fairly by one's group members will shape his/her perceptions towards both the group and self through two pathways, namely *status* and *inclusion*. Status was construed by Huo et al. (2010) as "the individual's perceptions of his or her standing or worth as a group member (i.e., perceived status) and inclusion as 'individuals' perceptions of the degree to which the group feels warmly toward them (i.e., perceived liking)" (p. 201).

In 1997, Ellis measured high school students' perceptions of teacher respect and its relation with success in school. He defined student success as "having few absences, a low incidence of discipline referrals, and a high grade point average" (p. iii). In this survey study, Ellis (1997) found that (a) students valued respect from their teachers, (b) students' perceived teachers' respect could be measured reliably by the Perception of Teacher Respect Survey (PTRS), and (c) there was a positive correlation between students' perceptions of respect and their academic achievement and a negative correlation with their absenteeism and discipline problems.

Likewise, Fernandes (2005) investigated the relationship between high school students' perceptions towards teachers' respect for learners and their academic success, discipline referrals, and attendance. Perception of Teacher Respect Survey (PTRS) was employed. Self-report evaluations and students' academic records including grade point average, absences, and discipline problems were used to analyse the outcome variables. Like Ellis (1997), Fernandes (2005) found that there was a positive correlation between students' perceptions of respect and their academic achievement and a negative correlation with their absenteeism and discipline problems.

The current study concentrates on (dis)respect in the educational context of classroom, i.e., teachers' (dis)respect for learners. Hinton (2016, p. 146), expounding on the relation between "culture and everyday understanding" suggests, "We are born, are brought up and live in a culture.

Much of what we know, and indeed who we are, comes from being immersed in culture. Within a culture, customs, traditions, and beliefs have developed." Apparently, people's cultural background has a great impact on the way they approach the concept of (dis)respect. Exploring the factors affecting this relationship positively when teachers try to create a *classroom social environment* allowing for students to develop both intellectually and emotionally is valuable for any stakeholder in education (Joe et al., 2017; Patrick et al., 2007). For those educators who live in the "outer" or "expanding" circles of world Englishes (Kachru, 1985), it seems important to understand the cultural perspectives of people who live in the core English-speaking countries, namely the "inner circle" (Kachru, 1985). This study could be a step towards blending culture with language instruction. Consequently, we opted to conduct this study cross-culturally to enrich our understanding of the under-explored concept of (dis)respect by considering both natives' and non-natives' perceptions.

Method

Questionnaire Development

The teachers' respect for learners questionnaire (TRLQ) was developed through three phases: item generation, preliminary piloting, and psychometric evaluation. Item generation began with semi-structured focus groups and online interviews. This phase was designed qualitatively based on grounded theory (GT), in which data is collected qualitatively and inductively. In GT, recurrent themes can be extracted and categorised into different groups (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, the researchers consulted the literature for identifying pertinent themes. Such an item-generation process lends construct validity to a newly-developed questionnaire (e.g., Dörnyei, 2010).

In the first phase, namely semi-structured focus groups and online interviews, our participants were 114 native and non-native English language teachers and learners who were selected based on convenience sampling (Table 1). Native participants were the native English speakers from the UK (N = 12), Australia (N = 12), the U. S. A (N =11), Canada (N = 10), Ireland (N = 5), and New Zealand (N = 4); they were from the educational contexts of college/university or high school. Non-natives were teachers and learners from Iran (N = 16), Russia (N = 11), China (N = 11), South Korea (N = 6), Afghanistan (N = 6), Pakistan (5) and Saudi Arabia (N = 5); they were from the educational contexts of college/university or private language institutes. Participant learners were either at high-intermediate or advanced levels in language institutes or at BA or MA levels of college/university. Participants' mean age was 44.50 years for teachers (SD = 10.06 years) and 23.43 for learners (SD = 9.32 years). Moreover, teachers' mean years of teaching experience was 15.23 (SD = 11.63) and learners' mean years of learning experience was 10.31 (SD = 7.23).

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Participants in the Qualitative Phase

		f	%
	Teachers	62	54.3
	Learners	52	45.6
	Native	54	47.3
	Non-native	60	52.6
	Male	64	56.16
Gender	Female	50	43.8
Educational Context	University/College	62	54.3
	High School/Language Institute	52	45.6

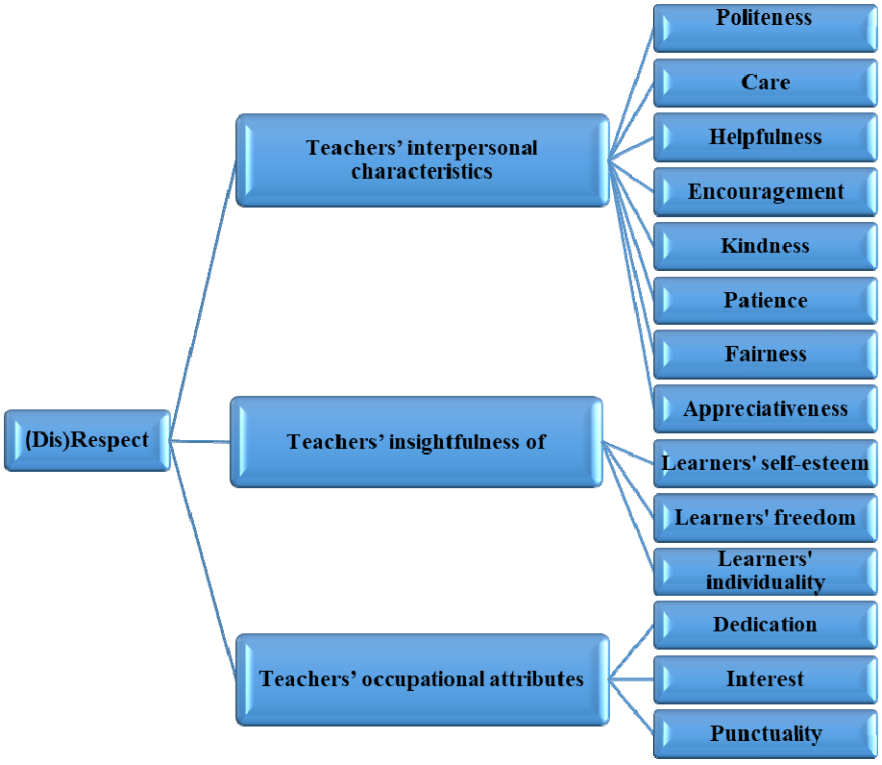
We held face-to-face focus group discussions with Iranian participants and online interviews with other natives and non-natives. We conducted two four-member focus groups with both Iranian teachers and learners in Iran in three stages, premised upon the guidelines suggested by Dörnyei (2007): a) the introductory phase, b) the actual discussion, and c) the concluding phase. All focus group interviews were held in English (each approximately one hour long). Regarding online interviews, the researchers contacted 335 participants via email and social networks, e.g. LinkedIn, Google +, WhatsApp, etc., only 98 of whom responded, i.e., the response rate of 29.25 %.

Ethical considerations were adopted in collecting, analyzing, and reporting the data. For instance, participants were fully informed about the goals of the study and the fact that the outcomes of this study would be used for research purposes only. All participants consented to be interviewed online or to attend focus groups and all non-natives were aware that the sessions were audio-recorded. Moreover, they were reassured that all the data would be kept confidential.

We transcribed audio-recordings of focus groups, and analysed them along with online interview responses utilising MAXQDA 2018. We analysed the data using the coding pattern proposed by Strauss and Corbin (2008) comprising three coding stages: open, axial, and selective. In the open coding stage, we perused the data to pinpoint participants' preliminary codes. Hence, we set codes and categories, occasionally employing in vivo codes participants' exact words. In axial coding stage, we considered the relations between specific categories, identifying and classifying codes according to a proper fit. By further analysing the data, we managed to modify and reinforce the codes and categories through constant comparative method (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). Finally, in the selective coding stage, we related major categories to other pertinent subcategories, and referred to core categories as themes. We coded participants' statements independently by employing joint-probability of agreement. Then we met to compare the codes, and aligned the coding patterns in an iterative procedure.

Content analysis of 442 coded statements from focus groups and online interviews revealed three overarching categories: (1) teachers' interpersonal characteristics, (2) teachers' insightfulness, and (3) teachers' occupational attributes. Overall, we could detect 14 minor themes. As a result, we proposed a cross-cultural model of teachers' (dis)respect for learners (Figure 1).

Figure 1
A Cross-Cultural Model of Teachers' (Dis)Respect for Learners



Participants and Procedure

As depicted in Table 2, 472 teachers and learners participated in the quantitative phase. We used non-probability sampling procedures, i.e., *convenience* or opportunity *sampling*, in which "Members of the target population are selected for the purpose of the study if they meet certain practical criteria, such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, or easy accessibility" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 61). Participants' age was between 24 and 67 years for teachers (M = 45.83 years; SD = 9.61 years) and between 16 and 30 for learners (M = 25.08 years; SD = 10.64 years). Three types of questionnaire administration were employed. Firstly, *one-to-one administration* was used when the researchers delivered TRLQ by hand to some colleagues at work and asked them to give back the completed form by a specific deadline. Secondly, *group administration* was utilized when the researchers delivered TRLQ by hand to a group of learners in a class. Finally, TRLQ was administered *Online* using Google Forms. To this end, the researchers had to "contact various Internet discussion groups, bulletin boards, chatrooms, and lists, and/or initiate some sort of snowball sampling by emailing potential participants" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 71). Particularly, they had to use social media such as Google +, Telegram, WhatsApp, LinkedIn, etc.

Table 2
Demographic Characteristics of Participants in the Quantitative Phase

		f	%
Teachers		198	41.9
Learners		274	58.1
Native		123	26.1
Non-native		349	73.9
Gender	Male	272	57.6
	Female	200	42.4
Years of Teaching/Learning Experience	0–2	40	8.5
	2–5	152	32.2
	5–10	206	43.6
	10+	74	15.7
Educational Context	University/College	279	59.1
	High School/Language Institute	193	40.9

Data Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis

In this study, as we developed a new questionnaire, TRLQ (Appendix), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed to pinpoint the items that had sufficient factor loadings and to reduce the questions into a few factors. In factor analysis, the main goal is to investigate whether a few more general factors can be identified, which constitute the underlying structure of the responses to the items of a questionnaire. We ran EFA utilising SPSS Version 26 to decrease the number of items (indexes) of TRLQ and to specify the underlying factors encompassing those items (Byrne, 2016).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used both to construct and validate TRLQ and to test the putative factor structure of the construct of teachers' (dis)respect for learners. In other words, CFA indicated whether the designed questions for each construct (extracted factor through EFA) actually measured what they purported to measure, and whether each question or index had adequate validity.

Face Validity

To examine whether TRLQ items were well formulated and understandable, interviews were carried out with two experienced university professors in the field of applied linguistics (both men, average age 55.4 years), four Iranian teachers at a language institute (two men, two women, average age 34 years) and four Iranian learners at a language institute (two men, two women, average age 18 years). These interviews were led by two questions: (1) Do all the items appear to measure teachers' (dis)respect for learners? (2) Are all items understandable, clear, and well-formulated? All interviewees found that all the items were clear, appropriate, and well-formulated because they only made minor remarks about item generation, which were then built into the questionnaire. For instance, the item "It would be better for teachers to be patient" was changed to "It would be better for teachers to be patient with

learners", to stress the teacher-student interpersonal relationship.

Measures of Construct Validity

Three measures were used to assess the construct validity of TRLQ including convergent, divergent, and predictive validity. Convergent validity is demonstrated when a newly-developed scale is positively and highly correlated with a measurement instrument that is intended to investigate theoretically similar constructs (Price, 2016). The theoretically similar construct we used is *teacher-student relationships (TSRs)* measured through the scale developed by Brinkworth et al. (2018), which measures both positive and negative dimensions of the overall TSR from the perspective of teachers and learners. The scale consists of 14 items, scored on five-point rating scales ranging from 1 to 5, for instance, not at all/slightly/somewhat/quite a bit/a tremendous amount. An example student item is: "How motivating are the activities that your teacher plans for class?" Cronbach's alpha was found to be 0.88.

Divergent validity is established when weak associations are found with a concept that is conceptually unrelated or at least weakly related (Price, 2016). In this study, we used *Computer attitudes scale (CAS)* as a construct that is supposed to be weakly related to teachers' (dis)respect for learners. CAS was measured through the scale developed by Liaw (2002), which measures subjects' perceptions toward "computer self-efficacy, liking, usefulness, and intention to use and learn computers" (p. 24). The scale consists of 16 items on a five-point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. An example item is: "I believe that knowing how to use computers is worthwhile." Cronbach's alpha was found to be 0.91.

Predictive validity of TRLQ was tested by relating it to learners' *academic achievement* as measured by learners' grade point average (GPA) on a scale ranging from 0 to 20 as well as learners' language learning self-assessment checklist designed by the current researchers. In this checklist, learners were required to rate themselves concerning their success in learning English skills/sub-skills on a five-point Likert scale from 1 = very poor to 5 = excellent. Research backs the idea that teachers' (dis)respect for learners is a necessary condition for learners' academic achievement (Ellis, 1997; Fernandes, 2005).

Results

EFA of Respect Items of TRLQ

Out of the 40 items of TRLQ, 20 items (odd-number ones, i.e., 1, 3, 5 …) were intended to measure the construct of teachers' respect for learners. EFA was conducted using principal component analysis (PCA). To measure sampling adequacy for the model, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test was used. This statistic that measures the suitability of the data for factor analysis ranges from 0 and 1. If KMO values are greater than 0.7, the existing correlations are suited for factor analysis (de Vaus, 2014). Further, Bartlett's test, according to Field (2013), "tells us whether our correlation matrix is significantly different from an identity matrix. Therefore, if it is significant then it means that the correlations between variables are (overall) significantly different from zero" (p. 806).

For *respect* items, the KMO value is .925 (Table 3), which is acceptable,

meaning that about 93% of the variances of these 20 items may be caused by the latent construct of teachers' respect for learners. Bartlett's test is also significant as its value is less than .05 (P < .05). Overall, the results of these two statistics indicated that it was appropriate to run factor analysis on these 20 items.

Table 3

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity of Respect Items

	Bartlett's Test		
KMO	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.
.925	4815.389	190	.000

Table 4 shows the number of extracted factors based upon respect items of TRLQ. De Vaus (2014) believes that factors with eigenvalues over 1 are the best ones. Results indicated that three factors had eigenvalues greater than 1. This finding shows that, out of the 20 items of TRLQ, three underlying factors or dimensions have been identified. Overall, these three factors explain 57% of the total variance of the 20 items, which is an appropriate amount of total variance; hence, the selection of these three factors as the final extracted factors has been acceptable indicating that they are conceptually related.

Table 4

Statistics of the Extracted Factors Based on Respect Items

Factors	Eigenvalue	% Extracted Variance	% Extracted Cumulative Variance
1	6.187	30.935	30.935
2	2.871	14.355	45.290
3	2.392	11.961	57.251

Table 5 shows the three final extracted factors based on respect items. The orthogonal rotation performed was varimax. The explained variance indicates what percentage of the variance of each item is explained by the extracted factors.

Table 5
Final Extracted Factors Based on Respect Items

Factors	Items	Factor loadings	Explained Variance
Factor 1: Teachers' Interpersonal Characteristics	Q1	0.608	.508
	Q3	0.751	.567
	Q9	0.693	.615
	Q13	0.68	.634
	Q15	0.506	.517
	Q19	0.746	.649
	Q21	0.605	.575
	Q23	0.769	.627
	Q25	0.581	.506
	Q33	0.634	.532
	Q35	0.732	.691
	Q37	0.679	.553
	Q39	0.542	.458
Factor 2: Teachers' Insightfulness	Q5	0.559	.541
	Q7	0.783	.634
	Q11	0.466	.425
	Q17	0.643	.543
Factor 3: Teachers' Occupational Attributes	Q27	0.668	.584
	Q29	0.815	.687
	Q31	0.72	.605

According to Kline (2011), deciding which factor loadings are appropriate is partially optional. He believes that "it is usual to regard factor loadings as high if they are greater than 0.6 (the positive or negative sign is irrelevant) and moderately high if they are above 0.3. Other loadings can be ignored" (p. 6). In this study, all items with factor loadings of greater than 0.4 were retained in the analysis. The results indicate that all respect items of TRLQ had factor loadings of higher than 0.4. Therefore, no item was deleted.

EFA of Disrespect Items of TRLQ

Out of the 40 items of TRLQ, 20 items (even-number ones, i.e., 2, 4, 6 …) were intended to measure the construct of teachers' disrespect for learners. For

disrespect items, the KMO value is .897 (Table 6), which is acceptable meaning that about 90% of the variances of these 20 items may be caused by the latent construct of teachers' disrespect for learners. Bartlett's test is also significant as its value is less than .05 (P < .05). Overall, the results of these two statistics indicate that it is appropriate to run factor analysis on these 20 items.

Table 6

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity of Disrespect Items

	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
KMO	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.
.897	3994.234	190	.000

Table 7 shows the number of extracted factors based on disrespect items. Results indicated that three factors had eigenvalues greater than 1 showing that three underlying factors or dimensions have been identified. Overall, these three factors explain 52% of the total variance of the 20 items, which is an appropriate amount of total variance; hence, the selection of these three factors as the final extracted factors has been acceptable indicating that they are conceptually related.

Table 7

Statistics of the Extracted Factors Based on Disrespect Items

Factors	Eigenvalue	% Extracted Variance	% Extracted Cumulative Variance
1	۴.۲۵۳	۲۱.۲۶۶	21.266
2	3.536	17.681	38.947
3	2.660	13.300	52.247

Table 8 shows the three final extracted factors based on disrespect items, all of which had factor loadings of higher than 0.4. Therefore, no item was deleted.

Table 8
Final Extracted Factors Based on Disrespect Items

Factors	Items	Factor loadings	Explained Variance
Factor 1: Teachers' Interpersonal Characteristics	Q2	0.61	.377
	Q4	0.542	.422
	Q6	0.505	.395
	Q8	0.634	.548
	Q10	0.632	.587
	Q14	0.669	.555
	Q20	0.73	.645
	Q24	0.71	.584
	Q32	0.704	.570
Factor 2: Teachers' Insightfulness	Q18	0.402	.311
	Q22	0.784	.635
	Q26	0.571	.527
	Q30	0.536	.488
	Q34	0.674	.549
	Q36	0.54	.438
	Q12	0.68	.604
Factor 3: Teachers' Occupational Attributes	Q16	0.606	.463
	Q28	0.592	.443
	Q38	0.789	.652
	Q40	0.576	.656

In this study, skewness and kurtosis were used as two indexes to determine the normal distribution (Table 9). If the values of skewness (the "symmetry" of the distribution) and kurtosis (the "peakedness" of the distribution) are between +2 and -2, the data are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

Table 9
Descriptive Statistics of the Six Dimensions of TRLQ

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis	SD	M	N
Respect					
Teachers' Interpersonal Characteristics	-1.305	1.469	0.48	4.61	472
Teachers' Insightfulness	-1.102	1.169	0.55	4.45	472
Teachers' Occupational Attributes	-0.288	-0.245	0.71	3.94	472
Disrespect					
Teachers' Interpersonal Characteristics	-1.809	1.245	0.54	4.58	472
Teachers' Insightfulness	-1.856	1.870	0.50	4.50	472
Teachers' Occupational Attributes	0.862	1.305	0.62	4.25	472

Because skewness and kurtosis values of all variables are between +2 and -2, we concluded that the data are normally distributed. Therefore, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as a subset of structural equation modelling (SEM), which is a covariance-based approach, was conducted using AMOS Version 26 (Arbuckle, 2019).

Standard Coefficients for Respect Items

To assess the construct validity of TRLQ, CFA was used through SEM. Because there is no prevailing consensus among SEM statisticians as to which fit indicators provides the researchers with the best measurement of the model, it is recommended that a combination of such fit indicators be reported.

These fit indicators represent *path coefficients* or factor loadings for the items and the correlated variables (factors), that is, the correlation between latent and observable variables. The extent of correlation between latent variables and the pertinent item(s) can be inferred from *standard coefficients measurement model*. In this model, the extent of the relationships between structures and dimensions as well as dimensions and indexes is explained. Provided that the correlation coefficient is higher than 0.3, it can be claimed that the items have enough power of explanation. As Figure 2 reveals, all fit indicators for all variables and their pertinent respect items have factor loadings of higher than 0.3.

Standard Coefficients Significance

Standard estimates provide us with *binary correlation coefficients* that enable us to compare indexes and dimensions. However, regarding the significance of these coefficients, we cannot decide based upon their high or low values. Instead, we should use *T-value* to determine the significance of these path coefficients. The *significant numbers model* or *T-value* is used to specify whether the relationships between structures and dimensions as well as dimensions and indexes are significant or not. The T-values, depicted in Table 10, represent the significance of each parameter, which is significant if the value is greater than absolute value of 1.96. As can be seen, all significant numbers of respect items have values over 1.96. Therefore, all factor loadings and path coefficients of our model are significant.

Figure 2

CFA of Respect Items of TRLQ

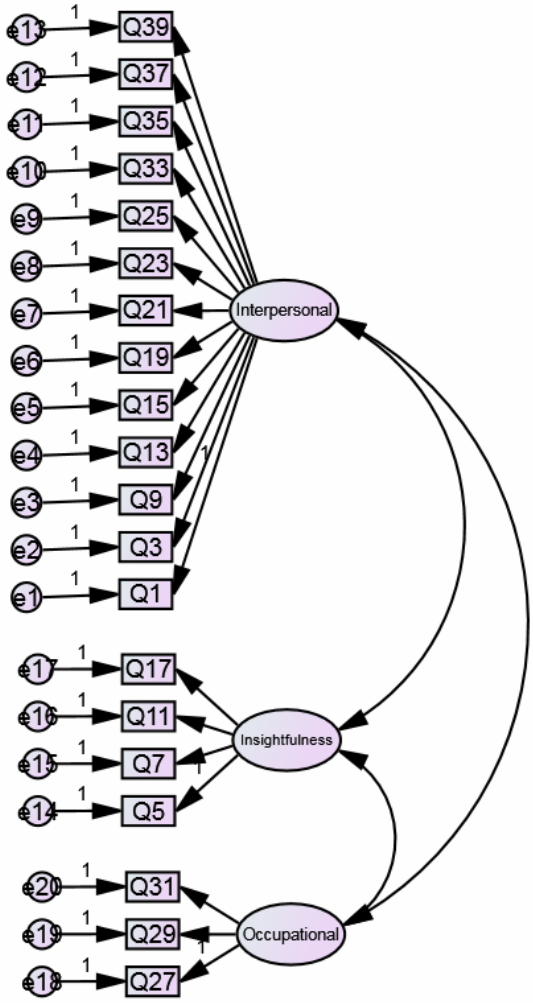


Table 10
The Significance of Factor Loadings for Respect Items of TRLQ

Paths	P Value	T Value	Standard Error	Standardized Coefficients	Non-Standardized Coefficients
Q1 → F1	< 0.001	9.903	0.071	0.69	1
Q3 → F1	< 0.001	12.91	0.06	0.63	0.777
Q9 → F1	< 0.001	15.424	0.054	0.76	0.833
Q13 → F1	< 0.001	15.42	0.068	0.76	1.054
Q15 → F1	< 0.001	13.376	0.071	0.654	0.945
Q19 → F1	< 0.001	15.253	0.07	0.751	1.071
Q21 → F1	< 0.001	14.676	0.075	0.721	1.106
Q23 → F1	< 0.001	14.299	0.074	0.701	1.059
Q25 → F1	< 0.001	13.708	0.075	0.671	1.031
Q33 → F1	< 0.001	13.819	0.059	0.676	0.817
Q35 → F1	< 0.001	15.537	0.071	0.766	1.1
Q37 → F1	< 0.001	14.694	0.058	0.722	0.853
Q39 → F1	< 0.001	13.111	0.077	0.64	1.012
Q5 → F2	< 0.001	9.903	0.071	0.68	1
Q7 → F2	< 0.001	10.138	0.098	0.528	0.992
Q11 → F2	< 0.001	11.16	0.082	0.587	0.918
Q17 → F2	< 0.001	11.385	0.09	0.6	1.022
Q27 → F3	< 0.001	9.903	0.071	0.688	1
Q29 → F3	< 0.001	10.943	0.107	0.727	1.169
Q31 → F3	< 0.001	9.903	0.094	0.589	0.93

Notes: F1 = Factor 1, F2 = Factor 2, F3 = Factor 3

Model Fit Indices of the Measurement Model of TRLQ for Respect Items

The model fit indices used to validate TRLQ and the obtained values are listed in Table 11. The obtained values show that the model is appropriate for measurement. The results of the second CFA using *maximum likelihood* or *likelihood estimation method* revealed that the measurement model is appropriate and all the values and parameters of the model are significant.

Table 11

Fit Indices and Their Obtained Values for Respect Items of TRLQ

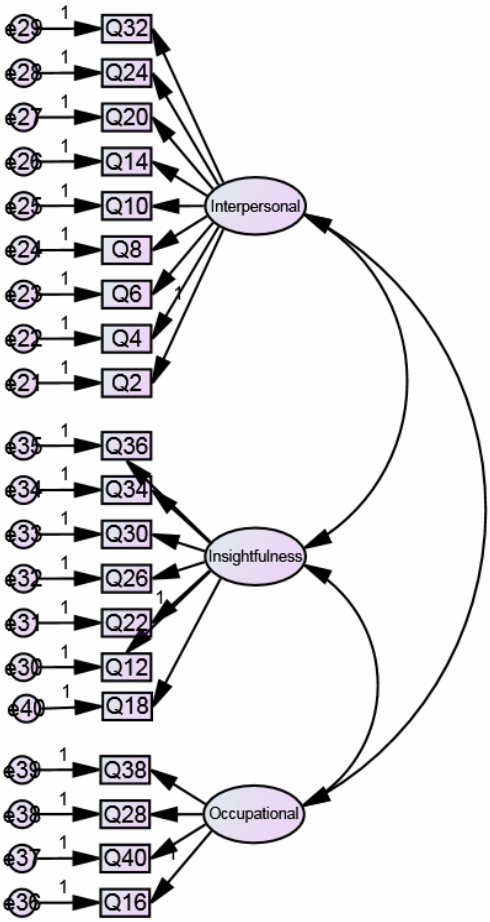
Fit Index	Limit	Obtained Values
$\frac{\chi^2}{df}$	1≤ Index ≤ 5 (Between 1 and 5)	5.02
RMSEA	< 0/1	0.095
CFI	> 0/90	0.901
GFI	> 0/90	0.903
NFI	> 0/90	0.905
IFI	> 0/90	0.901

Standard Coefficients for Disrespect Items

As Figure 3 reveals, all fit indicators for all variables and their pertinent disrespect items have factor loadings of higher than 0.3.

Figure 3

CFA of Disrespect Items of TRLQ



Standard Coefficients Significance

The T-values, depicted in Table 12, represent the significance of each parameter. As can be seen, all significant numbers of disrespect items have values over 1.96. Therefore, all factor loadings and path coefficients of our model are significant.

Table 12

The Significance of Factor Loadings for Disrespect Items of TRLQ

Paths	P Value	T Value	Standard Error	Standardized Coefficients	Non-Standardized Coefficients
Q2 → F1	< 0.001	8.875	0.109	0.478	1
Q4 → F1	< 0.001	9.061	0.104	0.608	0.942
Q6 → F1	< 0.001	8.875	0.109	0.585	0.969
Q8 → F1	< 0.001	9.376	0.106	0.65	0.993
Q10 → F1	< 0.001	10.014	0.101	0.752	1.008
Q14 → F1	< 0.001	9.101	0.104	0.613	0.945
Q20 → F1	< 0.001	10.085	0.103	0.765	1.038
Q24 → F1	< 0.001	9.896	0.095	0.731	0.944
Q32 → F1	< 0.001	9.723	0.085	0.702	0.823
Q12 → F2	< 0.001	13.202	0.071	0.661	1
Q22 → F2	< 0.001	11.375	0.061	0.598	0.69
Q18 → F2	< 0.001	9.588	0.092	0.494	0.879
Q26 → F2	< 0.001	13.202	0.071	0.713	0.941
Q30 → F2	< 0.001	12.122	0.07	0.644	0.846
Q34 → F2	< 0.001	11.74	0.071	0.62	0.828
Q36 → F2	< 0.001	11.719	0.085	0.619	0.994
Q16 → F3	< 0.001	12.149	0.071	0.578	1
Q40 → F3	< 0.001	12.149	0.094	0.837	1.14
Q28 → F3	< 0.001	9.57	0.102	0.557	0.979
Q38 → F3	< 0.001	9.311	0.11	0.537	1.02

Notes: F1 = Factor 1, F2 = Factor 2, F3 = Factor 3

Model Fit indices of the Measurement Model of TRLQ for Disrespect Items

The model fit indices used to validate the disrespect items and the obtained values are listed in Table 13. The obtained values show that model is appropriate for measurement. The results of the second CFA using *maximum likelihood* or *likelihood estimation method* revealed that the measurement model is appropriate and all the values and parameters of the model are significant.

Table 13

Fit Indices and Their Obtained Values for Disrespect Items of TRLQ

Fit Index	Limit	Obtained Values
$\frac{\chi^2}{df}$	1≤ Index ≤ 5 Between 1 and (5)	4.658
RMSEA	< 0/1	0.088
CFI	> 0/90	0.911
GFI	> 0/90	0.909
NFI	> 0/90	0.910
IFI	> 0/90	0.901

Construct Validity

To test the construct validity, convergent, divergent, and predictive validities were measured.

Convergent Validity. The relationship between teachers' (dis)respect for learners and *teacher-student relationships* (TSRs) was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. There was a strong, positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .55$, $n = 472$, $p < .05$, with high levels of teachers' (dis)respect for learners associated with higher levels of TSRs.

Divergent Validity. The relationship between teachers' (dis)respect for learners and *Computer attitudes scale* (CAS) was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. There was a weak, positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .12$, $n = 472$, $p < .05$.

Predictive Validity. A simple linear regression was calculated to predict learners' GPA based on teachers' (dis)respect for learners. A significant regression equation was found, $F(1,470) = 419.31$, $p < .000$, with an R^2 of .47, indicating that about 47% of the variance in learners' GPA can be explained by teachers' (dis)respect for learners. Moreover, another simple linear regression was calculated to predict learners' self-assessed success in learning English skills/sub-skills based on teachers' (dis)respect for learners. A significant regression equation was found, $F(1,470) = 605.08$, $p < .000$, with an R^2 of .56, indicating that about 56% of the variance in learners' self-assessed success

could be predicted by teachers' (dis)respect for learners.

Reliability of TRLQ

To calculate the reliability of the six dimensions as well as the total reliability of TRLQ, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was employed, which is one of the most commonly utilised indicators of internal consistency and is considered as the expected correlation of two tests measuring the same construct. Hence, it is implicitly presumed that the average correlation of a group of items is a precise estimate of the average correlation of all items relating to a specific construct. Ideally, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of a scale should be above .70 (DeVellis, 2017).

After the final distribution of TRLQ, the total reliability of the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's alpha (Table 14). As can be seen, all six dimensions have reliability coefficients of higher than .70, which is satisfactory. Therefore, the six factors as well as the whole TRLQ have satisfactory reliability coefficients.

Table 14

Reliabilities (Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients) for TRLQ

Factors	Number of Questions	Cronbach's Alpha
Respect		
Teachers' Interpersonal Characteristics	13	0.92
Teachers' Insightfulness	4	0.70
Teachers' Occupational Attributes	3	0.70
Disrespect		
Teachers' Interpersonal Characteristics	9	0.85
Teachers' Insightfulness	7	0.80
Teachers' Occupational Attributes	4	0.71
Total	40	0.95

Discussion

The ultimate goal of this study was to theoretically construct and validate a sophisticated multidimensional instrument, TRLQ, which can be applied in diverse educational and cultural settings to measure teachers' (dis)respect for learners. The 40 items of the questionnaire were measured employing a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). To our knowledge, this study may be considered as an initial attempt to grasp teachers' (dis)respect for learners and to develop a cross-culturally sound instrument that enables measuring this important dimension of teacher-student interpersonal relationships. TRLQ is a robust self-report instrument premised upon a thorough literature review, semi-structured focus groups and online interviews, a large sample, as well as sophisticated statistical

analyses. In addition, TRLQ captures three major dimensions of teachers' (dis)respect for learners, which were derived from semi-structured focus group discussions and online interviews. These dimensions include a) teachers' interpersonal characteristics, b) teachers' insightfulness, and c) teachers' occupational attributes. In general, the findings support the utility of TRLQ as a measure of teachers' (dis)respect for learners with satisfactory psychometric properties. In the following section, the findings regarding the validity of TRLQ are discussed.

Factorial Validity and Reliabilities

We examined the dimensionality of TRLQ via CFA to seek confirmation for our hypothesised six-factor structural model. Indeed, the six-factor structure (three factors for *respect* and three factors for *disrespect*) were obtained through EFA of TRLQ, which was developed based upon the three overarching categories consisting of 14 minor themes that were gained from focus group discussions and online interviews. Hinged upon these analyses, the six-factor structure strongly indicated the best fit. Therefore, the results of the CFA lent support to the dimensions derived from both EFA and focus group discussions and online interviews. Reliability coefficients revealed that the internal consistency of each of the six factors was acceptable.

Construct Validity: Convergent and Divergent Validity

To test the convergent validity of TRLQ, we used *teacher-student relationships (TSRs)* (Brinkworth et al., 2018), which is a theoretically similar construct. The relationship between teachers' (dis)respect for learners and TSRs was strong and positive with high levels of teachers' (dis)respect for learners associated with higher levels of TSRs. To test the divergent validity of TRLQ, we used *Computer attitudes scale (CAS)*, developed by Liaw (2002), as a construct that is supposed to be weakly related to teachers' (dis)respect for learners. We found that the relationship between teachers' (dis)respect for learners and CAS was weak indicating that they measure theoretically different concepts.

Predictive Validity

A simple linear regression was calculated to predict learners' GPA based on their perceptions towards teachers' (dis)respect for learners. A significant regression equation was found indicating that about 47% of the variance in learners' GPA can be explained by teachers' (dis)respect for learners. Moreover, another simple linear regression was calculated to predict learners' self-assessed success in learning English skills/sub-skills based upon their perceptions towards teachers' (dis)respect for learners. A significant regression equation was also found indicating that about ٥٦% of the variance in learners' self-assessed success could be predicted by teachers' (dis)respect for learners. This result ties well with previous studies wherein teachers' (dis)respect for learners, hence positive teacher-student relationships, is proved to be a necessary condition for learners' academic achievement (Gest et al., 2005; Valiente et al., 2008).

Conclusion and Implications

Research on effective teaching and its satisfactory learning outcomes underscores the importance of positive student–teacher relationships for learning. Batelaan (2001) posits that teachers-students and students-students respectful inter-relationship is conducive to a safe learning context. This article has reported the validation of a self-report questionnaire, TRLQ, to evaluate teachers' (dis)respect for learners cross-culturally. First, we examined native and non-native teachers' and learners' perceptions towards teachers' (dis)respect for learners via focus groups and online interviews. We then developed and validated TRLQ based upon the themes derived in the first phase.

Three overarching categories, namely (1) teachers' interpersonal characteristics, (2) teachers' insightfulness, and (3) teachers' occupational attributes were revealed through focus group discussions and online interviews. In this preliminary phase, overall, we could detect 14 minor themes. An important result was that *politeness*, *care,* and *learners' self-esteem* were the most frequent themes, respectively, raised by all four groups of participants, that is, non-native teachers (NNTs), non-native learners (NNLs), native teachers (NTs) and native learners (NLs). Furthermore, *politeness*, *care, learners' self-esteem*, *dedication*, *interest,* and *punctuality* are the six culture-general aspects of teachers' (dis)respect for learners for they were pointed out by both natives and non-natives. On the other hand, other themes might be regarded as culture-specific dimensions of teachers' (dis)respect because they were brought up by either natives (*fairness*, *encouragement*, *appreciativeness*, *kindness*, and *learners' freedom*) or non-natives (*helpfulness*, *patience*, and *learners' individuality*). This divergence of perceptions may be attributed to the diverse sociocultural milieus wherein natives and non-natives were educated (Hinton, 2016). Moreover, the three above-mentioned overarching categories were common to all four groups of NNTs, NNLs, NTs, and NLs. As a result, given this *diversity within universality*, we have proposed a cross-cultural model of teachers' (dis)respect for learners, based upon which the 40 items of TRLQ were generated.

A significant pedagogical implication is that educators utilise culture-specific characteristics of a (dis)respectful teacher to boost teachers' consciousness of learners' expectations about teachers' (dis)respect. Teachers residing in English speaking world (ESW) countries as well as non-native teachers may undergo training to become acquainted with elements of teachers' (dis)respect for learners raised by natives and non-natives, respectively. Furthermore, in cross-cultural educational contexts, teachers' awareness might be heightened regarding the way other native and non-native teachers perceive (dis)respectful teachers by means of culture-general components of teachers' (dis)respect for learners. Consequently, a substantial amount of uniformity could be ensured among teachers concerning the way they treat their native and non-native learners. Practically, the newly constructed questionnaire (TRLQ) may be applied as an evaluation tool by educators and policy makers to oversee teacher-student respectful relationship and to appraise the convergence and divergence of their perceptions of teachers' (dis)respect for learners.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The limitations of qualitative and quantitative research are applicable to this study. First, the qualitative phase of this study was restricted to semi-structured focus group discussions and online interviews. It is recommended that other kinds of qualitative techniques such as diaries, observation notes, and ethnographies be used in future studies. Second, this study was limited to 472 participant teachers and learners. Larger samples would help reach more rigorous results. Third, results might be slightly biased owing to self-reports of participants. To mitigate this, anonymity must be guaranteed when employing this instrument, as we did in this study. A fourth limitation is that TRLQ is constructed and validated within English language classrooms. Future research is recommended in other disciplines to further ensure the reliability and validity of this scale.

In conclusion, in this paper we designed an instrument to measure teachers' (dis)respect for learners as an important dimension of teacher-student relationship, which has proved to be valid; therefore, we believe it is useful in future quantitative as well as qualitative studies.

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Appendix
Teachers' Respect for Learners Questionnaire (TRLQ)

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire aims at measuring your perceptions of teachers' (dis)respect for learners.

Your careful completion of the questionnaire will definitely contribute to real data and is greatly appreciated.

Directions: For each statement below, please mark the response that best describes your perception of this issue. T
are no right or wrong answers, so please respond as honestly as possible. The information will be kept confid
and will be used just for research purposes.

Background Information:

a) Teachers

1. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. A Native speaker of English: Yes ☐ No ☐

3. Years of teaching English experience:

a. (0–2) b. (2–5) c. (5–10) d. (10+)

4. Teaching Context ☐ University/College ☐ High School/Language Institute

5. Age: ……..

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b) Students

1. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. A Native speaker of English Yes ☐ No ☐

3. Years of Learning English Experience:

a. (0–2) b. (2–5) c. (5–10) d. (10+)

4. Learning Context ☐ University/College ☐ High School/Language Institute

5. Age: ……..

Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Teachers should show they care how learners do in class.					
2. Teachers should not insult learners.					
3. Teachers should treat learners fairly.					
4. Teachers are supposed to treat learners unkindly.					
5. It would be better for teachers to take learners' questions seriously.					
6. Teachers are supposed not to shout at learners.					
7. Teachers are supposed to give learners freedom and autonomy.					
8. Teachers should not make sarcastic remarks.					
9. Teachers are supposed to compliment learners on their accomplishments.					
10. It would be better for teachers not to embarrass learners in front of their peers.					
11. Teachers should talk to learners like intelligent people.					
12. Teachers should not ignore your answers, though they are not correct.					
13. It would be better for teachers to be patient with learners.					
14. Teachers are supposed not to tell learners to shut up.					
15. Teachers should help learners when they have difficulty with their assignments.					
16. Teachers should not forget to give students rewards for good work and behavior.					
17. It would be better for teachers to appreciate learners' individual differences.					
18. Teachers should not make learners do identical homework at home.					
19. Teachers should behave politely towards learners.					
20. Teachers should not discourage learners, although they are not doing well in class.					
21. Teachers are supposed to try to know learners by name.					
22. Teachers should not blame learners even if they have done something wrong.					
23. Teachers should appreciate the effort learners put into their work.					

24. Teachers should not get upset with learners when they do not understand.					
25. It would be better for teachers to support learners.					
26. It would be better for teachers not to laugh at learners' mistakes.					
27. Teachers should look interested in what learners are speaking about.					
28. Teachers should not skip their classes.					
29. Teachers should take time to show learners what is right and what is wrong.					
30. Teachers should not consider their learners as ignorant individuals.					
31. Teachers should always come to class on time.					
32. It is better that teachers do not interrupt learners when they are speaking.					
33. It would be better for teachers to give learners their full attention when they are talking.					
34. Teachers are supposed not to treat learners like a prisoner.					
35. Teachers should honor learners' feelings.					
36. Teachers are supposed not to make a fool of learners in front of the class.					
37. It would be better for teachers to treat learners respectfully.					
38. Teachers are supposed not to teach reluctantly.					
39. Teachers should turn their heads or walk away if learners have a problem.					
40. Teachers are supposed not to resist change and innovation in their teaching techniques.					

Thanks for your participation

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The Effect of Online Planning and Strategic Planning in CALL-Based TBLT on Iranian EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate

Research Article
pp. 115-135

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Abstract
The current study examined the impact of online planning and strategic planning in the context of task-based computer-assisted language learning (CALL) on Willingness to Communicate (WTC). Initially, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered to 120 intermediate female English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. Then, based on the OPT scale, 90 learners were chosen and divided into two experimental groups and a control group. The participants in the assigned groups were asked to complete the WTC questionnaire as the pretest. Following that, one of the experimental groups received CALL Online Planning and the other one received CALL Strategic Planning. In the Strategic Planning group, the learners wrote an essay each session on a given topic while being allowed to think of what they were going to write (content), and what language forms (words, grammar, etc.) they wanted to use. In the other experimental group, learners had time to think about the task performance during the task, but were instructed not to write down their plan. Conventional treatment was applied to the participants in the control group. After ten sessions, the learners in the three groups were given the WTC questionnaire as the posttest. The results of ANCOVA indicated that online planning and strategic planning had considerable impact on Iranian EFL learners' WTC. Moreover, it was revealed that the effect of strategic planning was more significant compared to online planning on Iranian EFL learners' WTC. The results promise implications for EFL teachers to incorporate online planning and strategic planning in the context of CALL-based TBLT (i.e., Task-Based Language Teaching) to enhance WTC.

Keywords: CALL, online planning, strategic planning, TBLT, willingness to communicate (WTC)

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Introduction

According to MacIntyre (2007), the main objectives of learning EFL are the development of linguistic competence, attaining mastery over the linguistic forms, and above all, utilizing language for communication. As mentioned by MacIntyre et al. (2002), L2 learning is generally characterized as an individual's participation in an authentic communication with other people with different languages and cultural backgrounds. Put it another way, using target language for communication is considered as one of the core purposes for learning EFL. In consonance with the definitions found in the literature, WTC is described as readiness to engage in discourse at a specific time with an individual or individuals using an L2 (MacIntyre et al., 2002). In other words, WTC is concerned with the extent to which an individual is enthusiastic to participate in an interaction with other individuals in different communication situations. MacIntyre (2007) defines willingness to communicate as a trait-like tendency to approach or avoid communication with other people. Kang (2005) contends that WTC is of utmost importance as it can make the class atmosphere more dynamic given that the learners participate in activities. Kang (2005) also adds that learners with high levels of WTC will probably apply L2 more frequently in their communication and function as autonomous learners by making independent endeavor to learn the language.

Given the increasing changes in today's world, as well as the penetrating effect of technology, the new developments in information technology have yielded a novel paradigm of knowledge delivery modules for adult education, which has come to be called CALL-based teaching (Simuth & Sarmany-Schuller, 2014). Technologies can provide learners with opportunities to gain access to authentic materials and context for language use and interaction with native speakers (NS) and none-native speakers (NNS). It can also make teachers utilize interactive, collaborative, and learner-centered approaches (Thomas, 2011). Through applying computers in EFL classrooms, a broad range of multimedia content with exact and authentic language models could be presented and thus provide learners with another source of target language knowledge. This will relieve EFL teachers to act as the sole model of target language knowledge in classrooms (Alsied & Pathan, 2013).

TBLT is considered as one crucial approach to teaching and language learning, and great importance has been attributed to studies investigating the role of tasks in second language instruction and acquisition over the recent decades (Müller-Hartmann & Ditfurth, 2010). Attempts have been made to find out which tasks are more effective in language learning (Ellis, 2003). Similar developments also took place in CALL-based TBLT research in order to recognize the factors that affect TBLT in CALL. A number of reasons for the employment of tasks in CALL have been put forward. For instance, calling on psycholinguistic research, Peterson (2010) argues that learning in the context of CALL can be most effective if tasks include such features as "a focus on form, a close fit to learner needs, focus on meaning and active participation on the part of learners" (p. 45). Following Meskill (1999), Peterson (2010) additionally proposes that TBLT be employed in CALL by drawing on the findings of sociocultural research. Tasks are used in CALL-based teaching for the purpose of enhancing learning opportunities. Nunan (2006) describes task

as a classroom work that provides learners with opportunities to comprehend, produce, and interact in the L2 while they are focused on organizing their grammatical knowledge to express meaning. Meanwhile, research shows that planning before and during language tasks would lead to a more effective task completion, and enhances language learning (Ellis, 2009).

Planning is concerned with problem solving and influences the audience as intended by the writer. Wang (2008) says that planning makes important contributions to effective language performance. Various types of planning have been proposed including online planning and strategic planning. In on-line planning, the language learner has time to think about the task performance during the task performance (Nakakubo, 2011). In strategic planning, the language learner has time to have a cognitive plan for the language performance before doing the language task (Ellis, 2005). However, having searched the literature, the researcher has not found adequate studies to explore the impact of online planning and strategic planning in the context of CALL-based TBLT on WTC. Hence, the major contribution this study is going to make to the existing literature is to detect if online planning, and strategic planning in CALL-based TBLT can positively affect WTC.

Literature Review

Willingness to Communicate

Willingness to communicate (WTC) influences the quality of language development. Soon after being introduced, WTC caught the attention of many L2 researchers so much that it came to be viewed as an essential component of modern language teaching (MacIntyre et al., 2002). Some of the investigations carried out to assess the concept of WTC, concluded that L2 learners' WTC would determine whether individuals consider their L2 competency high and experience low communication anxiety (Clément et al., 2003). According to MacIntyre et al. (2002), the more learners' WTC is, the more frequently communication occurs in classrooms. This may encourage what Skehan (1989) describes as an individual's willingness to "talk for learning". MacIntyre et al. (1998) state that willingness to communicate is described as a variable that can impact the process of L2 instruction while it can be viewed as a final goal of L2 acquisition as well.

According to what has been stated so far, learners' WTC has gained so much attention not only as an influential factor in communication, but also as a new goal of interaction. Modern pedagogy has attributed paramount importance to communication and training language learners capable of effective interaction in target language (Riasati & Rahimi, 2018; Riasati & Noordin, 2011). Moreover, some researchers (e.g., Cao & Jiaotong, 2012; MacIntyre, 2007; MacIntyre et al., 1998) have indicated that the main objective of L2 education is supposed to be encouraging learners' enthusiasm to interact in language learning as it promotes language learning process and assists L2 learning and development. Thus, learners with higher WTC tend to have more willingness to participate in L2 and in authentic language use. Besides, Clément et al. (2003) hold that WTC affects the frequency that learners engage in language communication. Numerous factors have been mentioned in the review of related literature that directly or indirectly affect WTC. Cao (2009)

claims that learners' personality, self-confidence, emotion, topic, task type, participants, teacher, and class influence learners WTC. Some studies conducted by other researchers have indicated that social, affective, cognitive, and situational factors influence learners' WTC (Aydın, 2017; Khajavy et al., 2016; Weda et al., 2021; Xie, 2011).

Many investigations have so far been conducted with respect to WTC. In what follows, some pertinent studies carried out in Iranian context are reported. Yousefi and Kasaian (2014) conducted a study to know whether there was any correlation between WTC and Iranian EFL learners' speaking fluency and accuracy. The findings of the study revealed that there was a positive and close relation between WTC and speaking fluency and accuracy of learners. Valadi et al. (2015) conducted an investigation to examine the potential relation between WTC and L2 learners' speaking proficiency in Iran. The results indicated a rather strong correlation between the participants' WTC and their oral proficiency. Aliakbari et al. (2016) probed the effect of anxiety, self-confidence, communicative competence and international posture on Iranian EFL learners' WTC. The findings of the study suggested that there was a positive relation between participants' WTC and their attitude toward the international community, their perceived linguistic competence, and self-confidence.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Broncano and Ribeiro (1999) describe CALL as utilizing computer in teaching and language learning. Some scholars date the entrance of computers in the scene of learner instruction back to 1950s, while others trace it to the mid-1960s (Broncano & Ribeiro, 1999). CALL applicability in educational and instructional settings was the first concern in the early decades of its presence. The introduction of computers to the field of language learning supported learners with many opportunities to access copious amounts of language materials. At the same time, researchers examined the effectiveness of computer and technology in students' language learning process (McCreesh, 1998). The current philosophy of CALL underlines learning through learner-centered materials that enable learners to work on their own. Such materials mainly include two key features, namely interactive learning and individual learning (Anwar & Arifani, 2016).

With a focus on the benefits of using technology in the educational structure, one can legitimate reasons for focusing thoughts and attentions on the use of computer in personal and educational settings. Another reason for such attention might be the fact that computers offer the opportunity for encompassing the time and space confinements of traditional learning setting (Inan & Lowther, 2007). Furthermore, computers can help us use a variety of tasks and they can have a prominent impact on teaching tools. Due to their special properties, they can help both teachers and learners (Wang, 2006). In addition, the particular degree of flexibility inherent in CALL for learning and conducting an online search for information has made it appropriate for student-centered learning (Inan & Lowther, 2007). It Also makes students' learning more individualized and autonomous (Anwar & Arifani, 2016).

CALL requires a particular theory of learning in order to facilitate the

process of decision making for teachers by specifying those technologies required to help in the materialization of the effective and efficient learning and instruction (Egbert et al., 1999). Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that CALL has benefited from various schools of though and has evolved based on specific technological inventions or innovations attained in every decade since the first use of computers in language pedagogy. Thus, due to the drastic changes of CALL since its earliest times to the present, it is considered essential to integrate technology meaningfully into language pedagogy (Polat, 2017).

Planning

As pointed out by Newell and Simon (1972), planning is concerned with an objective-oriented mental activity whose aim is to help learners accomplish a specific objective. According to Yuan (2001), planning has to do with using attentional resources as well as regulating cognitive processes. In fact, planning in the performance of a task renders the task more goal-oriented and fruitful. According to Hayes (2000), unlike other kinds of problem-solving behavior, the space in which planning is developed is different from the task itself.

Various studies have revealed the importance of planning in L2 writing (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Johnson et al., 2012; Ong & Zhang, 2013). Also, according to the conducted studies, it can be suggested that planning is considered as one of the important factors to determine the quality of L2 writing (Oh et al., 2015). In the view of Ellis (2005), various kinds of planning are usually characterized with respect to the timing of the planning. Pre-task planning, which has been researched in multiple studies (Ellis, 2009) precedes task performance and could be divided into two categories: (1) strategic planning, which requires the learners to become prepared to carry out the task by taking into account the content and (2) rehearsal, which has to do with task repetition, with the first performance of the task considered as a preparation for a later performance (Ellis, 2005).

Within the context of L2 learning and teaching, planning and its contributions to writing tasks have both theoretical implications and practical significance. As indicated by Ong and Zhang (2013), a writer's production and performance are affected by planning, sub-planning, and revising processes. As an effective way for enhancing learners' language performance, direct and explicit instruction of planning strategies has proved to be very helpful (Soiferman et al., 2010). Regardless of the nature of composition (generic or highly focused), the explicit teaching of strategies for planning improves the quality of L2 learners' writing, in particular. According to Skehan (2007), online planning allows the task performers to avail of the time available while doing the task to reorganize and to plan on the move. Online planning may occur either under pressure or carefully. Pressured online planning usually progresses during our communication, or alternatively during those pedagogic tasks requiring the performer to do the task using limited time. Regarding careful online planning, the speakers or task doers have ample time at their disposal to carry out the task. Therefore, the learners are likely to carefully monitor their speech online.

Compared to careful online planning which unfolds during task

performance, strategic planning involves preparing for production by focusing on content and form prior to task performance. According to Ellis (2005), strategic planning can be divided into the following two categories: guided strategic planning and online planning. In the first category, i.e., guided strategic planning, learners are offered specific advice regarding form, meaning or both, whereas, in unguided strategic planning, no advice is provided. Ellis and Yuan (2004) examined the effect of different types of planning on L2 narrative writing. To this end, learners composed a story, making use of a six-picture set in different task conditions (no planning, pre-task planning, and on-line planning). The three indices of accuracy, complexity, and fluency were used to assess the quality of the participants' written outputs. As for the pre-task planned condition, the participants took part in a 10-minute planning and 7-minute composition procedure in order to accomplish a task with at least 200 written words. The time pressure was intended to limit the time spent by the participants for online planning while completing their writing task. In respect of the second category, i.e., online planning condition, the students were provided with a piece of paper and requested to start writing immediately. In this phase and unlike the pre-task planning condition, learners were not limited to 200 words and no pressure was exerted on them to finish the task quickly (Ellis, 2005). As a result, learners had extensive time to enter on-line planning during task completion. The findings of an investigation conducted by Ellis and Yuan indicated that the pre-task planning condition assisted L2 learners during the formulation process of a task, with the on-line planning condition providing them with better opportunities for monitoring.

Objectives

As a review of the previous studies reveals, most of the preceding researches concerning planning have focused on writing performance. Moreover, the area examining the effect of CALL-based teaching on WTC is rather underexplored. Hence, due to the lack of research in this area, the current research is trying to provides related empirical literature on effect of online planning and strategic planning in CALL-based TBLT on Iranian EFL learners' WTC. In accordance to the objectives of the current study following research questions are investigated:

RQ1: Does strategic planning (SP) in CALL-based TBLT have any significant effect on WTC of Iranian learners?

RQ2: Does online planning (OP) in CALL-based TBLT have any significant effect on WTC of Iranian EFL learners?

RQ3: Is there any significant difference between the effects of strategic planning (SP) and online planning in CALL-based TBLT on WTC of Iranian learners?

Method

Participants

The total number of participants for this study was 90 Iranian female EFL learners at the intermediate level of language proficiency. These participants were selected using convenience method of sampling and according to their availability. In order to have a homogeneous population

regarding individuals' language proficiency, Oxford Placement Test was given to the 120 learners and 90 participants whose scores were within the range of 28 to 36 were chosen as the intermediate level learners for the purposes of this study.

Instrumentation

To conduct the current study, the following two instrument were implemented:

Oxford Placement Test. The Oxford Placement Test (OPT) includes 60 items in three formats including multiple choice, cloze, and fill in the blanks. The test assesses learners' language performance in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. According to the guidelines of the test, the language proficiency of test takers is determined regarding the following classification:

1-17 (Beginner),
18-27 (Elementary),
28-36 (Intermediate),
37-47 (Upper-intermediate),
48-55 (Advanced),
56-60 (High advanced).

Willingness to Communicate (WTC) Questionnaire. To assess the participants' WTC levels, the translated Persian version of a Likert-type questionnaire devised originally by MacIntyre et al. (2001) was used. The scale has 25 items and includes the factors contributing to WTC in acquiring a second language. This instrument is a Likert-type including 5 points ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). This instrument has a reliability index between 72 to 86 in various contexts (MacIntyre et al., 2001).

Procedure

To conduct the current study, 120 female English learners were chosen from a foreign language institute. Then, the OPT was administered and based on the OPT scale, a population including 90 learners with scores within the range of 28 to 36 at the intermediate level of proficiency were chosen and placed into two experimental groups and a control group. After that, the individuals in the assigned groups were required to complete the WTC questionnaire as pretest. Following that, one of the experimental groups received CALL online planning and the other one received CALL strategic planning.

Once the groups were in place, 50 selected topics were given to three experienced instructors with a minimum of 10 years of teaching experience and they were asked to rate the topics from 1 to 5 on a scale of the least appropriate to the most appropriate. Then, the obtained scores for each topic were counted and the 20 most appropriate topics were chosen. Next, these 20 topics were rated by the students on a Likert scale from 1 to 5 from I hate this topic (1) to I love this topic (5). Following that, all the scores for each topic by the learners were added up and the 10 most popular topics were chosen for treatment which lasted for 10 sessions.

In the Strategic Planning group, the learners wrote an essay each

session on a given topic while being allowed to think of what they were going to write (content) and what language forms (word, grammar, etc.) they wanted to use in line with Ellis's (2005) definition of Strategic Planning. They were asked to write down their plan i.e., note down the words, write down the grammar to be used, think of the organization of their essays and drew a sketch if necessary. Then, they were asked to email their first drafts to the teacher. The teacher corrected the drafts via word and inserted comments on their writings and returned the corrected writings to the learners.

In another group, during ten sessions, the language learners had time to think about the task performance during the task but instructed not to write down their plan in line with Nakakubo (2011) of online planning. After finalizing their writings, they were required to send their writings to the teacher via email and received feedback similar to strategic planning group.

For the individuals in the control group conventional treatment was administered. They were given the 10 topics to write about but there were no restrictions or instructions concerning planning. Moreover, they did not receive any comments via email and just received feedback on the paper. After ten sessions, the learners were given the WTC questionnaires as a post-test. The questionnaires were scored and made ready for statistical analysis using SPSS 21.

Data Analysis

In the current study, a quasi-experimental type of research with pretest-posttest design is employed. The initial participants were selected based on convenient non-random sampling due to availability and manageability reasons. Types of planning were the independent variables and WTC was the dependent variable. To analyze the data, the researchers used both descriptive and inferential statistics. As for descriptive statistics, means, standards deviation and variances were used. Concerning inferential statistics, ANCOVA was run to address the research questions.

Results

Reliability of the Instruments

Two scales, OPT test and WTC questionnaire, were implemented in the current study. Prior to administrating the instruments in the study, to measure their Cronbach's Alpha, they were piloted on 30 participants with similar characteristics to the main participants. Table 1 displays the Cronbach Alpha statistics for the instruments of the study.

Table 1
Cronbach's Alpha of the Instruments

Instruments	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
OPT	0.78	60
WTC	0.82	25

As it can be seen in Table 1, the Cronbach's Alpha indices are above 0.70 which are at a satisfactory level of reliability.

Selecting the Participants

To select the participants of this study, OPT was administered to 120 learners and the individuals whose scores were within the range of 28 to 36 were chosen for the purpose of the current study. Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics of the 90 selected participants.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of the 90 Selected Participants

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
OPT	90	28.00	36.00	33.42	8.22
Valid N (listwise)	90				

To investigate the research questions, an ANCOVA was run on the WTC pretest and posttest scores of the three groups. ANCOVA has a several assumptions as normality, reliability of co-variates, multicollinearity, linearity, homogeneity of regression, and homogeneity of variance. The assumption of normality was probed through the ratios of Skewness and Kurtosis. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

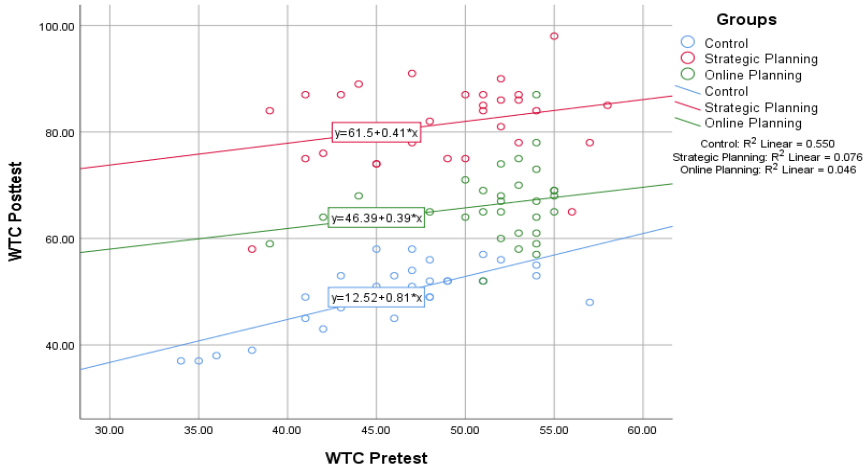
Descriptive Statistics and Skewness and Kurtosis Values for the WTC Pretest and Posttest Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
WTC Pretest	90	34.00	58.00	48.77	5.47	29.97	-.27	-.50
WTC Posttest	90	37.00	98.00	65.81	14.86	220.85	-.22	-.51
Valid N (listwise)	90							

As displayed in Table 3, the ratio of Skewness and Kurtosis for the WTC pretest and posttest scores are all within the range of +/- 1.96. Thus, it could be concluded that the WTC pretest and posttest scores of the three group didn't show any deviation from the normal distribution and were normally distributed.

To probe the second assumption, namely the reliability of co-variates, a reliable and well-constructed WTC questionnaire was administered (Pallant, 2016) (WTC questionnaire). Since there was only one covariate, the assumption of multicollinearity was already assured. Also, considering the linearity, scatterplot of the variables was examined.

Figure 1
Scatterplot of WTC



As presented in Figure 1, the straight forward lines between the dependent variable (WTC posttest) and covariate (WTC pretest) indicates that the relationships are linier. Thus, the assumption of linearity was met. The homogeneity of regression slopes was indicated through the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects, presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for WTC Pretest and Posttest Scores

Dependent Variable: WTC Posttest					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	16127.97	5	3225.59	76.80	.00
Intercept	1259.77	1	1259.77	29.99	.00
Groups	474.33	2	237.16	5.64	.00
preWTC	554.39	1	554.39	13.20	.00
Groups * preWTC	85.87	2	42.93	1.022	.36
Error	3527.81	84	41.99		
Total	409455.00	90			
Corrected Total	19655.78	89			

a. R Squared = .821 (Adjusted R Squared = .810)

As presented in Table 4, due to the higher value of the observed significant value of Groups * preWTC than 0.05, the assumption of the homogeneity of regression slopes was assured. Finally, the Levene's test of variances was run to probe the assumption of the homogeneity of the variances (see Table 5).

Table 5

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance for WTC

Dependent Variable: WTC Posttest			
F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.914	2	87	.1 60

Tests the null hypothesis showed that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + preWTC + Groups

According to the obtained results of the Levene's test, the equal variances of the dependent and covariate variable suggest the assumption of homogeneity of variances was also met (F = 2.91 P > .05). Finally, the main ANCOVA output was examined after assuring all assumptions were successfully met. The results of ANCOVA for the WTC pretest and posttest scores are provided in Table 6.

Table 6

The Results of ANCOVA for the WTC Pretest and Posttest Scores

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable: WTC Posttest						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	16042.10	3	5347.36	127.25	.00	.81
Intercept	1305.88	1	1305.88	31.07	.00	.26
preWTC	698.48	1	698.48	16.62	.00	.16
Groups	13284.46	2	6642.23	158.07	.00	.78
Error	3613.68	86	42.02			
Total	409455.00	90				
Corrected Total	19655.78	89				

a. R Squared = .816 (Adjusted R Squared = .810)

According to Table 6, the observed sig value of the groups turned out to be lower than the critical value of p = .000<.05 indicates a significant difference between the performances of the three groups. In order to detect the exact place of difference across the groups the test of multiple contrasts was performed. Table 7 presents the results of multiple contrasts for the WTC pretest and posttest scores.

Table 7
Results of Multiple Contrasts for the WTC Pretest and Posttest Scores

Pairwise Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: WTC Posttest						
(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b] Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Strategic Planning	-30.30*	1.72	.00	-33.72	-26.87
	Online Planning	-13.57*	1.85	.0	-17.26	-9.87
Strategic Planning	Control	30.30*	1.72	.00	26.87	33.72
	Online Planning	16.72*	1.72	.00	13.30	20.15
Online Planning	Control	13.57*	1.85	.00	9.87	17.26
	Strategic Planning	-16.72*	1.72	.00	-20.15	-13.30

Based on estimated marginal means
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Considering Table 7, all the contrasts (strategic planning/control, online planning/control, and strategic planning/online planning) are significant ($p < 0.05$). To investigate the performance of the groups, and detecting the groups with better performance, estimated marginal means were compared. The results of the estimated marginal means are presented in Table 8.

Table 8
Estimated Marginal Means of the Three Groups of the Study for the WTC Scores

Estimates				
Dependent Variable: WTC Posttest				
Groups	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	51.18[a]	1.25	48.70	53.67
Strategic Planning	81.48[a]	1.18	79.13	83.84
Online Planning	64.75[a]	1.25	62.27	67.24

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: WTC Pretest = 48.7778.

Comparing the marginal means, the group receiving strategic planning had a higher WTC mean score (M = 81.48 > 51.48) than the control group. Hence, the first null hypothesis is rejected and it can be inferred that strategic planning (SP) in CALL-based TBLT has a considerable impact on WTC of Iranian learners. Moreover, the group receiving online planning had higher WTC mean score (M = 64.75 > 51.48) than the control group. Thus, the second null hypothesis of the current research is also rejected and it can be stated that online planning (OP) in CALL-based TBLT has a significant effect on WTC of

Iranian EFL learners. Furthermore, the group receiving strategic planning had higher WTC mean score (M = 81.48 > 64.75) compared to the online planning group. Accordingly, it was perceived that there was a considerable difference between the effects of strategic planning (SP) and online planning in CALL-based TBLT on WTC of Iranian learners with the strategic planning group outperforming the online planning group.

Discussion

The current investigation sought to shed light on the impact of online planning, and strategic planning in the context of CALL-based TBLT on WTC. The obtained findings of statistical analysis indicated that both online planning and strategic planning in CALL-based TBLT had profound influence on Iranian EFL learners' WTC. Moreover, it was revealed that strategic planning in CALL-based TBLT had a more significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' WTC compared to online planning.

The findings of the current research with respect to the positive impact of online and strategic planning on WTC confirm the outcomes of previous studies regarding the effectiveness of planning in language learning. For example, Wendel (1997) investigated the impact of strategic planning on language production. The results indicated that strategic planning contributed to greater complexity and fluency in language production tasks. Similarly, Farahani and Meraji (2011) showed that provisions of pre-task planning resulted in significantly fluent production. The results of a study conducted by Rahimpour and Safarie (2011) revealed that planning positively impacted writing fluency. In the same vein, Dellerman et al.'s (1996) results indicated the positive effect of planning in argumentative writing.

The findings of the present study can be justified drawing on Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) introduced by Vygotsky. In other words, planning allows learners to take control of the complicated process of language learning in a stepwise and strategic manner which is in line with Vygotsky's theory of ZPD and sociocultural theory. The concept of ZPD developed by Vygotsky refers to the layer of skill or knowledge which is beyond the learner's present capability (Ellis, 2003). To help learners move beyond their actual capability and work within their ZPD, scaffolding techniques are invoked. Scaffolding can be seen as the high quality support a teacher offers to move a student towards his/her potential capability (Wood et al., 1976). Scaffolding is a kind of support which is contingent, faded, and aimed at the transfer of responsibility for a task. Through scaffolding, a teacher or a more competent peer helps learners in their ZPD and gradually decreases the amount of support as learners become skilled enough to perform the task independently (Gauvain, 2021). Goldstein (1999) described ZPD as a socially mediated space that is constructed through sensitivity and trust. This space in classrooms is established through negotiation among learners and between learners and teacher while involving in supportive activities that reinforce confidence and positive emotions

The ZPD points to the developmental and gradual process of learning which is reflected in learning through planning. Thus, it can be considered as a goal-oriented activity the aim of which is attaining one's potential and

independency in doing various tasks. Also, as mentioned earlier, planning is an objective-oriented process which aims at assisting an individual or a learner to perform a particular task (Newell & Simon, 1972). Therefore, planning can be considered as a mental process enabling an individual to obtain a goal. With respect to the fact that planning is a mental process, it can be provided by a more capable and knowledgeable peer in the ZPD to help an individual reach his/her potential and become independent in accomplishing a task.

The results of the present research can also be justified with respect to the benefits of CALL learning environments. In CALL learning environments, the students are eagerly participating in the learning process, which can help them develop WTC in learning environment as they have access to different online resources and more potentiality to communicate since CALL can provide a diverse and quality learning experience (Lim et al., 2019). In the current study, following Vygotskyan (1978) ideas, the tasks practiced in the CALL environment were truly anticipated to engender higher mental processes comprising problem-solving, logical speech, planning, and evaluation. Through CALL, SCT and TBLT could be better bound in order to re-contextualize the classroom in a CALL environment in an attempt to focus on tasks and meaning.

There were several features in the CALL-based TBLT employed in the current study, which seemed to contribute to the development of WTC in learners. First of all, CALL environment could help researchers/teachers to opt for a variety of tasks in the multimodal settings of CALL-based classes. Secondly, the instructors adopted a multimodal approach and as Hampel (2006) has clarified, a multimodal approach in a CALL environment bolsters oral/communicative language use. Also, the multimodal environment of CALL can provide teachers and learners with a richer context to negotiate tasks, and this, according to Müller-Hartmann and Ditfurth (2010), can have a positive effect on motivation and performance. They argued that tasks as processes could better be monitored in a CALL environment and further task support could be provided as multiple modes are available. Finally, in CALL-oriented TBLT, scaffolding is of prime significance. Considering the sort of interaction among learners, instructor, and computer in the current study, it can be stated that there exist a kind of triadic interaction (Van Lier, 2002) or triadic scaffold (Meskill, 2005). The triadic scaffolds, thus, comprised the instructor's role as a capable peer providing feedbacks, contribution of computer (E-mail) as an authentic means of receiving guided feedbacks, and learners' role in using strategic planning and their accomplishment in the interaction. According to Meskill (2005), functions and forms of triadic scaffold (instructor, learners, and computer) are considered for their potential unique role in second language and literacy instructions. In the current study, the teachers mainly provided both technical and task support to help learners pursue their collaborative-communicative tasks independently. This left enough space for learners to scaffold each other more, and this way, they expected less task monitoring from the teachers. This is in line with Liaw (1998) and Shekary and Tahririan (2006). They argued that teachers' support could help revive communication, and the more communication is conducted by the learners, the less monitoring is required from the teachers. Considering the role of computer (E-mail) as an authentic means of interaction in triadic scaffold, conducted researches have

revealed that using computer motivates learners and anchors learners' attention (Meskill, 2005). Hegelheimer and Tower (2004) also claimed that CALL offers an ideal medium for interaction in an authentic way and using computer provides unique learning opportunities for meaningful language use (Van Lier, 2002). Moreover, it has been observed that interaction in a context that utilizes computer creates unique learning and the type of language produced there is linguistically different from the produced language in more traditional contexts (Meskill, 2005). (Mokhtari, 2013) suggested that students in general have positive attitude towards the integration of CALL into their language learning course and this will lead to increasing their tendency to communicate. As suggested by August and Hakuta (1998), language learning and literacy context that provide and sustain the social construction and negotiation of meaning-making are highly considered as optimal. All in all, it can be concluded that when TBLT and SCT are integrated in a CALL-based program, learners' WTC can get enhanced.

Conclusion

Technology offers an authentic and natural context to fulfill methodological concepts of TBLT (Doughty & Long, 2003). Also, Thomas (2013) stated that technology breaks all the limitations and boundaries of traditional classrooms and elevates learners' role in learning context. According to Tavakoli et al. (2019), CALL can have great contributions to the enhancement of TBLT. Due to the importance of both CALL and TBLT, this study decided to use a task- based CALL context to find out whether strategic planning and online planning have any positive influence on EFL students' WTC and which one has a more significant effect on learners' WTC. Conducted researches in the CALL settings have proved to be effective in enhancing learners' WTC. It is also considered to be exciting for both teachers and learners owing to its dynamic and complex nature. In the current study, learners were required to send their writings to the teacher via e-mail. Further studies are suggested to employ other forms of technology or applications to detect whether there will be any difference in the obtained results of the current study. Also, in accordance to the findings of the current research, the incorporation of planning in language teaching curriculum is recommended and teachers are encouraged to take advantage of planning strategies when it comes to improving WTC. Similarly, more training on the planning for L2 teachers seems beneficial. The study also contributes to the L2 pedagogy by proposing TBLT-based planning exercises that can be potentially used for developing and improving learners' WTC. Moreover, foreign language teachers are required to be willing to implement planning in instructional context and their classrooms, and this in turn places more responsibility on teacher trainers and teacher training systems. In order to propose stronger statements and conclusions concerning the effectiveness of planning in enhancing WTC, researches with longer span of time are suggested. The population of the current research mainly included individuals within the age range of 18 to 42. In future, studies replicating the present investigation with various age groups will present a more detailed and thorough outcomes regarding the role of planning in developing WTC. Hence, the results can be more reliable and also generalizable. Future studies with respect to other

aspects of language learning such as reading comprehension, listening comprehension, speaking, and grammar are suggested. As a result, L2 professionals and trainers can adopt more reliable decisions considering implementing planning into language curriculum.

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The Relationship Between Iranian EFL Learners' Personality Traits and Their Mobile Assisted Vocabulary Learning

Research Article
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Abstract
The growing inclusion of technological devices in language learning calls for exploring their efficacy and determining to what extent learners' characteristics mediate their effectiveness. In light of these concerns, the current study has sought to examine the relationship between learning English vocabulary via mobile phone and the learners' personality traits. The participants of the study were 100 intermediate English as foreign language (EFL) learners studying English at the University of Zanjan, Zanjan, Iran. Sixty American English idioms were chosen and made available in a Telegram channel, during a six-week period of treatment to provide the participants with Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL). A researcher-designed achievement test was administered to assess the learners' vocabulary learning via mobile phone. Big Five Inventory (BFI)" (John et al. 2008) was used to estimate the learners' personality traits. The data analyses showed no significant correlation between the variables; however, simultaneous multiple regression offered extraversion as the unique significant predictor. The results revealed MALL not only frees the learners from the restrictions of time and place, but also minimizes the possible intervention of learners' characteristics in the process of language learning. The fruitfulness of MALL in leaving behind students' characteristics has important implications for both educators and practitioners.

Keywords: Big Five Inventory, EFL learners, learning vocabulary, mobile-assisted language learning, personality traits

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Introduction

The advancement of new technologies has led to significant changes in language learning process. The prevalence of technological devices has encouraged educational stakeholders to promote their application in learning activities. Among these, mobile phones have the potential to increase the success rate of learners by providing a platform for getting access to various sources, such as e-books, visual/audio programs and software. The main feature of a smartphone is its capacity for use at any time and in any place. This liberating characteristic grants learners flexibility on their daily schedule. Regardless of the purpose in learning a new language, studying two major realms is necessary: grammar and lexis. Lack of adequate vocabulary knowledge results in communication breakdown. According to Schmitt (2000, p. 5), "lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language." Given the importance of this knowledge, the Lexis Approach in second/foreign language learning/teaching is developed based on the assumption that the building block of language learning is lexis (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

On the other hand, due to the growing popularity of learner-centered approach in language teaching domain, exploring the impact of learners' characteristics has received a great deal of attention among researchers and teachers. Individual differences have been emphasized as effective factors in the process of learning, and especially language learning (e.g. Miri & Shamsaddini, 2014; Saranraj & Meenakshi, 2016; Yaghoobinejad & Ahour, 2019). Individual differences include the social class; cultural, political, and economic background; personality types; psychological and emotional status of learners, and so on.

Owing to the fact that Mobile-Assisted Language Learning is a personized process, it seems crucial to investigate the learner-related variables like personality traits within a MALL framework. In conventional classrooms, teachers are usually skilled at responding to students' various psychological and social characteristics whereas in MALL these features are not readily discernible by the instructor. In case there is a relationship between learner-related factors and achievement through MALL, more emphasis should be placed on the key role of learners' traits and emotional status and it also has the implication for mobile software developers to take care of these variables while designing their products.

The rapid pace of technology and its growing inclusion in education necessitates exploring these influential factors in the process of MALL. Numerous educational undertakings, especially during the pandemic, touch upon the effectiveness of mobile programs as a viable means for language learning and specifically learning vocabulary. Several studies confirmed the efficacy of these applications (Al Saidi & Al Shezawi, 2020; Bensalem, 2018; Gürlüyer, 2019; Kacetl & Klímová, 2019; Korlu & Mede, 2018; Li & Cummins, 2019); nevertheless, it should be noted that the user of such mobile programs is a human being, who is a complicated, multidimensional, and dynamic creature. Learner's personality traits in addition to his/her physical status may play an important role in the process of language learning.

A number of studies such as Bayram et al. (2008), Cocoradă et al.

(2018), Dewan and Ho (2013), Hassanzadeh et al. (2012), Hsiao (2017), Kamal and Radhakrishnan (2019), Lane and Manner (2011) examined the personality traits in relation to the use of technological devices. However, the available literature stops short of exploring the mediating effect of individual characteristics on learning language skills via mobile phones. Observing this gap in literature, we will try to shed some light on the relationship between personality characteristics and learning achievement through using a mobile application. Furthermore, in spite of the fact that the usefulness of technology cannot be denied, it is worthy to examine if learners with diverse attributes respond to MALL differently.

Review of the Literature

Originally, in the works of Piaget (1970) and Vygotsky (1978), personal characteristics were regarded as the source of variation in learning. This led to the advent of constructivism and consequently the popularity of learner-centered approaches. Placing emphasis on social interactions in language learning activities solidified the importance of learners' social and psychological characteristics throughout the processes of learning a foreign language. In the following lines, we will review the related literature on vocabulary learning, personality traits and MALL which are the major themes of the study.

Learning Vocabulary

Vocabulary is viewed as a major component for learning a foreign language (Ali et al., 2011; Constantinescu, 2007; La Spisa, 2015). Lexical problems often impede communication, and communication breaks down when people are unable to use the right words (Komachali, 2012). Drawing on the significance of vocabulary, the Lexical Approach to second language teaching was developed as a substitute for grammar-based approaches. Its main focus is on enhancing learners' proficiency with words and word combinations (Amiryousefi & Dastjerdi, 2010; Lewis, 1993). Michael Lewis, who coined the term *lexical approach,* argues that lexis is the foundation of language, and one of the central governing principles of any meaning-based syllabus should be lexis.

In light of technological advancements, teaching vocabulary through mobile phones has received a refreshed interest and a number of recent researches have touched upon examining the efficacy of this device in vocabulary learning. Studies have reported the moderating effects of "*research settings*", "*treatment durations*", and "*task-afforded autonomy*" on L2 word retention (Lin & Lin, 2019), and its medium effect on vocabulary learning (Mahdi, 2018).

The application of the short message service (SMS) to vocabulary learning in Lu's study (2008) revealed that learners who were exposed to reading the regular and brief SMS lessons performed better on the post-test than those who read the relatively more elaborate print material. In a similar study, Li et al. (2010) employed an adaptive learning system and sent the contents to the learners by adjusting to their interests and learning styles; the outcome demonstrated the efficacy of the medium of email on mobile

devices in enhancing the vocabulary knowledge.

Vasbieva et al. (2016) examined the impact of the blended learning approach on teaching English vocabulary. The results showed the blended group's superiority and satisfaction over the face-to-face group. There are also several studies such as Chen (2014), Fageeh (2013), Saran et al. (2012), Shahbaz and Khan (2017), Wang and Shih (2015), Zhang et al. (2011) reporting favorable results for the use of mobile devices in vocabulary learning. Other studies (e.g. Hu, 2013; Lu, 2008; Wang & Shih, 2015) examining the learners' perceptions and attitudes, indicated the positive disposition of learners towards the use of these devices.

In this study, vocabulary is operationally defined as idioms that are widely used in American English. By idioms, we mean expressions that have a meaning that is not obvious from the individual words (McCarthy & O'Dell, 2004). They can take different grammatical functions such as verb, noun, adjective, etc.

MALL

The advent of audiolingual theory in 1950s and behavioristic psychology triggered the use of language laboratory in education and subsequently drill-based computer-assisted instruction during the 1960s (Salaberry, 2001, as cited in Chinnery, 2006). This was also decades later eclipsed by computer-assisted language learning and led to the emergence of mobile learning, or m-learning, as a blooming branch of the e-learning movement (Chinnery, 2006).

According to Kukulska-Hulme (2020), MALL is the use of smartphones and other mobile technologies in language learning, with instant access to information, social networking sites, and context-specific assistance; freedom to choose time and place of learning; maintaining learning across different settings; catering for personal needs and preferences; and a suitable space for continuous acquisition of language while doing daily tasks.

Several researchers have attempted to read through and figure out any common thread between studies carried out on MALL. Among them, Afzali et al. (2017) reported that the most frequently-applied service has been SMS. In a more recent effort at reviewing MALL-related research, Kacetl and Klímová (2019) referred to boosting students' autonomy, confidence, motivation and cognitive capacity as the advantages of mobile learning.

There are also other researches whose aims have been to probe the efficiency of MALL in other aspects of language learning, for instance grammatical accuracy (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2010), contextual learning and interaction (Sole et al., 2010), writing skills (Al-Hamad et al., 2019), speaking anxiety (Han & Keskin, 2016), and confidence in listening and speaking (MALL Research Project Report, 2009).

The usage of social media, installed on mobile phone, for vocabulary learning is the target of the present study. The popularity of social media among people and specially college students, besides the availability and affordability of mobile phones and the Internet connections, were the main reasons for doing the research in this context.

Personality Trait

American Psychological Association (2020), in its website, defines *personality* as "individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving." Cherry (2020) introduced major theories of personality: (1) biological theories, which suggest that genetics shapes personality; (2) behavioral theories, which emphasize the role of environment and nurture on personality; (3) psychodynamic theories, which regard the unconscious mind and childhood experiences as the most influential factors on personality; (4) humanist theories, which stress the role of free will and self-actualization and innate factors in shaping personality; (5) Trait Theories, which present that personality is composed of some broad traits. Two models of trait theories are well-known: Eysenck's three-dimension theory offering extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism as three major dimensions of personality; and the five factor theory (Big Five theory) offering openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism as major dimensions of personality.

Crozier (1997) acknowledged the role of learners' personality traits in language learning and the importance of teachers' awareness of such information. He stated that educational experts need to be cognizant of research on personality since one of the major goals of education is students' personal and social development.

There are studies in literature that examine the correlation of personality types with academic achievement (Carrell et al., 1996), learning styles (Marcela, 2015), and motivation (Komarraju et al., 2009). Miri and Shamsaddini (2014) researched the impact of different personality traits upon sixty Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning. By grouping the participants into four traits: assertiveness, aggressiveness, submissiveness and passiveness they found that assertive learners outperformed aggressive, submissive and passive participants.

Scheid (2015) studied the effect of cultural and personal factors on MALL and found significant correlations between personality traits and the way participants utilized The WordDive Mobile Application in terms of exercise duration, amount of exercise tries, speed of progress, exercise mode, amount of exercises performed per day and per week.

Regarding the various forms of e-learning, a number of studies have investigated the mediating effect of personality traits on learners' performance. Bayram et al. (2008) reported that around half of the variance in learners' attitude towards web-based education is accounted by personality characteristics. Kamal and Radhakrishnan (2019) observed the significant impact of personality traits in an e-learning scenario on the individual preference of learning.

In a broader domain, Lane and Manner (2011) sought to determine which personality traits go with smartphone ownership and use. Extraverts were found to be more likely to own a smartphone and reported to place a higher emphasis on the texting function, whereas more agreeable individuals prefer calling to texting in smartphones. On the whole, the analysis depicted personality as a weak predictor of mobile ownership/use except extraversion which was a rather reliable predictor. Dewan and Ho (2013)

scrutinized the way learners with different personalities respond to m-learning messages and report that Sensing, Thinking and Judging types had more favorable attitudes toward using m-learning than Intuitive, Feeling and Perceiving types respectively.

In the present research, the five personality trait dimensions including Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Openness-to-experience is chosen that is measured by a 5-likert scale questionnaire. Its external validity and predictive utility were examined through a large study and reported by John and Srivastava (1999):

The Big Five can contribute to the understanding of socially and developmentally significant life circumstances. For instance, juvenile delinquency is highly likely in people with low Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. In psychopathology, internalizing disorders are predictable on the basis of Neuroticism and low Conscientiousness. School performance is also predictable from Conscientiousness and Openness. Given these observations, the Big Five dimensions can justifiably function as indicators of risk for future maladjustments.

Reviewing the literature of studying vocabulary through MALL and the role of learners' personality trait in the processes of language learning reveals that scant heed has been paid to such factors in this domain; therefore this study attempts to explore the relationship between learning vocabulary via mobile and Iranian EFL learners' personality trait including neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness-to-experience. To this aim, the following research question was posed:

RQ: What is the relationship between learning vocabulary in MALL and EFL learners' personality trait?

Or to put it differently:

Which variable best predicts the performance of EFL learners in MALL: neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness or openness-to-experience?

Method

The Design of the Study

This research is an applied, quantitative, confirmatory study aimed at finding the answer of the question: what simple relationships exist between variables? Regarding the sampling paradigm, this study was quasi-experimental since convenience sampling was employed, and the sample has not been randomly selected.

Participants

The participants of this study were one hundred adult intermediate EFL learners, including 63 females and 37 males, who studied English at the University of Zanjan, Iran. They were recruited through convenience sampling. However, it is believed that the participants were adequately representative of the target population for two reasons: First, the range of the participants' proficiency level which was intermediate could be regarded as the average level of the target population. Second, the noticeably wide range of total scores in the questionnaire and also the vocabulary test could

manifest the heterogeneity of the participants with respect to different psychological characteristics. Therefore, it is believed that the sample was representative enough to make cautious generalizations. Their homogeneity in terms of English knowledge was ensured by Oxford Placement Test. They took part in this test prior to the study; in order to avoid any kind of bias, specially the bias of history which means the familiarity of participants with standard proficiency test, and improving internal validity of the study, it was decided to rely on the previous results (Esmaeili, 2018). Furthermore, all of the participants were sophomores studying the same major (English Translation) in the same classroom who had passed the same examinations throughout their studies.

Materials

The materials used in the present study were sixty idioms from the two volumes of the book *Basic Idioms in American English (1981)*, compiled by Hubert H. Setzler, through a mobile program (Telegram) aiming at learning English vocabulary. The rationale behind choosing the source of material was the participants' current study at the time. The participants were taking a course on "The Use of English Idioms and Expressions in Translation". The textbook of the course was "*English Idioms in Use*" by McCarthy and O'Dell (2004). Since the participants were provided with British English idioms at the same time of being the subjects of this study, and in order to avoid any kind of bias, it was decided to utilize American English Idioms suitable for intermediate English learners. The selected idioms are among the most commonly used expressions essential for natural, everyday communication of EFL students. A list containing all the idioms covered in the treatment sessions is provided in Appendix A. In addition to the suitability of idioms in terms of their level of proficiency, their novelty, attractiveness, and applicability in the participants' culture were taken into account. It is worth mentioning that in some cases Longman Dictionary was used to provide the participants with more examples.

Instruments

The closed-ended questionnaire in the current study was administered to find possible correlations between variables in short term.

Big Five Inventory (BFI) (John et al., 2008). As Srivastava (2017) in his website has mentioned, BFI is a self-report scale with 44 items developed to assess the BF dimensions. Short sentences with rather easy-to-understand vocabulary are used.

Soto and John (2009, p. 85) reported alpha reliabilities changing from .81 to .88. In another study, Lee et al. (2013, p. 9) maintain that internal consistency of all five dimensions of this scale is highly acceptable with Cronbach's Alphas ranging from 0.79 to 0.87 and NEO-FFI ranges from 0.72 to 0.81, which represent satisfactory validity.

Respondents were asked to answer to questions on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Neuroticism includes 8 items: 4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, and 39; among them, items 9, 24, and 34 need to be reversed. Extraversion includes 8 items: 1, 6 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, and 36;

among them, items 6, 21, and 31 need to be reversed. Agreeableness includes 9 items: 2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37, and 42; among them, items 2, 12, 27, and 37 are in need of being reversed. Conscientiousness includes 9 items: 3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38, and 43; among them, items 8, 18, 23, and 43 need to be reversed. Openness includes 10 items: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, and 44; among them, items 35 and 41 need to be reversed. Higher scores will present more dominant personality traits.

The Achievement Test (AT). A researcher-designed achievement test administered in order to examine the participants' performance on English vocabulary. The test format was chosen as multiple choice questions restricted to 20 items that should be answered in 10 minutes. The scores would range between 0 and 20. All these choices were made to avoid bringing about threatening, exhausting, or boring experience besides being objective in terms of both devising the items and scoring them. Attempts were made to ensure the validation of the test by: (1) improving the design and appearance of the test, as well as avoiding any kinds of pattern in selection of options and answers; (2) covering the whole content, and avoiding idioms not found in material; (3) choosing multiple-choice form in order to be objective in testing, scoring, and interpreting results; (4) trying to avoid biases which may lead to interference in the purpose of measuring the participants' idiom knowledge; (5) trying to avoid signaling any kinds of clue for choosing the correct option, for instance based on the grammatical knowledge, or by contrast, any kinds of clue which may distract the examinees' attention from finding the correct answer. Besides, the test was proofread by two professors of English Language Department at the University of Zanjan.

The reliability of the AT was scrutinized by pilot testing. The examinees of the pilot testing were 30 Iranian EFL sophomores at the University of Zanjan who studied English Literature as their major. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient as the indicator of the test reliability offered a satisfactory level of internal reliability ($\alpha = .711$, $p < .001$).

Experts' judgment was sought to estimate the validity of the test. Two professors with related major were asked to judge the validity of the researcher-designed test through answering a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) including four types of test validity (face, content, criterion-related, and construct validity).

The means of the obtained scores from two raters were 4.00 and 4.25 from 5, which were above the average and manifested reasonable degree of validity in terms of face, content, criterion-related, and construct validity. To measure the inter-rater reliability of the two expert judgments, Cohen's kappa (κ) was run. This measure revealed the significantly acceptable degree of inter-rater agreement between the two raters of the test validity: $\kappa = .636$, $p < .05$.

Procedure

At the first session of meeting the participants, they were provided with adequate information about the topic, purpose, implications, benefits, and procedures of the study, and also about the ethical matters, including the

confidentiality of their identity and other obtained data from the questionnaires and achievement test. Then, they were asked to fill out the questionnaire carefully and completely. Besides, the counterparts of the challenging expressions were introduced in the participants' mother tongue in order to ease and ensure the accuracy of the answers.

After ensuring that all of the participants have easy and unlimited access to the Internet and Telegram software via their mobile phones, a Telegram channel was created and all the participants joined, enabling them to study the materials via their mobile phones at anytime and anywhere.

Per week ten idioms were put in the channel, including their meaning and sufficient sample sentences. The participants were provided with sixty American idioms in total. The treatment was conducted over a semester-long (6 weeks) course, and the test was taken 10 minutes prior to the participants' final examination. To investigate the correlation between the learners' performance on the vocabulary test and their personality trait, multiple regression was employed. All the obtained data were analyzed using the latest version of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Results

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the obtained data from the psychological questionnaire and the researcher-designed achievement test.

Descriptive Statistics

The following table demonstrates the descriptive analysis of the participants' answers to BFI, its subscales and the Vocabulary test.

Table 1

Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) of BFI, its Subscales and VT Scores

				Skewness		Kurtosis	
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Big Five Inventory	100	3.392	.27980	-.845	.414	.006	.809
Extraversion	100	3.441	.70495	-.710	.414	.629	.809
Agreeableness	100	3.503	.62916	-.247	.414	.577	.809
Conscientiousness	100	3.378	.58988	-.309	.414	-.535	.809
Neuroticism	100	2.878	.88302	-.167	.414	-.244	.809
Openness	100	3.678	.47704	.244	.414	-.111	.809
The scores of VT	100	16.81	2.65716	-.918	.414	-.013	.809

As mentioned before, the BFI has 5 subscales, namely, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness-to-experience. Table 1 provides descriptive statistics of BFI and its subcategories. The mean for BFI was found 3.39 out of 5, and the means of

BFI's subscales were found 3.44 for Extraversion, 3.50 for Agreeableness, 3.37 for Conscientiousness, 2.87 for Neuroticism, and 3.67 for Openness-to-experience (All the means are out of 5, and so above the average). In some subcategories, such as Neuroticism, the relatively high SD suggested diversity in the participants' personality traits, which could be regarded as the good representativeness of the sample containing wide range of personality traits as it is seen in the whole society. The sum of BFI scores ranged from120 to 166. The amounts of skewness and kurtosis suggest approximately normal distribution (|S| and |K| > 1.96), and meet, therefore, the basic assumption of Regression analysis.

With regard to the participants' scores of the vocabulary test, the mean score of the VT was found 16.81, which was largely above the average and signified the efficacy of the treatment. The standard deviation was found 2.65 suggesting wide range of test scores between 10 and 20. Since the distribution of the scores was negatively skewed, one outlier was detected and removed from the data, which resulted in the approximate normality and decrease of the sample's population to 99. The omission of the outlier promoted the normality of the data distributions of all other variables, and consequently raised the level of accuracy in calculating correlation coefficients. The normality of the scores' distribution after removing the outlier is shown in the Table 2.

Table 2
The Normality of the Distribution of BFI, its Subscales and VT Scores

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
Big Five Inventory	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
	.136	99	.154	.927	99	.037
Extraversion	.144	99	.100	.927	99	.037
Agreeableness	.135	99	.156	.977	99	.717
Conscientiousness	.093	99	.200*	.957	99	.248
Neuroticism	.099	99	.200*	.960	99	.291
Openness	.082	99	.200*	.973	99	.592
The scores of VT	.204	99	.002	.887	99	.003

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The accuracy of the input data has been examined several times, and in some cases, some participants were asked to fill out the questionnaires again. All the processes of gathering data were carefully supervised and the vitality of gaining accurate information was clarified to all of the participants.

Inferential Statistics

In order to examine the relationship between each independent variable, i.e. personality trait (five subscales) and the dependent variable, which is vocabulary learning, standard multiple regression analysis was applied. To assure the appropriateness of using this scale, the six required assumptions were investigated, including (1) continuousness of data; (2) linear relationship between the two variables; (3) no significant outliers; (4) independence of observations; (5) homoscedasticity; and (6) normal

distribution of errors/residuals. In terms of the first assumption, the nature of scores related to each variable, as described in the Instrument section, is continuous. The results of descriptive analyses for all variables of this study, presented in tables above, suggest the normal distribution of data, which meets the sixth assumption.

Multiple regression analysis shows how well a set of subscales on BFI is able to predict the performance of language learners on the vocabulary test. This analysis provides us with both models related to each individual subscale and all of them as a whole.

The results of multiple regression analysis between subscales of personality trait as independent variables and vocabulary learning as a dependent one are presented in Tables 3, 4, and 5.

Table 3
Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.293[a]	.085	.060	2.37488

a. Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Agreeableness, Extraversion, Neuroticism, Conscientiousness

b. Dependent Variable: Vocabulary Test Score

The R value in Table 3 represents the simple correlation as .293, which indicates a low degree of correlation, and the R^2 value indicates that only 8.5% of the total variation in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables which are: openness, agreeableness, extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness. This proportion is too small and suggests no significant correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

Table 4
ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.966	3	3.322	1.063	.004[a]
	Residual	351.168	96	3.658		
	Total	361.134	99			

a. Dependent Variable: Vocabulary Test Score

b. Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Agreeableness, Extraversion, Neuroticism, Conscientiousness

Table 4, ANOVA, shows that this regression model predicts the dependent variable significantly well ($p < .005$).

Table 5
Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	14.633	6.437		1.652	.000
	Extraversion	-.837	.743	-.250	-1.127	.004
	Agreeableness	-1.080	.862	-.289	-1.253	.222
	Conscientiousness	2.281	1.230	.553	1.854	.176
	Neuroticism	.479	.708	.177	.676	.505
	Openness	1.092	.980	.222	1.115	.276

a. Dependent Variable: Vocabulary Test Score

The analysis revealed Extraversion (the subscale of Big Five personality trait) as the best unique predictor of Learning Vocabulary in MALL (β = -.250, $p < .005$). The above table provides this formula for predicting the dependent variable:

Vocabulary Test Score = 14.633- (.837* Extraversion)

However, this formula only counts for 8.5% of variation in the dependent variable.

The results of the regression analysis, represented in the tables above, revealed no relationship between learning vocabulary in MALL and the learners' personality traits as the proportion of prediction was too small, and consequently does not differ from zero. In other words, there is no significant relationship between learning vocabulary in MALL and the learners' personality traits.

Discussion

The invention of new technologies such as computers and smart phones has enormous impact on people's lives per se; now the use of these devices presents considerable vicissitude in the process of language learning, and the properties of creating a secure and peaceful context for learners with a wide range of personal, psychological and social characteristics which are available anytime and anywhere has turned computer-assisted and mobile-assisted language learning to perfect facilitators in learning English. Nowadays there are many apps which offer even online private and native tutors, such as WhatsApp applications, Telegram applications, Facebook, and researcher-made softwares as well as social network applications, including HelloTalk, Live Mocha, Bussuu, and My Happy Planet. The current study was an attempt to find out if learners' individual traits mediate the effectiveness of MALL. The findings, however, suggested no significant correlation between the five factors of personality traits and learning vocabulary in MALL which means that learners with different personality traits can equally benefit from studying vocabulary through MALL. This is in contrast with the results of Bayram et al. (2008), Kamal and Radhakrishnan (2019), and Scheid (2015) who reported strong correlations between these traits and learners' academic achievement in an e-learning environment. In the traditional

context of a classroom, there are also several studies (e.g. Komarraju et al., 2009; Miri & Shamsaddini, 2014; Payne et al., 2007) that introduce personality traits as strong predictor of foreign language learning, the very finding which is against our observation here.

The lack of relationship between personality-related factors and mobile-assisted vocabulary learning is nevertheless compatible with the outcome of some researches such as Biedroń (2011) and Carrell et al. (1996). In the former, a similarly weak relationship between personality traits and foreign language aptitude was found, while in the latter some correlations were observed between extraversion/introversion and vocabulary test. It is also partially in line with Kaufmann's (2016) belief who is a co-founder of web and mobile language learning platform www.LingQ.com; he reckons that introverts and extraverts may employ different strategies or environment to study, but there is no evidence that shows introverts are inferior to extraverts in learning and using their own mother tongue, which can be equally extended to second or foreign language. He went on to argue that "language learning isn't about your personality type."

With regard to the main objective of the study, the analysis of simultaneous multiple regression offers extraversion as the unique significant predictor with negative relationship, which means that learners with higher levels of extraversion benefit less from the program. In a similar vein, Lane and Manner (2011), in their investigation into the relationship between personality traits and smartphone ownership reported personality as a weak predictor of mobile ownership/use except extraversion which was a rather reliable predictor. Although Hassanzadeh et al. (2012) focused on teachers' traits, their findings were also in keeping with ours which showed only extroverts had a slightly moderate and positive correlation with ICT usage.

However, this contradicts the findings of a similar study, conducted by Kao and Craigie (2014). They explored the effects of English usage on Facebook and personality traits on the achievement of EFL learners, and suggested extraversion as a powerful predictor of EFL learners' achievement with positive correlation. The contradiction between the results of this study and Kao and Craigie's (2014) may reflect the different properties related to Facebook and Telegram channel as the latter lacks direct and synchronous interaction among members, including learners and teacher(s). Therefore, extravert learners may find Telegram channel less inviting than Facebook and spend less time to review the materials in comparison to introvert learners.

Channels in social media miss interpersonal learning activities and synchronous interactions. They merely provide a space through which learning materials are imparted to the members. Normally, ambiguousness is avoided in designing learning materials; hence, language learning through the channels of social media restricts biased interpretations made by learners. The findings of the present study corroborate such claim. Social media can be justly regarded as a socially liberating environment for learning a foreign language since they are capable of reducing the possible effect of some socially and emotionally affective variables, including

personality, in language learning.

Conclusion

Owing to the fact that there was a wide range of scores related to the personal/emotional status, and also due to wide-ranging scores related to the learners' performance on the vocabulary test, the sample is representative of the target population. Besides, some cautions have been exercised to avoid any biases, from the choice of materials and instruments to the processes of gathering and analyzing data. Thus, the results which indicated the absence of correlation between the learners' performance on the vocabulary test and their personality traits are hopefully generalizable to the target population, Iranian EFL learners. Furthermore, the multiple regression analysis offered Extraversion as the unique, negative, and statistically significant predictor of vocabulary learning via Telegram channel. It seems reasonable that applications such as Telegram channels, which do not cater interaction among their members, receive less attention from extravert learners, who enjoy and are energized through interaction with other learners and teacher(s). On the other hand, it would be a fantastic advantage for such instruments to provide introvert learners, who benefit less from the interactive context of language learning especially in traditional classrooms, with less threatening and more promising environment.

This would be a noticeable advantage for MALL to leave behind the learners' psychological characteristics in the process of language learning. Individual differences, defined as affective variables, have been the focus of numerous studies exploring their impacts upon the efficacy of learning English as a foreign language especially in traditional classrooms. Krashen's affective filter hypothesis relates successful language acquisition to the learners' feelings, and blames the negative feelings as serious obstacles to make the most of "input" (cited in Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Accordingly, utilizing MALL, and particularly Telegram channel, can help pass the hindrances caused by negative feelings and also suits learners with different personality traits.

Regarding the widespread use of mobile phones as inexpensive tools among youth, it is highly recommended to benefit from various applications and programs designed for such devices as well as social media for the purpose of learning EFL as complementary appliances in traditional contexts, or even as independent facilities which boost learners' autonomy. Nowadays, there are many free social media's channels working under experts' supervision that impart language knowledge through aural and audio-visual materials. Since such facilities have attracted the attention of many language learners, proving their efficacy would be a revolutionary breakthrough in the domain of language teaching and learning. The present study has been conducted to take a step, even if a small one, to find more about the properties of MALL, and its potentials for different EFL learners.

The pedagogical implications of MALL are already well-established; nonetheless, the findings of the present study, suggesting the benefits of using MALL for learners with different personality traits, emphasize the fruitfulness of vocabulary learning through Telegram channel, and

recommend it as a complementary tool, especially during the pandemic with more emphasis on specific skills, such as reading, speaking, and writing, which inevitably need vast knowledge of vocabulary.

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Paper Abstracts in Persian

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فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال ششم، شمارهٔ ۳، پاییز ۱۴۰۱

بررسی تطبیقی رسمیت متنِ مقالات زبان‌شناسی کاربردی نوشته‌شده به انگلیسی توسط پژوهشگران انگلیسی‌زبان بومی و ایرانی

مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۲۵-۷

ساسان بالغی‌زاده[1*]
فریا اسدی[2]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۰/۰۱/۱۹ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۰/۰۸/۰۴

چکیده

ارتباط علمی بین‌المللی اغلب به زبان انگلیسی انجام می‌شود. بنابراین نوشتن و انتشار به انگلیسی اهمیت قابل توجهی در محیط‌های دانشگاهی دارد. در کنار بسیاری از عوامل دیگر، نگارش دانشگاهی شایسته، سطح رسمیت زبانی مناسبی دارد. تحقیقات نشان داده‌است که ویژگی‌های زبانی می‌توانند میان متون رسمی و غیر رسمی تمایز ایجاد کنند. پژوهشگران مختلف از روش‌های گوناگونی برای تعریف و اندازه‌گیری رسمیت بهره برده‌اند. تحقیق حاضر، درجهٔ رسمیت مقاله‌های زبان‌شناسی کاربردی که توسط پژوهشگران انگلیسی‌زبان غیر بومی ایرانی و انگلیسی‌زبانان بومی نوشته شده‌اند را با محاسبهٔ شاخص اف، معیارِ اندازه‌گیری رسمیت که توسط هیلگن و دوالو (۱۹۹۹) معرفی‌شده‌است، مقایسه می‌کند. در مجموع، ۸۰ مقاله از ۴ مجلهٔ بین‌المللی انتخاب شدند. نیمی از این مقالات توسط پژوهشگران غیر بومی ایرانی و نیمی دیگر به وسیلهٔ پژوهشگران بومی انگلیسی زبان نوشته شده بودند. نتایج نمایانگر سطح متوسطی از رسمیت متن در هر دو گروه بود. با این وجود، مقالات نوشته شده توسط پژوهشگران ایرانی، به صورت معناداری درجه رسمیت بالاتری را نشان دادند. به طور کلی، این تحقیق کاربردهایی برای مدرسان زبان انگلیسی در حوزه‌های مختلف، ویراستارهای مجله، تدوین‌کنندگان مطالب آموزشی و محققانی که می‌خواهند در سطح بین المللی اثری چاپ کنند، دارد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: رسمیت، پژوهشگران انگلیسی‌زبان بومی، پژوهشگران انگلیسی‌زبان غیر بومی، زبان‌شناسی کاربردی

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مجله افق‌های زبان
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فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال ششم، شمارهٔ ۳، پاییز ۱۴۰۱

تحلیل حرکت در تارنمای آموزشگاه‌های زبان انگلیسی ایرانی: *صفحهٔ اصلی* و *دربارهٔ ما*

مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۴۷-۲۷

سمیه سروری[۱]
سمیه فتحعلی[۲*]
آزاده عمادی[۳]

تاریخ ارسال: ۱۳۹۹/۱۲/۲۳ تاریخ پذیرش: ۱۴۰۰/۰۸/۰۴

چکیده

این پژوهش به بررسی شیوه های معرفی خود توسط آموزشگاه های زبان ایرانی، در دو بخش از وب‌گاه‌های شان تحت عنوان *صفحهٔ اصلی* و *دربارهٔ ما* میپردازد. بر این اساس، هدف از این مطالعه مقایسه و مقابلهٔ تارنمای سه آموزشگاه زبان انگلیسی قدیم-التأسیس و سه مؤسسه جدید-التأسیس ایرانی در رابطه با چگونگی بازنمایی خود در دو وب‌گاه اشاره‌شده در بالا است. مدل تحلیل حرکتی سویلز (۱۹۹۰) در درونِ تحلیل ژانر، به کار گرفته شد تا *صفحهٔ اصلی* و صفحه‌های *دربارهٔ ما*ی دو گروه وب‌گاه به دقت بررسی شوند. تحلیل ها نشان می‌دهد که وب‌گاه‌های دو گروه مؤسسه از جنبهٔ *صفحهٔ اصلی* و دربرداشتن پنج حرکت همانند، مشابه بودند. از سوی دیگر، میان حرکت‌ها و گام‌ها در صفحه‌های *دربارهٔ ما*ی وب‌گاه‌های مؤسسه‌های پیشین و جدید تفاوت‌هایی وجود داشت. مؤسسه‌های قدیم‌التأسیس عمدتاً برای معرفی به شهرت و قدمت خود استناد می‌کنند در حالی‌که مؤسسه‌های جدید-التأسیس خود را مؤسساتی خلاق در انطباق با نیازها و انتظارات زبان آموزان معرفی می‌کنند که خدمات رایگان نیز ارائه می‌دهند. به نظر می‌رسد مؤسسه‌های جدیدتر، صفحه‌های *دربارهٔ ما*ی طولانی‌تری دارند تا زبان‌آموزان شان را مجاب به پذیرش توانایی خود در برآوردن ادعاهای شان سازند. نتایج به‌دست‌آمده برای مؤسسه‌های زبان از جنبه تجاری و برای پژوهشگران تحلیل ژانر حائز اهمیت است.

کلیدواژه‌ها: تحلیل حرکت، مؤسسه‌های زبان، وب‌گاه‌ها، *صفحهٔ اصلی*، *دربارهٔ ما*

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فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال ششم، شمارهٔ ۳، پاییز ۱۴۰۱

جنسیت و پیدایی فرامتنی:
بررسی موردی پیش‌گفتارهای مترجمان

مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۶۳-۴۹

آمنه یاری[*1]
زهرا امیریان[2]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۳۹۹/۱۲/۹ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۰/۸/۴

چکیده

جهت‌گیری افراطی در جنبش فمنیسم انتقادهای زیادی را پیرامونِ الگویی غیرِ سیاسی و خنثی‌تر نسبت به زن‌ها در پی داشته‌است. تمایل به پیدایی، نقطهٔ اشتراکِ دیرپای مابین جنسیت و ترجمه است. فرامتن‌ها به عنوان عناصر خارج از متن، مسیری امیدبخش برای جهت‌گیری دوبارهٔ پیدایی مترجمان خارج از پس‌زمینهٔ متنی ایجاد می‌کنند. این پژوهش در پی بررسی آن است که چگونه مترجمان مرد و زن در پیشگفتار رمان‌ها، مقدمه‌های خود را به عنوان فرصتی برای مطرح کردن خود به عنوان مترجم و حرفهٔ خود به عنوان وظیفه‌ای جدی و ظریف به کار می‌گیرند. پیش‌گفتار ۱۰۰ رمان ترجمه‌شده از انگلیسی به فارسی مورد تحلیل موضوعی قرار گرفت. موضوع ترجمه‌ها و مترجم، نمایانگر تمایل مترجم‌های زن به صحبت کردن دربارهٔ اول شخص و دفاع از گزارش‌های شخصی‌تر بود، در حالی‌که مردها دیدگاه سوم شخص را ترجیح می‌دادند و اغلب بر معرفی نویسندگان اصلی و آثارشان تمرکز داشتند. نتایج کلی این پژوهش نشان داد که مترجم‌های زن و مرد اغلب تمایلی به صحبت در مورد فرایند ترجمه و چالش‌ها یا ظرافت‌های احتمالی آن نداشتند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: فرامتن، پیدایی، مقدمه، مترجمان زن و مرد، مضمون

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سال ششم، شمارهٔ ۳، پاییز ۱۴۰۱

فراگیری نشانه‌گذاری جمع انگلیسی در زبان سومِ دانشجویان زبان عربی و فارسی: زبان آموزش برای تأثیر بینازبانی اهمیت دارد

مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۸۵-۶۵

فاطمه خضری[۱]
علی‌اکبر جباری[۲*]
علی‌محمد فضیلت‌فر[۳]
فاطمه جمشیدی[۴]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۳۹۹/۱۲/۰۳ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۰/۰۵/۲۳

چکیده

این مطالعه بر آن است تا به مقایسه اثرات ترتیب فراگیری (زبان اول در مقایسه با زبان دوم) و زبانِ رشتهٔ تحصیلی بر فراگیری زبان سوم بپردازد، برای کشف اینکه آیا بافت فراگیری بر دانش زبان‌آموزان از زبان سوم تأثیر می‌گذارد. به این منظور، چهار گروه از فراگیران زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان سوم انتخاب شدند. گروه(های) اول و دوم زبان اولشان فارسی و زبان دومشان عربی بود. شرکت‌کنندگان گروه نخست دانشجویان زبان و ادبیات فارسی بودند، در حالی‌که شرکت‌کنندگان گروه دوم دانشجویان زبان و ادبیات عرب بودند. گروه‌های سوم و چهارم، زبان اولشان عربی و زبان دومشان فارسی بود. شرکت‌کنندگان گروه سوم، دانشجویان زبان و ادبیات فارسی بودند، در حالی‌که شرکت‌کنندگان گروه چهارم دانشجویان زبان و ادبیات عرب بودند. دانش نشانه‌گذاری جمع انگلیسی از طریق تکلیف تصحیح قضاوت گرامری و تکلیف توصیف تصویر بررسی شد، با هدف بررسی اینکه چگونه این گروه‌ها مطابقت شمار بین اسم و توصیفگرهایش را در انگلیسی به عنوان زبان سومشان فرا می‌گیرند. نتایج نشان داد که گروه‌های فارسی و عربی الف (افرادی با فارسی به عنوان زبان آموزشی‌شان) نسبت به گروه‌های دیگر در هر دو تکلیف بهتر عمل کردند، این امر حاکی از آن است که آن‌ها نشانهٔ جمع را به سهولت از فارسی منتقل کرده‌اند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: انتقال، چندزبانگی، فراگیری زبان سوم، آموزش تماس زبانی، تأثیر بینازبانی

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مجله افق‌های زبان
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فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال ششم، شمارهٔ ۳، پاییز ۱۴۰۱

احترام/بی‌احترامی معلم‌ها نسبت به زبان‌آموزان انگلیسی: ایجاد یک مدل میان-فرهنگی

مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۱۱۴-۸۷

مهناز مصطفایی علائی[1*]
امیر حمید فروغ عامری[2]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۳۹۹/۱۲/۱۷ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۰/۰۸/۴

چکیده

باتلان (۲۰۰۱) مدعی است رابطهٔ متقابل محترمانه معلم-زبان آموز به ایجاد محیط امنی برای یادگیری می‌انجامد. مطالعه حاضر مقیاس چندوجهی ارائه می‌دهد که به صورت میان‌فرهنگی، احترام/بی‌احترامی معلمان نسبت به زبان‌آموزان را به عنوان بعد حیاتی روابط زبان‌آموز-معلم می‌سنجد. پرسش‌نامه احترام معلم به زبان‌آموز بر پایه پیشینه تحقیق، گروه‌های متمرکز و مصاحبه‌های برخط ساخته شد. ما ابعاد پرسش‌نامه احترام معلم به زبان‌آموز را از طریق تحلیل عاملی تاییدی اندازه‌گیری کردیم تا تأییدی برای مدل شش-عاملی فرضی‌مان در میان زبان‌آموزان و معلمان انگلیسی بومی و غیر بومی بیابیم (N =۴۷۲). ساختار شش-عاملی از طریق تحلیل عاملی اکتشافی پرسش‌نامه احترام معلم به زبان‌آموز به دست آمد که بر اساس سه دسته فراگیر دربرگیرندهٔ ۱۴ مضمون فرعی حاصل از گروه‌های متمرکز و مصاحبه‌های برخط ساخته شد. بر اساس این تحلیل‌ها، ساختار شش-عاملی بهترین برازش را نشان داد. این ابعاد شامل الف) خصوصیات بینافردی معلم، ب) بینش معلم و ج) ویژگی‌های شغلی معلمان است. ضرایب پایایی نشان داد که همسانی درونی قابل قبولی در میان پرسش های مدل شش عامل وجود دارد. همچنین، ما اعتبار همگرا، واگرا و روایی پیش‌بینی‌کننده پرسش‌نامه احترام معلم به زبان‌آموز را نیز سنجیدیم. به نظر می‌رسد احترام/بی‌احترامی مدرسان به زبان‌آموزان، پیشرفت تحصیلی زبان‌آموز، به ویژه معدل و خودارزیابی زبان‌آموزان از موفقیت شان در یادگیری زبان انگلیسی را پیش‌بینی کند. نتایج از وجود شش بعد حاصل از تحلیل عاملی اکتشافی و گروه‌های متمرکز و مصاحبه‌های برخط پشتیبانی نموده و شواهدی عینی از ویژگی‌های روان‌سنجی این مقیاس را به ما ارائه می‌دهد. این مقیاس می‌تواند توسط مربیان و سیاست‌گذاران برای نظارت بر روابط محترمانه معلم-زبان‌آموز به کار گرفته شود.

کلیدواژه‌ها: احترام/بی‌احترامی معلمان نسبت به زبان‌آموزان، بررسی میان‌فرهنگی، معلمان زبان انگلیسی، فراگیران زبان انگلیسی، تحلیل عاملی تاییدی

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مجله افق‌های زبان
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فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال ششم، شمارهٔ ۳، پاییز ۱۴۰۱

تأثیر برنامه‌ریزی برخط و برنامه‌ریزی راهبردی در آموزش زبان تکلیف-محور به کمک رایانه بر تمایل زبان‌آموزان به برقراری ارتباط

مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۱۳۵-۱۱۵

حدیث اسفندیاری ده‌مجنونی[۱]
علی‌رضا امجدی‌پرور[۲*]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۰/۰۱/۰۲ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۰/۰۸/۰۵

چکیده

تحقیق حاضر به بررسی تأثیر برنامه‌ریزی برخط و برنامه‌ریزی راهبردی در بافت زبان‌آموزی تکلیف-محور به کمک رایانه بر تمایل به برقراری ارتباط می‌پردازد. در ابتدا، آزمون تعیین سطح آکسفورد میانِ ۱۲۰ نفر از فراگیران زبان انگلیسی در سطح متوسط توزیع شد. سپس، بر اساس مقیاس تعیین سطح آکسفورد، ۹۰ زبان‌آموز انتخاب شدند و به دو گروه آزمایشی و یک گروه کنترل تقسیم شدند. از شرکت‌کنندگان در گروه‌های تعیین‌شده درخواست شد تا پرسشنامه تمایل به برقراری ارتباط را به عنوان پیش‌آزمون تکمیل کنند. به دنبال آن، یکی از گروه‌های آزمایشی، برنامه‌ریزی برخط زبان‌آموزی به کمک رایانه و گروه دیگر برنامه‌ریزی راهبردی زبان‌آموزی به کمک رایانه را دریافت کردند. در گروه برنامه‌ریزی راهبردی، زبان‌آموزان در هر جلسه مقاله‌ای در مورد یک موضوع مشخص نوشتند در حالی‌که اجازه داشتند در مورد آنچه می‌خواستند بنویسند (محتوا) و صورت‌های زبانی (واژه‌ها، دستور زبان و غیره) که می‌خواستند به کار برند، بیاندیشند. در گروه آزمایشی دیگر، زبان‌آموزان زمانی برای تفکر دربارهٔ انجام تکلیف در طول تکلیف داشتند، ولی به آن‌ها آموزش داده شد که طرح خود را یادداشت نکنند. آموزش سنتی رایج برای شرکت کنندگان در گروه کنترل به کار گرفته شد. پس از ده جلسه، به زبان‌آموزان در سه گروه، پرسش‌نامه تمایل به برقراری ارتباط به عنوان پس‌آزمون داده شد. نتایج تحلیل کوواریانس نشان داد که برنامه‌ریزی برخط و برنامه‌ریزی راهبردی تأثیر قابلِ توجهی بر تمایل فراگیران زبان انگلیسی ایرانی به برقراری ارتباط دارد. افزون بر این، مشخص شد که تأثیر برنامه‌ریزی راهبردی در مقایسه با برنامه‌ریزی برخط بر تمایل فراگیران ایرانی زبان انگلیسی به برقراری ارتباط معنادارتر بود. یافته‌ها، نمایانگر کاربردهایی برای معلمان زبان انگلیسی در برنامه‌ریزی برخط و برنامه‌ریزی راهبردی در بافت آموزش زبان تکلیف-محور به کمک رایانه، برای ارتقای تمایل به برقراری ارتباط است.

کلیدواژه‌ها: زبان‌آموزی به کمک رایانه، برنامه‌ریزی برخط، برنامه‌ریزی راهبردی، آموزش زبان تکلیف-محور، تمایل به برقراری ارتباط.

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مجله افق‌های زبان
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فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال ششم، شمارهٔ ۳، پاییز ۱۴۰۱

ارتباط میان تیپ شخصیتی زبان آموزان ایرانی و یادگیری واژگان به کمک تلفن همراه

مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۱۵۵-۳۷

الهام محمدی[*۱]
رباب خسروی[۲]
اعظم معصومی[۳]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۰/۰۲/۱۱ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۰/۰۸/۰۴

چکیده

به کارگیری رو به رشد ابزارهای فناورانه در یادگیری زبان، بررسی سودمندی آن‌ها و تعیین میزان تاثیر ویژگی‌های زبان‌آموزان بر اثربخشی آن ها را ضروری میکند. با توجه به این نگرانی‌ها، پژوهش حاضر به دنبال بررسی رابطهٔ بین یادگیری واژگان انگلیسی از طریق تلفن همراه و ویژگی‌های شخصیتی زبان‌آموزان است. شرکت‌کنندگان در این مطالعه ۱۰۰ زبان‌آموز انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی بودند که در دانشگاه زنجان، ایران به تحصیل زبان انگلیسی مشغول بودند. تعداد ۶۰ اصطلاح زبان انگلیسی از طریق یک کانال تلگرام به مدت ۶ هفته و در قالب آموزش زبان به کمک تلفن همراه در اختیار شرکت‌کنندگان قرار گرفت. یک آزمون پیشرفت ،طراحی‌شده توسط محقق، برای ارزیابی یادگیری واژگان زبان‌آموزان از طریق تلفن همراه به اجرا درآمد. مقیاس پنج بزرگ (جان و همکاران ۲۰۰۸) برای سنجش تیپ شخصیتی زبان‌آموزان به کار گرفته شد. تجزیه و تحلیل داده‌ها همبستگی معناداری را بین متغیرها نشان نداد؛ با این حال، رگرسیون چندگانه همزمان، برون‌گرایی را به عنوان پیش‌بینی‌کننده معنادار منحصر به فرد ارائه کرد. نتایج نشان داد که یادگیری زبان به کمک تلفن همراه نه تنها زبان‌آموزان را از محدودیت‌های زمانی و مکانی رها می‌کند، بلکه دخالت احتمالی ویژگی‌های زبان‌آموزان را در فرآیند یادگیری زبان به حداقل می‌رساند. اهمیت یادگیری با استفاده از تلفن همراه در کاهش اثر ویژگی‌های شخصیتی بر یادگیری واژگان توسط دانش‌آموزان دستاوردهای مهمی برای معلمان و دست اندرکاران آموزش به همراه دارد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: مقیاس پنج بزرگ، فراگیران زبان انگلیسی، یادگیری واژگان، یادگیری زبان به کمک تلفن همراه، تیپ شخصیتی

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فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال ششم، شمارهٔ ۳، پاییز ۱۴۰۱

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معاونت پژوهشی دانشگاه

فصلنامهٔ علمی

افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)

سال ششم، شماره سوم، پاییز ۱۴۰۱ (پیاپی ۱۳)

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سردبیر: **دکتر محمدرضا عنانی سراب**

ویراستار زبان انگلیسی: **دکتر شهره تیمورنژاد**

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مجلهٔ افق های زبان با همکاری انجمن زبان شناسی ایران منتشر می‌شود.

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