

**ATTITUDE OF IRANIAN STATE UNIVERSITY
STUDENTS TO GENERAL LEXICAL ITEMS
CREATED BY APLL**

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on the attitudes of Iranian state university students towards the neologisms suggested by Academy of Persian Language and Literature (APLL). A questionnaire-based survey was administered to 500 students in Tehran. This was followed by interviews with 21 students as well as 5 APLL experts to supplement and probe the data.

Being familiar with/interested in APLL and its activities by approximately 40%, participants seem to have low attitude towards APLL and its success in word-creation by 41%. This figure decreases to 33.3% as to the interviews.

Concerning the involvement of linguists and men of letters in creating neologisms, 100% of APLL experts and over 63% of students queried/interviewed believed both groups should cooperate with each other when deciding on new words.

Regarding the use of APLL words by reporters/newsreaders, the public, participants' family and professors, only 38% of interviewees believed these individuals use the words whereas this percentage is 47.7% and 63.3% by respondents of questionnaires and APLL experts, respectively.

Participants adopted a rather high positive attitude towards using living elements in Persian (72.8%), utilizing both classic and contemporary books (over 70%) through referring to works by poets/writers/translators to create new words. These figures decreased to 62.3% and 60.7% regarding the use of different accents/dialects, and the experiences/knowledge of other countries, respectively, for creating neologisms.

Respondents reflected a rather high attitude towards the importance of certain word features for creating neologisms in Persian by approximately 70%. Their choices in order of preference included semantic transparency, eusemy, euphony, brevity and

productivity. This was true with APLL experts except for productivity as being their second choice.

Respondents expressed a rather moderate attitude towards the importance of familiarity with foreign language(s) for accepting APLL words (62.8%), necessity of allocating some part of Persian Literature at universities to word-creation (approximately 57%) and creating a database for APLL activities in the Internet (about 64%).

There was a rather high positive attitude towards the extent to which reporters/newsreaders use APLL words (74.4% and 86.1%, respectively). Nonetheless, the public and participants' families seemed to be using neologisms to a small extent (about 30%). However, this figure increases to 53.6% by university professors.

Participants adopted high positive attitudes towards TV, radio and newspapers for promoting neologisms. Other media such as cinema, satellites, SMS, theatre and the Internet are said to be moderately or (very) little important.

Concerning certain demographic variables, there was no correlation between participants' attitude towards the APLL (words) and their gender, age, place of residence, fields of study and level of education. However, participants with more educated parents were a slightly less favourable about the APLL products. Meanwhile, there was no correlation between participants' knowledge of foreign language(s) as well as their use of accents/dialects other than Persian and their accepting the APLL words.

Except for productivity, there was no correlation between respondents' attitudes towards other word features and the acceptance of APLL words. This was true with participants' activities (such as reading newspaper/magazines) and their accepting the neologisms except for literary books/materials.

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini memberi tumpuan kepada sikap Iran pelajar universiti negeri terhadap neologisme yang dicadangkan oleh Akademi Bahasa Parsi dan Kesusasteraan (APLL). Satu kajian berdasarkan soal selidik telah ditadbir-500 pelajar di Tehran. Ini diikuti dengan temu bual dengan 21 pelajar dan 5 pakar APLL untuk menambah dan menyiasat data.

Biasa dengan/berminat untuk APLL dan kegiatannya dengan kira-kira 40%, peserta seolah-olah mempunyai sikap rendah ke arah APLL dan kejayaannya dalam perkataan-ciptaan sebanyak 41%. Angka ini menurun kepada 33.3% untuk wawancara.

Tahap penglibatan ahli bahasa dan orang-orang surat dalam mewujudkan neon, 100% daripada pakar APLL dan lebih 63% pelajar ditanya/ditemuramah percaya kedua-dua kumpulan perlu bekerjasama antara satu sama lain apabila membuat keputusan mengenai neon.

Mengenai penggunaan perkataan APLL wartawan/pemberita, orang ramai, keluarga peserta dan profesor, hanya 38% daripada ditemubual percaya individu-individu ini menggunakan perkataan manakala peratusan ini adalah 47.7% dan 63.3% oleh responden soal selidik dan pakar APLL, masing-masing.

Peserta mengambil sikap positif yang agak tinggi ke arah menggunakan unsur-unsur yang tinggal di Parsi (72.8%), menggunakan kedua-dua buku klasik dan kontemporari (lebih 70%) melalui rujukan kerja-kerja oleh penyair/penulis/penterjemah untuk mencipta perkataan baru. Angka-angka ini menurun kepada 62.3% dan 60.7% mengenai penggunaan loghat/dialek yang berbeza, dan pengalaman/pengetahuan daripada negara-negara lain, masing-masing, untuk mewujudkan neon.

Responden menggambarkan sikap yang agak tinggi terhadap kepentingan ciri-perkataan tertentu untuk mewujudkan neon dalam bahasa Parsi oleh kira-kira 70%.

Pilihan mereka mengikut kegemaran semantik termasuk ketelusan, eusemy, bunyi merdu, keringkasan dan produktiviti. Ini adalah benar dengan pakar-pakar APLL kecuali produktiviti sebagai pilihan kedua mereka.

Responden menunjukkan sikap yang agak sederhana terhadap kepentingan kebiasaan dengan bahasa bahasa asing untuk menerima perkataan APLL (62.8%), keperluan untuk memperuntukkan sebahagian Kesusasteraan Parsi di universiti-universiti untuk perkataan-ciptaan (kira-kira 57%) dan mewujudkan pangkalan data untuk aktiviti APLL di Internet (kira-kira 64%).

Terdapat sikap positif yang agak tinggi terhadap sejauh mana wartawan pemberita/menggmakan penggunaan perkataan APLL (74.4% dan 86.1% masing-masing). Namun begitu, orang awan dan keluarga peserta seolah-olah menggunakan neon dalam tahap kecil (lebih kurang 30%). Walau bagaimanapun, angka ini meningkat kepada 53.6% oleh profesor universiti.

Peserta menganbil sikap positif yang tinggi ke arah TV, radio dan surat khabar untuk mempromosikan neon. Media lain seperti pawagam, satelit, SMS, teater dan Internet dikatakan sederhana atau (sangat) sedikit penting.

Mengenai pembolehubah demografi tertentu, tidak ada korelasi antara sikap peserta ke arah APLL itu (perkataan) dan jantina, umur, tempat tinggal, bidang pengajian dan tahap pendidikan. Walau bagaimanapun, peserta dengan ibu bapa lebih berpendidikan sedikit kurang berminat dalam produk APLL. Sementara itu, tidak ada korelasi antara pengetahuan peserta mengenai bahasa asing (s) dan juga penggunaannya aksen/dialek lain daripada Parsi dan menerima perkataan APLL mereka.

Kecuali untuk produktiviti, tidak ada korelasi antara sikap responden terhadap ciri-perkataan lain dan penerimaan perkataan APLL. Ini adalah selari dengan aktiviti

peserta (seperti membaca akhbar/majalah) dan penerimaan mereka terhadap neologisme kecuali buku-buku sastera/bahan.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APLL	The Academy of Persian Language and Literature
DBP	Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
RCIRIB	Research Center Islamic Republic of Iran's Broadcasting
GTT	General Theory of Terminology
ILNA	Islamic Labor News Agency
IRIB	Islamic Republic of Iran's Broadcasting
IRNA	Islamic Republic News Agency
ISBN	International Standard Book Number
ISPA	Iranian Students' Polling Agency
KNTT	Committee for Scientific and Technical Terminology
MSRT	Ministry of Science, Research and Technology
MST	Moscow School of Terminology
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
PST	Prague School of Terminology
SD	Standard Deviation
SST	Soviet School of Terminology
VST	Vienna School of Terminology
WF	Word-formation
WS	Word-selection

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Language, as Cook (2003) puts it, being at the heart of life is an integral part of human life, for most of our activities are inconceivable without language. One of the most important issues of contemporary linguistics is neologisms, which means words should be formed and selected according to certain linguistic rules and principles. In applied linguistics, like other sciences, it is common to make use of observation and experience while studying neologisms. These rules can be obtained by studying works of scientists in this field as well as sharing experiences. To this end, the researcher decided to pursue the issue of word-formation and word-selection through studying various books, journals and articles on linguistics and sociolinguistics written and presented by both Iranian and foreign scholars. In this study, ideas and views that are discussed and expressed by different researchers are reviewed.

Sociolinguistics, as maintained by Rajimwale (2007), is the study of language in its cultural and social contexts, focussing on the relationship between language and society. In other words, sociolinguistics is the part of linguistics dealing with 'social' questions. "It was not until 1960s, largely as a result of William Labov's work in America, and Peter Trudgill's in Britain, that sociolinguistics developed into a recognised branch of linguistics" (Finch, 2003, p. 191).

Among the issues discussed in sociolinguistics is 'language planning'. In this connection, Zubaidah (2002, p. 115) maintains that:

Bringing together the concepts ‘language’ and ‘planning’, *language planning* refers to the *activity* of deliberate, practical efforts to change the language(s) used in community...As a discipline, language planning developed rapidly, particularly in its early years in the 1960s when it was mainly concerned with model-building and theory-construction.

Zubaidah (2002, p. 116) claims that, “theoretically speaking, language planning seems to be exclusively based on the positions of (Haugen, 1966) and Neustupny (1974)”. In this connection, (Haugen, 1966), Neustupny (1974) and J. Holmes (2007) believe in four steps which most language planners use in the process of language planning. These include the following:

Code selection (choosing a variety or code to be developed)

Codification, also known as corpus planning (establishing or standardising the patterns of pronunciation, spelling, grammar and the selection of vocabulary of a linguistic variety)

Elaboration (extending the lexical capability of language to accommodate the communicative needs)

Cultivation or **Acceptance** (securing acceptance of code, i.e. the development of people’s attitudes to the new variety)

In Iran, the process of new word formation is standardized by the Academy of Persian Language and Literature, which is a government based institute. The members of this institute are chosen from the literary and Linguistic circles. Although it should be noted that the process of word formation is a social phenomenon and there are new words that are created and used by people or by the media naturally as it happens in any other language, this Academy is the official course of word formation in Iran. Some of the words created by this institute are widely accepted and used by Iranians and most

others are rejected because of various reasons, some of which will be discussed and revealed in this study.

Researchers have long questioned themselves why certain words suggested and promoted by the Academy of Persian Language and Literature (henceforth, the APLL) are mostly accepted and used by Iranians while others are rejected (see, for example, Sadeghi, 2001) and, at times, ridiculed by the public.

The rejection of a majority of these words has created a negative attitude towards the APLL words (Zarnikhi, 2003). One of the major complaints of Iranian people (particularly university students) today is that they do not feel that these suggested words have been made through scientific (linguistic) principles (see Farshidvard, 2010). Another reason can be because these words are somehow “artificially” made and have not gone through the natural social processes of word formation, some of them sound unfamiliar and sometimes unpleasant. Research studies have been conducted to investigate the factors, which have caused this problem. A positive attitude has been recognised as a contributing factor that has a key role in the individuals’ acceptance of new words (Gardner, 1985; Spolsky, 1969; Ema Ushioda, 2001).

Studies have shown that attitudes are affected by a number of factors such as mass media, teaching and learning materials, etc. (see Berns, De Bot, and Hasebrink, 2007; and E. Ushioda, 2011).

1.2 Attitude towards the APLL and its activities

The Persian language, within the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European languages, is primarily spoken in Iran, Afghanistan and Tajikistan. As the dominant language of Iranian lands and adjacent regions for over a millennium, it was the

language of literary culture, as well the lingua franca in large parts of West, South, and Central Asia until the mid-nineteenth century from the tenth century onward. Modern Standard Persian (locally referred to as Fârsi or Tehrani Persian) is used for most polite spoken communication, which increasingly shows reflexes in the standard language (Windfuhr, 2009. pp. 416-417).

Despite the fact that official organizations in Iran such as the APLL targets especially for replacement by native vocabulary, and accordingly, suggests and promotes new lexical items, the extent to which Iranian people, especially university students, use it properly seems to be low (see Monshizade and Sharif, 2005; Sadeghi, 2001).

The aforementioned results raise question concerning the reasons behind this low acceptance of the APLL words. Such a situation may not be attributed to any single factor. In other words, a more systematic research is needed to identify the factors underlying this problem. Although in recent years many researchers have been concerned with sociolinguistic studies of Persian, particularly language planning and the role of the Academy of Language (see, for example, Beeman, 1986; A. A Sadeghi, 2001) they do not seem to have critically discussed the attitude towards the work of the Academy of Persian Language and Literature (henceforth, the APLL) and its activities. The reasons behind the acceptance and/ or rejection of the lexical items adopted by the APLL have not been seriously discussed or explored. This study investigates the attitude of the Iranian students in state universities towards the neologisms suggested by the APLL for foreign words as well as the factors concerning the acceptance and/ or rejection of these equivalents.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Language is a social phenomenon and people use language for effective communication and self-identification. However, language and society are continually subject to change.

The role of attitude towards language has been recognised and the relationship between attitudes towards language and other factors has also been explored (see section 1.2). When a foreign word is brought into a language, there is a need to determine whether or not it is accepted by native speakers. This is true with the Persian language. Many words are suggested and promoted by the APLL; however, as Zarnikhi (2003) puts it, word-formation [and word-selection] issues in Iran have often received negative reaction nationwide. Perhaps some failures in providing exact equivalents by the Iranian Academy (in the past and present time) have caused individuals, even among the educated community, not to treat word-creation seriously. Perhaps another reason might be the fact that the importance and necessity of word-formation and word-selection has not yet been felt.

The APLL has produced hundreds of equivalents since the early 1990s; however, only a few of them are said to have been accepted by people (Sadeghi, 2001: 28). For example, words such as *râyâne* ‘computer’ [(from *rây* ‘thinking, council’ + suff, *-âne*)] , *hamâyeš* ‘congress’ [(from *ham* ‘together’ + *âyeš* ‘coming’)], *šomârgân* ‘printing’ [(from *šomâre* ‘number’ + suff, *-gân*)], *tirage* (Fr.) have been accepted while other words like *vâže* ‘word’ [(from *vâž* ‘morph + suff, *-e*)] (M. J Shari'at, 1993) and *parvanjâ* ‘file’ [(from *parvande* ‘document’ + *-jâ* ‘place’)] and *parvandân* ‘index file’ [(from *parvande* ‘document’ + suff *-ân*)] (Morteza'ee, 2000) have not been as readily accepted. An interesting point to note here is that even some of the accepted equivalents above (*râyâne* and *hamâyeš*) have been challenged by some Iranian scholars

(Farshidvard, 2010), who claim that these words have not been coined or chosen on the basis of Persian morphological rules.

The low acceptance of the APLL words appears to suggest a need for a research on students' attitude towards the words suggested and promoted by the APLL. In the light of this urgent need, the present research examines the Iranian students' attitude towards the APLL in state universities. This study also investigates the factors that may have any correlation with such attitude.

1.4 Objectives and Research Questions of the Study

In the Iranian context, many new words have been introduced to the public over the years; however, most of these words seem not to be readily accepted (Sadeghi, 2001). The main goal of this study is to investigate the Iranian state university students' attitude towards the equivalents suggested by the APLL for foreign words in the Persian language. This main goal is divided into the following three objectives:

a) To provide insights into the attitude of Iranian state university students towards the APLL and its activities.

- 1)** How do the Iranian state university students assess their own familiarity with the activities of the APLL?
- 2)** How do the Iranian state university students assess their interest in word-formation and word-selection?
- 3)** What are the Iranian state university students' attitudes towards the APLL general words?
- 4)** How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of the APLL's activities?
- 5)** How do the Iranian state university students assess the success of the APLL in the fulfillment of word-formation and word-selection?
- 6)** How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of certain experts' involvement in the APLL's activities (e.g. linguists, men of letters, writers, poets and translators)?
- 7)** What are the Iranian state university students' attitudes towards conducting a public opinion poll at regular interval concerning the APLL general words?

- 8) How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of using living elements (roots, prefixes and suffixes) in the Persian language for the creation of new words?
- 9) How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of certain word features (*brevity, euphony, eusemy, productivity, semantic transparency*) for the acceptance of new words in the Persian language?
- 10) What are the Iranian state university students' preferences concerning certain word features (such as brevity, euphony, eusemy, productivity and semantic transparency) for accepting the APLL general words?
- 11) How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of utilising words used in the classic Persian literary books (like *Bustân, Gulistân, Shâhnâme*, etc.) to make new words?
- 12) How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of referring to works by contemporary famous and distinguished poets, writers and translators to make new words?
- 13) How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of using accents/ dialects other than Persian for creating new words?
- 14) How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of familiarity with foreign language(s) when accepting the APLL words?
- 15) How do the Iranian state university students assess the importance of using the experiences and knowledge of other countries for creating new words?
- 16) How do the Iranian state university students assess the necessity of allocating some part of the Persian literature course at universities to word-formation and word-selection?
- 17) How do the Iranian state university students assess the necessity of creating a database for word-formation and word-selection in the Internet?

(b) To investigate the Iranian state university students' attitude towards application of APLL suggestions in mass media and by certain individuals.

- 1) How do the Iranian state university students assess the extent to which certain individuals (*the public, reporters, newsreaders and their family/ professors*) use the APLL words?
- 2) How do Iranian state university students feel about different media (including cinema, newspapers, radio, satellite, SMS, TV, theatre and the Internet) in order of preference for promoting the APLL suggestions?

(c) To determine whether there is any correlation between the Iranian state university students' attitude toward the APLL and certain factors such as demographic traits and social status.

- 1) Is there any correlation between the attitude of the participants towards the APLL and gender?
- 2) Is there any correlation between the attitude of the participants towards the APLL and their age?

- 3) Is there any correlation between the attitude of the participants towards the APLL and their ability in using foreign language(s)?
- 4) Is there any correlation between the attitude of the participants towards the APLL and their place of residence?
- 5) Is there any correlation between the attitude of the participants towards the APLL and their level of education?
- 6) Is there any correlation between the attitude of the participants towards the APLL and their field of study?
- 7) Is there any correlation between the attitude of the participants towards certain word feature (brevity, euphony, euphony, productivity, and semantic transparency) and the acceptance of the words suggested by the APLL?
- 8) Is there any correlation between participants' activities (reading newspaper and magazines, studying literary works, and listening and watching literary programmes on the radio and the television) and their acceptance of the APLL words?
- 9) Is there any correlation between participants' knowledge of foreign language(s) and their accepting the APLL words?
- 10) Is there any correlation between participants' use of accents/ dialects other than Persian and their accepting the APLL words?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The national language in every country is considered as one of the main elements of national identity and, at the same time, one of the tools for mutual understanding and unity. In Iran, the Persian language has long been considered as a pillar of national identity. Guarding this valuable heritage and enhancing its vitality and strength requires that Iranians make it efficient and keep it updated. The APLL is responsible for this task.

The review of related literature shows that many researches have been carried out about the APLL and suggested neologisms (see, for example, Bijankhan and Eslami (see, for example, Eslami and Bijan Khan, 2003; Ne'matzade, 2000). However, the significance of the present study lies in the fact that it is the first attempt to investigate the APLL and its activities from linguistic and sociolinguistic points of view in connection with the Iranian university students, as an important speech community. In fact, this study contributes to the field of word-formation and word-selection in Persian.

Once the linguistic features for accepting and rejecting the APLL words by the Iranian university students is determined, it would facilitate the work of academicians and officials involved in coining new words and this, in turn, will contribute to the enrichment of the Persian language. Therefore, this study strives to shed some light on the issues stated above by seeking answers to the Research Questions in 1.4.

1.6 Conceptual Framework

There is general agreement that attitude represents a summary evaluation of a psychological object captured in such attribute dimensions as good-bad, harmful-beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant, and likable-dislikable (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993; Petty, Wegener and Fabrigar, 1997; Ajzen and Fishbein, 2000).

Attitude, as an elusive term, is surrounded by semantic disagreement and differences, since it cannot be directly observed but must be inferred from behaviour (Baker, 1992). The main thrust in the definitions of attitude is towards either the construct itself or the behaviour that reflects the existence of attitude. As Gardner (1985, p. 8) puts it, “what is acceptable as a basis for inference inevitably turns upon what is meant by attitude”.

Based on some studies (Fasold, 1984; Hoare, 2001; Pieras, 2000), there exist two major competing trends to approach attitude, namely the behaviourist approach and the mentalist approach. Under the behaviourist perspective, attitudes can simply be reflected in the responses to social situation given by people. According to Fasold (1984), this viewpoint makes research easier to undertake due to the fact that it requires no self-reports or indirect inferences and we must merely observe, tabulate, and analyse overt behaviour.

However, such an attitude is an oversimplification that fails to show the complexity of human nature. As Green (1954, p. 335) puts it, this complexity entails that attitude should be regarded as “an abstraction from a large number of related acts” mediating the stimuli and the responses, anticipating and predicting individual’s responses. Green’s perceive is within the mentalist approach.

In this connection, Agheyisi and Fishman (1970, p. 138) reminded earlier that such attitudes would not be quite “as interesting as they would be if they were defined mentalistically because they cannot be used to predict other behaviour”.

On the other hand, based on the mentalist perspective, attitude is not behaviour to be directly observed but a hypothetical construct which has to be inferred from, helping to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour (Baker, 1992).

It is a mental or neutral state of readiness; an intervening variable between a stimulus affecting a person and his/her response (see Agheyisi and Fishman, 1970; Williams, 1974). Based on this view, a person’s attitude prepares him/her to react to a given stimulus in one way rather than in another.

Attitude is said to be an internal state and as Allport (1935, p. 43) holds, it is “organised through experience, free from the controversy of heredity and environment, and influences what an individual sees, hears, thinks or does”. Meanwhile, the role of experience is emphasised by Asch (1952, cited in Ibtisam (1999, p. 10), who also adds the role of data to his definition:

“An attitude is an organisation of experiences and data with reference to an object. It is a structure of a hierarchical order, the parts of which function in accordance with their position in the whole”.

However, Allport and Asch's definitions fail to expand upon the components of mental or neutral readiness. In fact, there is a tendency towards the cognitive and conative aspects of attitudes in both of them. The affective aspect is not explicitly included. In contrast, as Katz (1960) states, attitude is of two elements: the affective (feeling), and the cognitive (beliefs). However, it should be pointed out that all attitudes thus include beliefs, but not all belief is attitudes (Katz, 1960). This view does not touch upon the cognitive aspect.

Since the early definitions, the concept of attitude has been redefined with a view to add more clarity to it, or to give a more holistic definition. Lambert and Lambert (1964) identify the essential components of attitude as thoughts and beliefs, feelings and tendency to react. In this respect, Lambert and Lambert (1964) add:

“Attitude is an organised and consistent manner of thinking, feeling and reacting with regard to people, groups, social issues or more generally, any event in one's environment” (P.50)

In subsequent definitions, the evaluative dimension of attitude has been realised. Based on the definition provided by McGuire (1969, cited in Ibtisam (1999, p. 20) attitude is considered as “a predisposition to classify sets of objects or events and to react to them with some degree of evaluative consistency”. For McGuire, attitudes locate objects of thought on dimensions of judgement. For example, language as an object is seen as favourable or unfavourable.

The ‘evaluative’ dimension included in McGuire's definition is of great importance as far as language is concerned. In effect, language attitudes may refer to individuals' impression of one language or another, or the evaluation of the speakers on a particular language (Pap, 1979 and Kristiansen, 1997, cited in (Ibtisam, 1999).

According to (Ajzen, 1982), the actual or symbolic presence of an object elicits a generally favourable or unfavourable evaluative reaction; that is, the attitude towards the object. This attitude, in turn, predisposes cognitive, affective, and reactive responses to the object.

To sum up, there is almost a general agreement among mentalists that attitude is of three main elements: (1) the 'cognitive' components referring to individual's beliefs about an object; (2) the 'affective' connoting the emotions, feeling of love and hatred for an object; and (3) the 'conative' indicating activity connected with the attitude (Secord and Backman, 1964). However, it should be noted that the relationship among these three components is neither straightforward nor simple; in other words, they may not always be in harmony (Baker, 1992, p. 12). For instance, we may be of positive attitude (on the cognitive and affective levels) towards a language but not on the readiness or action level.

It is worth pointing out that researches carried out by mentalist view depend on self-reported data (e.g. questionnaire and interview or think-aloud and the like) or infer attitudes indirectly from behaviour patterns (i.e. concluding that a particular person or group have favourable attitude towards certain issues).

The present study espouses a mentalist conceptualisation of attitude, employing questionnaire and interview as its instruments to collect data. These instruments addressed the three components of attitude, namely, cognitive, affective and conative. The experience of the participants, their knowledge of and evaluation of the APLL lexical items are considered.

This study is mainly concerned with language attitudes, more specifically attitudes towards the APLL suggested words, rather than attitudes in general. To put it precisely, it is strived to reflect the attitude of Iranian state university students towards

the APLL and its activities when creating neologisms. In addition to this, certain factors such as gender, age, education, familiarity with foreign languages/ accents/ dialects, mass media and the like have been taken into account to show if these variables affect the participants' attitudes to the APLL's activities. To do so, well-organized standard patterns (Likert scale Likert scales, Semantic differential scales and Numerical rating scales) have been adopted in the questionnaire helping the respondents feel at ease while answering the questions and to express their opinions freely (see Section 4.5.2 for more details). According to Fasold (1984), language attitudes are distinguished by the fact that they are precisely about language and language-related issues such as teachers, teaching styles, materials, learning setting and prospective careers. This qualification requires that social attitude (i.e. attitude towards language group and culture) be not within the purview.

1.7 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

As a general rule, Iranian universities fall into two categories: Medical and Non-medical. Medical universities are under the Ministry of Health while non-medical universities are supervised by the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology (MSRT). This study is mainly focused on non-medical universities where one can find wide varieties of majors compared to medical ones.

Bachelors, Masters and Ph.D students (for the academic year of 2009-2010) from different state universities (see Table 4.5) in the city of Tehran were selected as participants. Tehran was selected as the site for the study because the total number of the students in the state universities in Tehran has the highest number of students and about 19% of students who apply for university places are studying in Tehran (see Appendix F). As Tehran is a metropolitan city, the participants of this study represent the different cultures and social backgrounds. Moreover, due to the inaccessibility to the

population in other parts of the country, and also, due to cost and time factor, the sample size was taken from the city of Tehran only.

According to the APLL's first principle, words must be selected from modern standard Persian language used by *educated* people in speaking and writing (see Appendix I). Since university students play a significant role in the society, individuals from state universities have been adopted as the population. State universities have been selected as the research site due to the free education and high prestige they offer (see <http://www.sanjesh.org>).

1.8 Operational Definitions

Accent: A variety which differs relevantly from others only in phonological respects, not in grammar or lexis (Malmkjær, 1991), for example, a 'Scottish' accent, an 'educated' accent and Kurdish/ Tehran/ Isfahani accent. This term is often contrasted with **dialect** particularly used in reference to regional variation (Wardhaugh, 1986, p. 43), for instance, Kurdish and Gilaki are dialects spoken in the north and north-west of Iran.

Analogy: Sometimes new complex words are derived without an existing word-formation rule, but formed on the basis of a single (or very few) model words. For example, ear witness 'someone who has heard a crime being committed' was coined on the basis of eyewitness, cheeseburger on the basis of hamburger, and air-sick on the basis of sea-sick. The process by which these words came into being is called analogy (Plag, 2002, p. 48).

Brevity: It is the quality of expressing something in very few words [morphemes] (Longman, 2009). For example, the Persian phrase *payâm-e kutâh* literally meaning 'short message' (from *payâm* 'message' + genitive morpheme -e + *kutâh*

‘short’) can be replaced by *payâmak* ‘SMS’ (from *payâm* ‘message’ + diminutive suff, *-ak* ‘small, short’).

Endophoric word-formation: It is a process in which lexical items are made by individuals as an immediate necessity. In essence, endophoric word-formation can undoubtedly enrich a language like Persian and prepare it for future needs. Additionally, since endophoric word-formation is not dealt with exclusively by experts, the potential products can be used by more people in the speech community (Haghshenas, 2000). Persian examples include *sâze* ‘structure’ (from *sâz* ‘build’ + suff, *-e*), *tak-vâž* ‘morpheme’ (from *tak* ‘one’ + *vâž* ‘morph’), *pirâpezeški* ‘paramedical’ (from *pirâ* ‘similar’ + *pezeški* ‘medicine’) and *gartebardâri* ‘calque’ (from *garte* ‘element, part’ + *bard* ‘take’ + suff, *-âri*) (Haghshenas, 2000, p. 492).

Euphony: It is a pleasing or harmonious sequence of sounds (David Crystal, 1992, p. 128). Examples in Persian include *delbar* ‘sweetheart’ (from *del* ‘heart’ + *bar* ‘taker’), *partâb* ‘throwing’ (from *part* ‘throw’ + suff, *-âb*) and *honar* ‘art’ (Farshidvard, 2010, p. 275).

Eusemy: It is a newly-coined term rhyming with ‘euphony’ which in this research means ‘beautiful meaning’ (Barzegar and Devikamani, 2010). In fact, it is a coined word made through blending where *eu-* meaning ‘good, nice’ as in eulogy + *semy* which means ‘meaning’ as in polysemy.

Exaphoric word-formation: It is a process in which borrowed words are replaced with newly made equivalents. For example, the Persian neologisms *dur-negâr* ‘fax’ (from *dur* ‘far’ + *negâr* ‘write, writer’), *fanâvari* ‘technology’ (from *fan* ‘technique’ + *-âvar* ‘bring’ + suff, *-i*) and *razmâyeš* ‘manoeuvre’ (from *razmidan* ‘fight’ + *âzmâyeš* ‘trying’) are good examples in this respect; accordingly, the main reason

behind the exophoric word-formation is to purify the Persian language from foreign words (Haghshenas, 2000, pp. 492-93).

Extension: Extension is the referent or denotation of a word, as apposed to its **intension**, which includes only the defining properties of term (Crystal, 2003, p. 173). For example, the intention of “aeroplane” comprises heavier-than- air aircraft, power driven and supporting surfaces, which remain fixed under a given condition of flight whereas the extension of a “heavier-than-air aircraft” include aeroplane, glider, kite, rotorcraft and ornithopter.

Individual word-selection: It is an approach in which certain individuals try to present new words and expressions whereas in the **collective word-selection**, the issue is pursued by a group of experts mainly in the Academy of Language (Ne'matzade, 2000).

Language Planning: As a government authorised effort, it refers to official efforts to regulate and control the use of language (Barry, 2002, p. 213).

Markedness: It is an analytic principle in linguistics whereby pairs of linguistic features, seen as oppositions, are given different values of positive (**marked**) and neutral or negative (**unmarked**). In its most general sense, this distinction refers to the presence versus the absence of a particular linguistic feature(Crystal, 2003, p. 282). Examples include *?asb* ‘horse’ and *mâdiyân* ‘mare’ (from *made* ‘female’ + suff, *-yân*) in Persian (Afrashi, 2000, p. 826), and *bitch* and *dog* in English for markedness and unmarkedness, respectively (Crystal, 1992, p. 245).

Modernization: It is one of the activities pursued in language planning aiming to expand lexicon to meet communication needs (Haugen, 1966).

Mononymy: It is a condition in which one term only is assigned to a concept (Felber, 1985, p. 216) as opposed to polysemy in which identical terms are assigned to different concepts (Felber, 1985, p. 214). The term *flight*, for example, can mean: (i) the power of flying; (ii) an air journey; (iii) a series of steps; (iv) a digression; (iv) unit of the air force (Finch, 2000, p. 173).

Monosemy: It is a term which represents only one concept, as opposed to **polysemy** which refers to a lexical item with a range of different meanings (Crystal, 2003: 359). For example, the English word *plain* has three meanings: (a) clear, (b) unadorned and (c) obvious.

Partitive definition: It is a definition in which a concept is defined as a part of the particular whole or comprehensive concept. Partitive definitions are started with such phrases as ‘*a part of*’, ‘*a portion of*’, ‘*a period of*’, etc. and this is followed by a comprehensive concept and restricting characteristics (Felber, 1985, p. 152).

Productivity: A useful concept for establishing the potentiality of particular linguistic patterns. Some, for example the prefix ‘un’, are **semi-productive**, because they are sometimes, but not always, attached to words to form their opposites, e.g. lovely/ unlovely, but not good/ ungood (Finch, 2000, p. 27).

Semantic transparency: It is a condition, as opposed to **opacity**, in which the meaning of a lexical unit is easily understood on the base of the meanings of the parts of they are composed (Malmkjær, 1991). The English words ‘incorrect’ (meaning ‘not correct’) and ‘infamous’ (meaning notorious not ‘not + famous’) are instances of transparent and opaque words, respectively.

Standard language: In sociolinguistics, it is the term generally used to refer to that variety of a language that is considered the norm. It is the variety regarded as the

ideal for educational purposes, and usually used as a yardstick by which to measure other varieties and implement standard-based assessment (Hornberger and McKay, 2010, p. 109)

Superordinate: It is a term sometimes used in linguistics to refer to higher-order units, such as the more inclusive lexical item in hyponymy; for example, flower is the superordinate label for tulip, daffodil, etc. (Crystal, 2008, p. 465).

Terminology: It is the study of terms which is, in turn, “any conventional symbol representing a concept defined in a subject field” (Felber, 1985, p. 1)

Word-selection: It is a type of thinking aiming to find an equivalent for a foreign word through providing several equivalents among which a choice has to be made (Ne'matzade, 2000, p. 17). Although word-selection is mostly considered as a synonym for **word-formation**, the fact is that word-formation is one of the various approaches to word-selection (Tayyib, 2003, p. 457). See Appendix M for more operational definitions.

1.9 Limitations of the Research

There are certain limitations to this study which are briefly pinpointed below:

- As a part of the processes of the research, the researcher aimed at determining the frequency of the APLL General words through WordSmith software. However, this software was neither available in the main library nor in the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics nor in the Iranian universities and colleges. Therefore, the Magiran website (<http://www.magiran.com>) was used as an alternative as it is the most important database for newspapers and magazines to measure word frequency in Iran.
- Not many respondents were willing to give comments on the APLL and its activities, success or failure in word-formation and word-selection. This respondents' reluctance

to give comments might be due to “the great insecurity or uncertainty of social life” (Beeman, 1986, p. 24) among Iranians; and accordingly they take conservative positions on different issues.

- Lack of database or corpus for the Persian language was a real problem.
- It was a time-consuming process to complete the questionnaire on the part of the students.
- Since the state universities were spread out over the country, it was an arduous task to have access to all samples.
- The socio-political situation was a major issue in this respect.

1.10 Outline and Organization of the Study

This study consists of seven chapters. Chapter One is an overview of the study. It includes an introduction to the problem, a statement of the problem, objectives and research questions, the significance of the study, the conceptual framework, scope and delimitation of the study, operational definitions, limitations of the research, and the organisation of the study.

In Chapter Two, the Persian language and the APLL are described and word-formation processes such as coinage, compounding, blending, etc. are discussed.

Chapter Three is concerned with literature review of attitudes towards the APLL and its activities. In addition, this chapter includes a review of literature related to different factors affecting attitudes towards the APLL and its activities such as age, gender, education, place of residence, etc. Word-formation, word-selection and language planning in Iran and other countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore are also discussed.

Chapter Four deals with methodology of the study in which the population and sample of the study are described. In this chapter, in addition to a brief account of the descriptive method, instruments, and procedures used in the implementation of the study and data analysis are provided.

While Chapter Five presents and analyses the data obtained from the questionnaire, Chapter Six presents the findings from the interview. The last chapter, that is Chapter Seven, concludes a summary, comparison, conclusions, and recommendations for future study.

1.11 Summary

This chapter is an introductory one, which includes a theoretical background to the problem, a statement of the problem and purpose and research questions. The significance of the study, the conceptual framework, and the organisation of the study are also presented. The next chapter discusses the Persian language and the APLL together with some points on word-formation processes.

CHAPTER TWO

THE PERSIAN LANGUAGE

2.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is Modern Standard Persian. In fact, this chapter aims to familiarize readers with the Persian language from the viewpoint of morphology (word-formation processes), phonetics and phonology so that they could have a better understanding of the Persian language. In the next section, a short history of the Persian language is presented.

2.2 Persian language: a short history

Persian, a member of the Indo-Iranian language family, is the official language of Iran. According to Windfuhr (2009, p. 416), from the tenth century onward Persian, as the dominant language of Iranian lands and neighboring regions for over a millennium, “was the language of literary culture, as well the lingua franca in large parts of West, South, and Central Asia until the mid-nineteenth century”.

The Persian language has developed through three historical stages: (1) Old Persian (2) Middle Persian and (3) Modern Persian. Old Persian, spoken by the nation of Pars until approximately the 3rd century BCE, was a highly inflected language. Old Persian has survived in numerous cuneiform inscriptions from the time of the Achaemenid kings, most notable of which is the great monument of Darius I at Bisotun, Iran (Windfuhr, 2009, pp. 46-47).

Middle Persian (or Pahlavi), spoken from the 3rd century B.C. to the 9th century B.C., was the name of the official Middle Persian language of the Sasanian Empire. Characterized by considerable grammatical simplification, as in the reduced

inflection of the noun and verb, Middle Persian is represented by numerous epigraphic texts of Sassanid kings, written in Aramaic script. There is also a varied literature in Middle Persian embracing both the Zoroastrian and the Manichaean religious traditions (Windfuhr, 2009, pp. 196-197)

Modern Persian, which was evolved directly from Middle Persian, shows phonetic and grammatical simplification. Other than markers to indicate that nouns and pronouns are direct objects, Modern Persian has no system of case inflections. Possession is shown by addition of a special suffix called the *ezâfe* to the possessed noun (see Mace, 2003, pp. 44-46). It is today the language of the government and public instruction, and the numbers of speakers is about 35.7 million [approximately 50% of Iran's population] (Windfuhr, 2009, p. 418).

The Persian writing system uses the Arabic alphabet, which is a consonantal system. Persian has four more consonants than Arabic - č, g, p, and ž - making a total of thirty-two characters (letters). According to Yarmohammadi (2005, p. 9), “after the Islamic conquest of Iran, the Persians [Iranians] began to use the Arabic alphabet, adding to it four letters denoting consonants which did not exist in Arabic”. Persian long vowels include /â, i, u/ and the three short vowels /a, e, o/ may be, but are usually not, represented by diacritics (Windfuhr, 2009, p. 421).

It is worth noting that the majority of the letters of the alphabet have four forms in writing, depending on whether they are at the beginning of a letter combination, in the middle, or at the end of it, or stand separately. The letter symbols stand for so called long vowels and consonants; special signs written above or below the line are used to denote short vowels (Lambton, 2003, p. xiii; Yarmohammadi, 2005, p. 9).

2.3 Persian scripts: Deficiencies

It seems that the symmetrical relation between writing and sounds is a relative matter in different languages. In other words, the alphabets of some languages compared with those of others represent sounds better. Persian, written right-to-left in the Arabic script with several modifications, is suffering from certain defects some of which are discussed below:

Typically, short vowels are not written, though they may be, but are usually not, indicated with diacritics (see Windfuhr, 2009, p. 421). The short vowels /a, e, o/ are not shown in writing; as a result, many words are written in the same way which, in turn, results in creating homographs. As shown in Table 2.1, the following examples represent two or more words.

Table 2.1 Some instances of homographs in Persian

Word	Pronunciation	Meanings	Word	Pronunciations	Meanings
گل	/gol/	flower/goal	درد	/dard/	pain, ache
	/gel/	clay, mud		/dord/	dregs
گرد	/gerd/	round	در	/dar/	door/in/within/at
	/gard/	dust/powder		/dor/	pearl
خرد	/xord/	little/ small/ young	پر	/par/	feather
	/xerad/	wisdom		/por/	full

(Meshkatod Dini, 2000, pp. 177-178)

There is more than one symbol for some sounds. For example, the sound /s/ can be represented in three different forms: س, ص and ث as in سرد /sard/ 'cold', صورت

/surat/ ‘face’ and ثابت /sâbet/ ‘fixed’ (Yarmohammadi, 2005, p. 9). It is worth pointing out here that ص and ض are less common than س and ز because ص and ض mostly occur in words taken from Arabic (Mace, 2003, p. 12).

On the other hand, certain letters (see Table 2.2) are used to represent more than one sound. Examples include تو /to/ ‘you’; قو /qu/ ‘swan’; and و /va/ ‘and’. از /?az/ ‘from’; راز /râz/ ‘secret’; احسان /?ehsân/ ‘goodness’; and اتاق /?otâq/ ‘room’. یار /yâr/ ‘friend’; نیکی /niki/ ‘goodness’; and موسی /musâ/ ‘Moses’.

Table 2.2 Some instances of letters with more than one sound

Letter	Sounds			
و	o	U	v	
ا	a	Â	e	O
ی	y	I	â	

(Meshkatod Dini, 2000, p. 178)

In some words, there appear certain silent letter(s) representing no sound at all. For example: /و / in such words as خواهر /xâhar/ ‘sister’; خواهش /xâheš/ ‘request’ [(from *xâh* ‘request, want’ + suff, -eš)]; and خویش /xiš/ ‘self’ (Meshkatod Dini, 2000, p. 178).

Considering the cases above concerning the Persian script, it can be concluded that the Persian writing system fails to precisely represent all the sounds producing speech due to many defects; therefore, the need for a precise alphabet is felt to show each sound much better in speech symmetrically and correspondently.

2.4 Phonological considerations

Phonemes are abstract units of language. The number of phonemes in different languages is different, ranging from twenty to forty (Roach, 2010; Vahidian Kamyar

and Emrani, 2000). As shown in Tables 2.3 and 2.4 below, Modern Tehran Persian enjoys 23 consonants, 6 vowels and 6 diphthongs (Samareh, 2009, pp. 27-28, 96-97).

Table 2.3 Consonants sounds

Voiced consonants	ب	د	ج	گ	و	ز	ژ	م	ن	ل	ر	ی	ق
	b	d	j	g	v	z	ž	m	n	l	r	y	q
Voiceless consonants	پ	ت	چ	ک	ف	س	ش	خ	ء	ه/ح			
	p	t	č	k	f	s	š	x	ʔ	h			

(Samareh, 2009, p. 27)

Table 2.4 Vowels and Diphthongs

Long vowels			Short vowels			Diphthongs					
i	u	â	a	E	o	ây/i	uy/i	oy/i	ay/i	ey/i	ow/u

(Samareh, 2009, pp. 28, 96-97)

It needs to be noted that phonetically Persian is believed to enjoy six diphthongs; however, phonologically, it should be treated differently (Afrashi, 2010, p. 41). For instance, the Persian word *kei* ‘when’, has three phonemes, not two, since from the viewpoint of phonotactics no word in Persian ends in two vowels. In other words, as Windfuhr (2009, p. 593) states, vowel sequences do not occur in a syllable (see Samareh, 2009, p. 109; Windfuhr, 2009, p. 593).

2.4.1 Persian Phonotactics

A syllable is a phonological unit. As stated by (Roach, 2010, p. 11), syllables are made up of a sequence of vowels and consonants. A syllable is a unit of pronunciation typically larger than a single sound and smaller than a word (Crystal, 2008, p. 467).

The syllable structure of Persian is represented as CV(C)(C). In other words, syllables in Persian are made up of one vowel and one to three consonants, as shown in Table 2.5 below. That is, “Persian does not permit any initial consonants clustering, and it allows only clusters of two consonants in syllable in final position” (Keshavarz, 2000, p. 46).

2.5 Persian Syllable structure

Syllable structure	Example
CV	با /bâ/ meaning ‘with’
CVC	تار /târ / ‘a Persian musical instrument’
CVCC	گفت /goft/ meaning ‘said’

(Samareh, 2009, p. 109)

Concerning the number of syllables in Persian words, Meshkatod Dini (2000) points out that word in Persian may be composed of one or more syllables as shown Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Some instances of words with 1-5 syllables

Syllable	Examples		
Monosyllabic	# bâd # ‘wind’	# dur # ‘far’	# rang # ‘colour’
Bisyllabic	# bâ-rân # ‘rain’	# ne-šast # ‘meeting’	# bo-zorg # ‘big’
Trisyllabic	# do-rost-kâr # ‘honest’	# tâ-bes-tân # ‘summer’	# piš-bi-ni # ‘prediction’
Tetrasyllabic	# jâv-dâ-ne-gi # ‘eternity’	# ku-hes-tâ-ni # ‘mountainous’	# bi-gâ-ne-gi # ‘alienation’
Pantasyllabic	# mo-vaf-fa-qiy-yat # ‘success’	#sar-se-por-de-gi # ‘devotion’	# nâ-ha-mâ-han-gi # ‘disharmony’

(Meshkatod Dini, 2000, p. 187)

However, words with more than five syllables can be used in Persian when changed to plural. For instance: # nâ-ha-mâ-han-gi-ha # ‘disharmonies’ (Meshkatod Dini, 2000, p. 188).

2.4.2 Some prevailing phonetic processes in Persian

The occurrence of sounds in different phonetic settings affects the articulatory quality of sounds and, as a result, causes certain changes. Such phonetic changes can be shown under certain rules. Some of these changes in Persian include consonant assimilation, dissimilation, vowel harmony, metathesis, deletion, addition and mutation which are discussed briefly in the following:

2.4.2.1 Assimilation and Dissimilation

Assimilation, as an everyday occurrence in every human language, is “the process of one sound becoming more like another in some respect” (Ogden, 2009). In other words, it is “the influence exercised by one sound upon the articulation of another, so that the sounds become more alike, or identical: the notion contrasts with dissimilation, where the sounds become less alike” (Crystal, 2008).

Persian, like other languages, has an active process of assimilation, which can be seen in phrases such as *panbe* ‘cotton’ and *zanbil* ‘sack’ [pambe and zambil, respectively].

It should be pointed out that when a sound changes due to the influence of some feature of the following sound, it is said to be regressive assimilation because the feature moves backwards through the word (Nathan, 2008, p. 77). Persian examples include *sad* ‘hundred’ + *tâ* ‘fold’ and *bad* ‘bad’ + *-tar* ‘comparative marker’ which become [sattâ ‘one hundred’ and battar ‘worse’], respectively (see Afrashi, 2010, p. 55; Haghshenas, 1992).

On the other hand, when a sound changes because of the influence of some feature of the previous sound, it is considered as progressive assimilation since the feature moves forward through the word. (Nathan, 2008). Examples are *peste* ‘pistachio’ and *daste* ‘handle’ (from *dast* ‘hand’ + suff, *-e*) which become [pesse and dasse], respectively (see Mahootian, 1997, p. 309; Modarresi Ghavami, 2011, p. 99).

As mentioned above, dissimilation refers to the influence exercised by one sound upon the articulation of another in that the sounds become less alike, or different (Crystal, 2008, p. 151). Persian examples include *tajdid* ‘renew’; *hižda* ‘eighteen’; and *moškel* ‘problem’ which become [taždid, hižda and mošgel], respectively (Afrashi, 2010, p. 57; Mahootian, 1997, p. 326).

2.4.2.2 Vowel harmony

Vowel harmony occurs when the vowels in a stretch of speech share some phonetic property. In fact, in two neighbouring syllables, if the vowel features in one syllable become more like those of the other, vowel harmony is said to be at work.

The imperative mood in Persian is mostly formed by adding *be-/ bo-* ‘emphatic suffix’ to the present stem of a verb; however, no personal suffix is used in the singular. For example: *be-*‘emphatic suffix’ + *dow* ‘run’; [bodow] and *be-* ‘emphatic suffix’ + *nevis* ‘write’ [benivis] (Afrashi, 2010, p. 56). This process may be true with nouns as well, e.g. the Persian word *sorud* ‘anthem’ becomes [surud] (see Modarressi Ghavami, 2011, p. 102).

2.4.2.3 Metathesis

Metathesis is a phonological process which refers to transposition of adjacent segments. Metathesis of phonemes and syllables, as Windfuhr (2009) puts it, is distinctive for Iranian languages. It refers to “an alteration in the normal sequence of

elements in a sentence – usually of sounds, but sometimes of syllables, words, or other units” (Crystal, 2008, p. 303). Many instances of metathesis can be found in Modern Persian such as [kerbit] for *kebrit* ‘matches’, [golf] for *gofl* ‘lock’, and [felâks] for *felask* ‘flask’ (Afrashi, 2010, p. 58). However, apart from its phonological reality, metathesis can be of sociolinguistic significance in Persian in that it could be considered a good indicator of educational and social class background as it occurs only in the speech of the uneducated and members of the lower classes of the society (Keshavarz, 2000, p. 150).

2.4.2.4 Deletion

Sounds are subject to deletion, especially in fluent speech. Deletion is, for the most part, a variable rule. According to Mahootian (1997), in formal contexts individuals are usually careful to pronounce all the sounds of words as they are spelled; however, this is not the case with informal conversational Persian in that deletion is not only quite common but also is probably the rule.

Deletion seems to be fairly rare at the beginning of a word; however, it is common in word-medial and word-final positions. There are two most common processes of deletion: word-final deletion often referred to as apocope and word-medial deletion or syncope (Nathan, 2008, pp. 80-81; Malmkjær, 2010, p. 233). Persian instances of syncope include [benvis] for *benevis* ‘Write (it)!', [dasband] for *dastband* ‘bracelet’ and [čidam] for *čindam* ‘I picked (it) up.’ (see Meshkatod Dini, 2000, p. 138). Examples of Apocope are [sob] for *sobh* ‘morning’ and [sab] for *sabr* ‘patience’ (see Beeman, 1986, p. 99).

2.4.2.5 Addition/Insertion

Addition in language results in inserting extra consonants or vowels to the syntagmatic chain of phonetic units. The addition of a segment into a particular environment of the word may involve either consonants or vowels (Malmkjær, 2010, p. 232). According to Afrashi (2010, p. 59), the consonant addition in Persian is obligatory, but the vowel addition is optional. Some examples include *rustâ* ‘village’ + suff, *-i* → [rustâyi] ‘villager’ and *parande* ‘bird’ + suff, *-ân* → [parandegân] ‘birds’. It should be pointed out that vowel addition in Persian occurs when we want to avoid heavy phonetic structures. Examples include *mehrbân* ‘kind’ (from *mehr* ‘kindness’ + suff, *-ban* → [mehrabân] and *sâzgâr* ‘compatible’ agreeable’ (from *sâz* ‘build, make’ + suff, *-gâr*) → [sâzegâr] (see Meshkatod Dini, 2000, p. 144).

According to (Malmkjær, 2010, p. 232), epenthesis is also at work when adapting foreign loan words to native phonological patterns. In other words, the addition process is at times obligatory only when a new lexical item opposes Persian phonotactic rules. For instance, the French word *lustre* ‘chandelier’, which enjoys CVCCC form, is acceptable in French since it accords with the French phonology, yet it must be modified into CVC-CVC form in order to accord with Persian phonology, and to be pronounced with ease (Afrashi, 2010, p. 60).

2.4.2.6 Mutation

Mutation is a term that refers to the change in a sound’s quality due to the influence of sounds in adjacent morphemes or words (Crystal, 2008, p. 318). In fact, when we fail to explain or justify the reason for a phonetic change synchronically, such a phonetic change is claimed to be mutation; for example, *bešuy* ‘Wash (it)!’ (from

bešur ‘wash’ + suff, -y) and *joz?* ‘a part of ’ become [bešur] and [jozv], respectively (Haghshenas, 1992, p. 160).

However, sound changes ([y] to [r], [y] to [b] and [ʔ] to [v]) are not easy to be justified synchronically, but Afrashi (2010, p. 61) states that there might be some historical or dialectal explanations for these changes.

Having discussed the phonological aspects of Persian, it is important to also describe the morphological aspects. Below are discussed major points on words and morphological processes in relation to the Persian language

2.5 Morphological aspects

Morphology is the study of word-formation. In fact, morphology is said to be the study of the internal structure of words (see Katamba and Stonham, 2006). More technically, morphology is the study of morpheme which is, in turn, the smallest meaningful unit of language. As Haspelmath (2002, p. 3) explains, “Morphological analysis typically consists of the identification of parts or constituents of words.”

2.5.1 Word structure in Persian

It is not an easy task to define a word since there are still difficulties in arriving at a consistent definition. Based on Crystal’s (1992, p. 419) definition, word is “the smallest unit of grammar which can stand alone as a complete utterance... At a more abstract level, a word is a grammatical unit consisting of morphemes (minimally, one free morpheme) and functioning to form phrases, clauses and sentences”.

Much Persian vocabulary consists of base words expanded with a consequent change of meaning and/ or grammatical function by adding prefixes, suffixes or middle parts, or by adding other words to form compounds, or by combination of these two devices (Mace, 2003, p. 189).

Many words in language are simple. That is, they cannot be segmented into smaller units that are themselves meaningful. In the Persian language, as defined by Tajvidi (2009), “a simple word consists of only one morpheme”. Instances of such simple words are *miz* ‘table’, *gusfand* ‘sheep’ and *abrišam* ‘wool’ (p. 8). Yet many words are morphologically compound, complex and complex-complex, namely, they are composed of more than one morpheme and, therefore, can be broken into smaller meaningful units. Examples include *golxâne* ‘greenhouse’ (from *gol* ‘flower’ + *xâne* ‘house’); *dânešmand* (from *dâneš* ‘knowledge’ + suff, *-mand* ‘having’); and *nâxodâgâh* ‘unconscious’ (from *nâ-* ‘not’ + *xod* ‘self’ + *âgâh* ‘alert’), respectively (see Tajvidi, 2009, p. 9).

2.5.2 Word-formation processes in Persian

Word-formation as a fundamental concept of language change has always been of crux importance to many scholars. Through morphological rules, a plethora of new words would be added to different languages. Word-formation can, in a sense, be categorized into two groups: Major (or main) word-formation process and Minor word-formation process (see Baskaran, 2005, p. 69; Afrashi, 2010, p. 85).

2.5.2.1 Major word-formation processes

Generally, the main types of morphological processes, as maintained by Baskaran (2005, p. 69) include Affixation (Derivation), Compounding, Reduplication, Clipping, and Acronymy. However, the structural analysis of words in Persian shows words can be made through two main processes: compounding and derivation (see Afrashi, 2010, p. 85; Tabataba'ee, 2003, p. 6). In spite of that, Shaghghi (2007, p. 112) claims that there are three major processes (i.e. Derivation, Compounding and Reduplication) that are considered active and productive when creating new Persian words. Each of these processes may lead to producing words either separately or

simultaneously. Thus, many Persian words are made through derivation, compounding and compounding-derivation (Shaghaghi, 2007, pp. 85-98). In the following, each of these processes will be discussed in detail:

Basically, the result of derivation is in most cases new words. In other words, new lexemes (words) formed with prefixes and suffixes are often referred to as derived words, and the process by which they are formed as derivation (Lieber, 2009, p. 33). In fact, derivation involves the creation of one word from another, such as *suratgar* ‘painter’ (from *surat* ‘face’ + suff, *-gar* ‘doer’), *dâneškade* from (*dâneš* ‘science’ + suff, *-kade* ‘place’) and *pareš* ‘jumping’ (from *par* ‘Jump!’ + suff, *-es*) (Tabatab'ee, 2003, p. 6).

Compounding is a special type of derivation, since it involves the creation of one lexeme from two or more other lexemes (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011, p. 47). In effect, in compounding we join two separate words to make a new word. Compounding is believed to be an active process to make new words in all languages; consequently, it is considered as a language universal (Afrashi, 2010, p. 86). Some compound words in Persian include *nikdeli* ‘good-hearted’ (from *nik* ‘good’ + *del* ‘heart’ + suff, *-i*) and *kamkâri* ‘shirking’ (from *kam* ‘little’ + *kâr* ‘work’ + suff, *-i*) (Kalbassi, 1992, p. 36).

Compounding-derivation: Once a word is made through the two processes of compounding and derivation, it is referred to as a compound-derivative word. Some Persian examples include *nâxodâgâh* ‘unconscious’ (from *nâ-* ‘not’ + *xod* ‘self’ + *âgâh* ‘alert’]; *qeyreqâbeleqâbul* ‘unacceptable’ (from *qeyr-* ‘not’ + *qabel* ‘able’ + *qabul* ‘accept’] and *kafšduzi* ‘shoemaking’ (from *kafš* ‘shoe’ + *duz* ‘make’ + suff, *-i*) (Shaghaghi, 2007, p. 98).

2.5.2.2 Minor word-formation processes

Apart from major processes, there are a number of minor and less common ways in which new words may be formed. Minor morphological processes in Persian include Abbreviation, Acronymy, Back-formation, Blending, Borrowing, Clipping, Coinage, Conversion, Metaphoric expansion and Reduplication (Shaghaghi, 2007, pp. 99-112).

Abbreviation is the reduced version of a word, phrase, or sentence used for brevity. Through abbreviation, one can replace long names of organizations, institutes, etc. with short forms using relevant characters or letters. For example, خ /xe/ for خیابان /xiyâbân/ 'street'; ج /jim/ for جلد /jeld/ 'volume'; ر ک /re ke/ for رجوع کنید /roju' konid/ 'see/consult' (Shaghaghi, 2007, p. 108).

Acronym is a process of combining initial letters of a set of words. Acronym occurs "When the first letters of words that make up a name or a phrase are used to create a new word. It should be noted that in acronyms, the new word is pronounced as a word (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011, p. 120; Lieber, 2009, p. 53).

Acronyms which are formed by taking and combining the initial letters of words are either names of persons, organizations or objects. This process is more common in European languages, particularly English, compared to Persian (Kafi, 1992, cited in Tabatab'ee, 2003, p. 17). Some of the acronyms in English include *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), *AIDS* (Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome) and *FBI* (Federal Bureau of Investigation) (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011, p. 121); and Persian examples are: *IRNA* (Islamic Republic News Agency), and *ILNA* (Islamic Labor News Agency) (Shaghaghi, 2007, p. 109).

Borrowing is the process of taking a word or phrase from one language and applying it in another language. Presumably, many languages, including Persian, have

taken words from French and English due to their scientific, economic and political advancement. According Harley (2006, p. 107), “Borrowing occurs when a community that speaks one language comes into contact with a community that speaks another language, and adopts a word from that community, as English borrowed spaghetti from Italian, or karate from Japanese.” Some instances of Persian borrowed words include *serâhat* ‘explicitness’ from Arabic; *futbâl* ‘football’ from English; *luster* ‘chandelier’ from French; and *narges* ‘daffodil’ from Greek (Shaghghi, 2007, pp. 18-129).

Another type of borrowing in which each morpheme or word is translated into the equivalent morpheme or word in another language is called loan translation or calque; e.g. Latin word *omnipotens* (*omni* + *potens*) becomes almighty (*all* + *mighty*) in English (Razmjoo, 2004, p. 14), and *taxte-siyâh* ‘blackboard’ (from *taxte* ‘wood’ + *siyâh* ‘black’) and *duš gereftan* ‘to take a shower’ (from *duš* ‘shower’ + *gereft* ‘take’ + infinitive suff, *-an*) have been translated from English and French to Persian, respectively (Afrashi.2010, p. 88).

Blending (also called portmanteau words) is a process in which a word is made of the shortened forms of two words. In other words, as defined by Malmkjær (2010, p. 372), “Blends are another interesting type of formation, where normally initial and terminal segments of two words are joined together to create a new word, for example, *brunch* (*breakfast* + *lunch*)”. Persian examples include *nâb* ‘pure’ (from *na-* ‘not’ + *âb* ‘water’), *nefrin* ‘curse’ (from *na-* ‘not’ + *âfarin* ‘bravo’) and *razmâyeš* ‘manoeuvre’ (from *razmidan* ‘fight’+ *âzmâyeš* ‘trying’) (see Jalilnejad, 2002, p. 27). While not one of the major ways of forming new words, blending is used in scientific terms, advertisement, nomenclature, playful language, and fashionable neologisms (Lieber, 2009, p. 52).

Reduplication is a morphological operation where all or part of the base is repeated. In reduplication, a continuous substring from either the beginning or the end of a word is copied (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011, p. 81). This morphological process may be used for inflection or derivation. For example, Malay uses reduplication for indefinite plurality (*anak* ‘child’ versus *anakanak* ‘children’) and Turkish uses it for intensity in the meaning of some words (*dolu* ‘full’ versus *dopdolu* ‘quite full’ (see Katamba and Stonham, 2006, p. 181). Some Persian examples include *râh-râh* ‘striped’ (from *râh* ‘path’); *tekke-tekke* ‘in pieces’ (from *tekke* ‘piece’); and *ârâm-ârâm* ‘gradually’ (from *ârâm* ‘slow’) (Shaghaghi, 2007, p. 99).

Coinage is the invention of absolutely parentless new words in language. In fact, coinage, which is also called word manufacture, is the creation of a new word not by any derivational process (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011, p. 261). In fact, in coinage we fabricate new words without using any word from other languages or our own language. Instances of coined words include *Kodak*, *Xerox* and *Kleenex* in English and *xafan* ‘perfect’; *yul* ‘crazy’; and *nočofscu* ‘a kind of food’ in Persian are all coined words (Shaghaghi, 2007, p. 103).

Conversion, also known as ‘zero-affixation’ or ‘functional shift or change’, refers to ‘the derivational process whereby an item comes to belong to a new word-class without the addition of an affix; e.g. verbs/ nouns: *smell/ taste/ hit/ walk*; adjectives/ verbs: *dirty/ empty/ lower*’ (Crystal, 2008, p. 114). The major concern of this type of word formation is to change the function of words in language. For instance, the Persian words *xub* ‘good’ [and *bad* ‘bad’] which basically function as an adjective can be used as an adverb and a noun as well (Afrashi, 2010, p. 90; Shaghaghi, 2007, p. 104).

Clipping or functional shift refers to a part of a word that serves for the whole. In this process, new lexical items are not created by derivation or compounding. For

example, a hoover (noun) and to hoover (verb); and a service (noun) and to service (verb) (see Malmkjær, 2010, p. 371). This process occurs when a word containing more than one syllable is shortened. Clipping in Persian is believed not to be as frequent as in English (Sattari, 2004). Some proper names in casual style involve clipping. e.g. *Huriye* ‘girl’s name’ becomes *Huri*; *Šarife* ‘girl’s name’ becomes *Šarif*; and *Mohammad* ‘boy’s name’ becomes *Mammad*.

Backformation is the reduction of a word (e.g. a noun) to form another word (e.g. a verb). As defined by Lieber (2009, p. 198):

Back formation is “a morphological process in which a word is formed by subtracting a piece, usually an affix, from a word which is or appears to be complex. In English, for example, the verb peddle was created by back formation from peddler (originally spelled peddlar).

Some Persian examples include *zudbâvar* ‘credulous’ (from *zud* ‘soon’ + *bâvar* ‘believe, believer’); *qoqâsâlâr* ‘rowdy’ (from *qoqâ* ‘turmoil, fuss’ *sâlâr* ‘chief, head’); and *doduzebâz* ‘tricky’ (from *do* ‘two, double’ + *duz* ‘sew’ + suff, *-e* + *bâz* ‘someone’) from *zudbâvari* ‘credulity’, *qoqâsâlâri* ‘rowdyism’, and *doduzebâzi* ‘trick’, respectively (Shaghghi, 2007, p. 107).

Metaphoric expansion: Once exposed to new phenomena, things or concepts, native speakers do not always make use of word-formation processes to make new words. Rather, they, at times, try to expand the meaning(s) of the prevailing words in their language due to objective and abstractive similarity of the intended concept with the referents of current words in the language (Shaghghi, 2007, p. 110). For example, the Persian word *bâl* ‘wing of a bird’ refers to the wing of an aeroplane as well. On the base of the studies carried out on the Persian language, Shaghghi (2007, p. 111) concludes that Persian native speakers use the metaphoric expansion process abundantly due to semantic similarity or referent function and, accordingly, add new meaning(s) to the words intended. In other words, if they find any similarity between an animal and a

particular characteristic, the name of the animal as a noun is changed to be used as an adjective. For example, the words *qerqi* ‘hawk’; *?asb* ‘horse’; and *šir* ‘lion’ in Persian are used for somebody who is ‘nimble’, ‘scatter-brained’ and ‘brave’, respectively (Shaghaghi, 2007, p. 111).

It should be noted that metaphoric expansion is of two types: one is elevation or amelioration whereby the meaning of a word grows stronger, more agreeable, or more respectable, that is to say, words yield a more pleasant or positive meaning. For example, the word *xâki* ‘dusty, soiled’ (from *xâk* ‘soil’ + suff, *-i*) is used as an adjective for a humble person (Shaghaghi, 2007). The other type is a degeneration or pejorative change whereby the meaning of a word becomes weaker, and less agreeable. That is, the words yield a more negative or unpleasant meaning. For instance, the word *tâblo* ‘portrait, tableau’ can be used as an adjective meaning ‘notorious’ (Shaghaghi, 2007, p. 112).

In this chapter, the Persian language was introduced. In fact, certain points made about Persian morphological processes, words and their features have been discussed as they will be used to set questions in the data collecting instrument. Chapter Three discussed the theoretical framework and review of the literature for this study.

2.6 Summary

In Chapter Two, a short history of the Persian language was introduced. In addition, certain points made about Persian morphological processes, words, and their features have been used as components to set questions in the questionnaire, which will be discussed in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, a short history of Persian language was discussed. This chapter presents a review of related literature on attitudes towards the APLL and its activities as well as factors that may influence these attitudes. In fact, theories of terminology, word-formation and word-selection, and the language planning in Iran and other countries such as Indonesia and Malaysia are discussed. The reason behind the selection of Malaysia is that the committee of the Faculty at the proposal defense suggested that since the present research is being carried out in Malaysia, the researcher's supervisor and officials in the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics can assist him greatly in this connection. Meanwhile, the researcher had access to a variety of a reading material (books and other resources) about the language planning and policy in Malaysia and Indonesia (where Malay is the official language as well) which seem to be practical in comparing the Persian and Malay languages.

3.2 Remarks on Terminology

It is axiomatic that providing new terms is needed for scientific or technical concepts when languages are being adapted or developed for different purposes. The word 'terminology', as the name suggests, is the study of terms; or more technically, it is the study of "any conventional symbol representing a concept defined in a subject field" (Felber, 1985, p. 1).

As a part of language planning, terminology began to take shape in the 1930s and now has moved from amateurism to a truly scientific approach. In fact, it is

concerned with the study and compilation of specialized terms and in recent decades has been systematically developed (Cabré, 1999, p. 1).

Many studies have been carried out in the field of terminology of which the objective of terminology is to recognize, collect and describe those terms that qualitatively contribute to better communication (M. Sama'ee, 2003, p. 89).

According to Felber (1985), the General Theory of Terminology (GTT), as a constituent part of terminological science, has been developed now for some decades and is reflected by several scientific approaches and materializes in the form of three classical schools - the Vienna, the Prague and the Soviet [now-Moscow] schools of terminology (p. 120).

Auger (1988, cited in Cabré (1999), believes that there exist three orientations in terminology processing which include: (i) the linguistic approach (ii) the translation approach; and (iii) reformative approach. The aforementioned classical schools, as stated by F. Sama'ee (2003), employ linguistic approach in terminology. In this study, the researcher describes and uses only the Vienna School of Terminology (VST) for several reasons. In the first place, it is underpinned by the GTT that stresses on the standardization of concepts and terms (Felber, 1985, p. 42). This standardization, as J. Holmes (2007) puts it, is a part of codification discussed in language planning and is pertinent to this study (see Section 1.1). Secondly, regarding the VST's spread, influence on and similarity to other classic schools, it has been continually criticized by terminologists from different perspectives (F. Sama'ee, 2003, p. 105); and, lastly, it is almost consistent with the APLL principles of word-selection.

3.2.1 The Vienna School of Terminology (VST)

The VST, which is based on Wüster's research activities, is underpinned by the GTT which, in turn, stresses on "the standardization of concepts and terms" (Felber, 1985). This school, as Sager (1990) puts it, tries to provide accurate descriptions of concept without any ambiguity. In fact, Wüster (1991, p. 1) believes that terminology starts with 'concept' and that logical relationships and philosophical relationships are prior to linguistic relationships. The VST comprises five basic principles that are discussed in Table 3.1 below:

Principle One (or the onomasiological perspective) of Terminology begins with concept and aims to clearly delineate each concept (Wüster, 1991, p. 1). According to Principle Two (Concepts are clear-cut), concepts should not be studied in isolation; rather, each concept is a part of a concept system arranged on the basis of studying close and common characteristics and in which their relationships have been explained (Tammerman, 2000, p. 6). In Principle Three, three definitions of VST are provided: Intensional, Extensional and Part-whole definition (see Table 3.1). As for Principle Four (or the univocity principle), Felber (1985) observes that each term represents only one concept (monosemy) and each concept has only one representation (mononymy). This principle shows the complex and close relationship between terminology and standardization. Finally, in Principle Five (or the synchrony principle), terms are studied synchronically and language development is excluded since the emphasis is on the conceptual system although concepts and their representations are, at times, subject to change over time (Tammerman, 2000, p. 14).

Table 3.1 The Principles of Vienna School of Terminology (VST)

Number of Principle	Characteristics
Principle One : (the onomasiological perspective)	Concept is considered as a part of external world and conceptual networks should be studied to find equivalent for concepts.
Principle Two: (Concepts are clear-cut.)	The study of logical relationships among concepts is highly significant. In the VST, concept should be clearly described when to specify the stand of each concept in the conceptual network. In addition, relationships, as discussed in Felber (1985, pp. 148-153) include “logical [(or direct)] relationships” (e.g. <i>B is a kind of A</i> as in “Aircraft is a species of vehicle.”), and ontological (or indirect) relationships (<i>B is a part of A as in “A wing is a part of an aircraft.”</i>).
Principle Three: (Concepts and terminological definitions)	There are three definitions in the VST: (i) Intensional definition in which the closest general concept, either already defined or assumed to be known by the public, is introduced (Felber, 1985, pp. 142-153). (ii) Extensional definition in which we enumerate either all similar variants or particular concepts and are subdivided in a hierarchy (Felber, 1985, p. 143). (iii) Part-whole definition in which a concept is defined as a part of the particular whole or comprehensive concept.
Principle Four: (the univocity principle)	This principle shows the complex and close relationship between terminology and standardization. In fact, the careful use of language is emphasized in terminology. According to Wüster (1991, p. 2), the standardization of terms aims at unifying concepts and conceptual systems. In other words, synonymy and polysemy are not included in terminological system. The fourth principle, as Temmerman Temmerman (2000) states, is a part of the standardization results.
Principle Five: (the synchrony principle)	The domain of study in the VST is the specialized words aiming to standardize terms. This has been shown in the principles and methods. However, taken terminology as a branch of science, VST seems to have failed to fully determine its theoretical framework and fundamental concepts since full involvement in standardization has caused terminological researches to lag. In the VST as well as other classic schools, the principles, objectives and underlying facts of science seem to have been confused.

3.2.2 The Moscow School of Terminology (MST)

At the beginning of the thirties, [then] Soviet scientists and engineers started to perform terminology research (Felber, 1985, p. 45). In 1933 the [then] Soviet School of Terminology was founded on the initiative of two engineers, Prof. Caplygin, member of the Academy of Sciences of the [then] USSR and the eminent terminologist Lotte. They gave also the impetus to the setting up of the Commission for Technical Terminology, which was later called Committee for Scientific and Technical Terminology (KNTT) of

the Academy of Sciences of [then] USSR. As with other two schools of terminology, a strong link with standardization has always existed.

3.2.3 The Prague School of Terminology (PST)

The PST developed from the Prague school of functional linguistics, whose theories are based on the work of de Saussure and stressing functional aspect of language (Felber, 1985, p. 42). Note that the Prague school of functional linguistics aimed at an investigation of the standard language from the functional viewpoint, i.e. an investigation of the standard language as tool of communication in all areas of social life, in particular in the area of human culture, civilization and technology (Felber, 1985, p. 42).

In the PST, the deliberate interference in the use of specialised language is emphasised. The major objectives of the PST are to provide the structural and applied description of specialised language. In fact, 'term' is regarded as a functional unit forming a professional style and functioning as a means of communication in specialised context. The PST is the result of multilingual nature of its geography which has caused attention to be paid on the standardisation of languages. This is an instance of normative interference and language planning. The PST terminological activities are connected with the Czech Language Institute which is itself a part of the Academy of Science.

It is worth pointing out here that these three schools of terminology share a linguistically based perspective. In other words, they all consider terminology a medium of expression and communication and have given shape to the theoretical basis of terminology and the methodological principles governing its application (see Cabré, 1999, p. 13)

3.3 Academy of Language

3.3.1 Iran

Iran has experienced three academies so far. The purpose has been to prepare “the Persian language for expressing general and especially new scientific concepts by coining Persian words for western terms. The number of words coined by three Iranian academies does not exceed 2000 items” (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 29).

The first academy, called the Iranian Academy, was founded in 1935 with the objective to replace foreign words with Persian ones. The main founders included Mohammad Ali Foroughi and Ali Asghar Hekmat. According to Sadeghi (2001, p. 23), the Iranian Academy was inaugurated to maintain, develop and promote the Persian Language as well as to prune incongruous foreign words and coin Persian lexical items for every branch of life, using Persian words and roots. Within two years, about 600 words were coined and this figure amounted to some 2000 by 1941. Some examples include: *zirdaryâi* ‘submarine’ (from *zir* ‘under’ + *daryâ* ‘sea’ + suff, *-i*); *dozist* ‘amphibian’ (from *do* ‘two’ + *zist* ‘life’); *govâhinâme* ‘certificate’ (from *govâh* ‘evidence, witness’ + suff, *-i* + *name* ‘letter’); *kârdâr* ‘charge d'affaires’ (from *kâr* ‘work’ + suff, *-dâr* ‘having’); *mardomšênâsi* ‘anthropology’ (from *mardom* ‘people’ + *šênâs* ‘familiar’ + suff, *-i*) (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 23).

Concerning the activities of the Iranian Academy, it seems to have been successful since it prevented from extremism. In other words, language puritans wanted to purify Persian from foreign words particularly Arabic words (Kafi, 1996, p. 262). This is against the normality in language. In this connection, Foroughi (1937, p. 14) suggests that the wise thing to do here is to deal with the issue moderately and not to go extremes. In other words, he holds that it is better to avoid foreign words as much as possible; however, if we are to use them in one way or another, we had better accept

those ones used internationally. It is worth pointing out that a plethora of words borrowed from Arabic has become a part of the Persian language in that it does not seem to be logical to replace them with Persian neologisms (Foroughi, 1937, pp. 40-41).

In addition to this, the academy prevented from the influx of further unnecessary foreign words into Persian (Kafi, 1996, p. 264). However, Farshidvard (2010, p. 52) and Yarmohammadi (2006, p. 173) question the words suggested and promoted by the academy due to extremism, calque (loan translation) as well as incorrect and meaningless lexical items, leading to corrupting the Persian language, e.g. *tarâbari* ‘transportation’ (from *tarâ* ‘beyond’ + *bar* ‘carry, take’ + suff, -i); *mehâd* ‘major’ (from *meh* ‘senior’ + suff, -âd); and *kehâd* ‘minor’ (from *keh* ‘small, low’ + suff, -âd). The Iranian Academy paused in 1953.

After fifteen years, King Mohammad Reza Pahlavi demanded the revival of the Iranian Academy. Therefore, the second Iranian academy, named Iranian Academy of Language, was founded in 1970 with eleven members, of which the objectives were: (1) to prepare Persian for adequately expressing various new scientific, technical, and cultural concepts; and (2) to conduct studies of all languages and dialects of Iran to get a better knowledge of Persian and to promote it (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 25). By 1976, almost 35,000 new Persian words had been proposed by the academy. The activities of the second academy paused after the Islamic revolution in 1979.

The following includes some examples of creations of the Iranian Academy of Language: *dânešyâb* ‘BA/ BS’ (from *dâneš* ‘knowledge’ + *yâb* ‘seeker’); *farnešin* ‘chairman’ (from *far* ‘higher’ + *nešin* ‘someone who sits’); *âmuzgâh* ‘classroom’ (from *âmuz* ‘learn’ + suff, -gâh ‘place’); *âmuze* ‘doctrine’ (from *âmuz* ‘learn’ + suff, -e) ; and *peyvastekâr* ‘full time’ (from *peyvaste* ‘constant’ + *kâr* ‘work’) (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 27).

As for the second academy in Iran, it should be noted that the Iranian Academy of Language did not enjoy a lot of success due to arbitrary decisions, exclusive use and extremism on the part of its officials and members. The word *hamsegâli* ‘symposium’ (from *ham* ‘together’ + *segâl* ‘think’ + suff, -i) is a good example in this regard (see Yarmohammadi 2006, p. 174). More surprisingly, few of the members themselves used their own suggested words and terms (Kafi, 1996, p. 265).

After twelve years, a new institution or the third academy, under the title of Academy of Persian Language and Literature (APLL), was established in 1991, with an active word-selection committee (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 28; Spolsky, 2004, pp. 37-38). The APLL is a body controlled by the Iranian government presiding over the use of the Persian language in Iran and other Persian speaking countries. The academy members are academics of Persian literature and linguistics from Iran, Tajikistan, Afghanistan, and Uzbekistan.

One of the works carried out by this department is the choice of Persian equivalents for some 200 western loan words used in official documents and writings. The list of these words was drawn up by the Iranian government and submitted to the Academy. These words were, after final confirmation in the high council of the Academy, submitted to the president of the Islamic Republic of Iran to be communicated to the government for use in official correspondence, texts, etc. (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 28).

Of the Academy's first principle is to choose and coin transparent and intelligible words. Opaque words and dialectal and ancient forms are excluded due to unintelligibility to the public. Meanwhile, international words, such as *râdio*, *post*, *televeziyon*, etc. should be preserved and simplicity and phonetic considerations should be considered (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 28). Some examples of creations of the third academy

include: *pâyâmgir* ‘answering-machine’ (from *pâyâm* ‘message’ + suff, *-gir* ‘taker’); *čerâqak* ‘warmer’ (from *čerâq* ‘light, stove’ + suff, *-ak* ‘small’); and *ramzine* ‘bar code’ (from *ramz* ‘code’ + suff, *-in* + suff, *-e*) (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 29).

Attitudes towards the APLL’s activities seem to be dissimilar. In fact, some researchers believe that the third academy has been successful in suggesting and promoting neologisms. Typical examples include *jašnvâre* ‘festival’ (from *jašn* ‘party, feast’ + suff, *-vâre* ‘like’); *čâpgar* ‘printer’ (from *čâp* ‘printing’ + suff, *-gar* ‘doer’); *âmuzâne* ‘tuition fee’ (from *âmuz* ‘learn’ + suff, *-âne* ‘related to’); *tandis* ‘statue’ (from *tan* ‘body’ + suff, *-dis*) (Zomorrodian, 2003, p. 494). Others have a different opinion in that the results have been disappointing. Notable examples are *razmâyeš* ‘maneuver’; *yârâne* ‘subsidy’ (from *yâr* ‘helper’ + suff, *-âne* ‘like’); *barfsori* ‘skiing’ (from *barf* ‘snow’ + *sor* ‘slip, slide’ + suff, *-i*); and *yaxsori* ‘ice-skating’ (*yax* ‘ice’ + *sor* ‘slip, slide’ + suff, *-i*) (Farshidvard, 2010, pp. 85-86).

It is worth noting that the purpose of language planning in Iran is the modernization of Persian through word coinage and this is presently done by the APLL.

Modarresi (2001) explains:

...the main focus of Iranian language-planning activities for the past several decades has been new word coinage. As a linguistic consequence of the process of modernization of the country, a great number of loan words from western languages such as English and French have been introduced into the Persian language. Thus, the major goal of the language-planning institutions in Iran has been the modernization of Persian (pp. 1-2).

Modarresi does not provide any examples of the APLL newly suggested/ presented equivalents. He discusses neither the APLL lexical items nor their acceptance or rejection on the part of the Iranian speech community.

On the other hand, in another research, Sadeghi (2001) says that the APLL newly chosen and coined words are monthly published in a newsletter to obtain the opinion of specialists outside the Academy. However, as Sadeghi (2001, p. 28) observes, “from all the products of the Iranian Academy of Language only a few words, such as *râyâne* ‘computer’ (from *rây* ‘thinking, council’ + suff, *-âne*), *hamâyeš* ‘congress’ (from *ham* ‘together’ + *âyeš* ‘coming’), *šomârgân* ‘printing (from *šomâre* ‘number’ + suff, *-gân*), *tirage* (Fr.)’, etc., were more or less accepted [by the speech community] in the common language.”

Despite the fact that thousands of words have been coined and suggested by the Academy, Persian still needs a lot more equivalents for new foreign terms. In other words, language planning, as held by Sadeghi (2001, p. 30), is not proportional to real needs, and the perspective of the public to these words created by the APLL has not been evaluated.

As mentioned earlier (see Section 1.3), the words introduced by the APLL do not seem to be widely accepted by the Iranian speech community. Izadi (2003) believes that carelessness and extremes in word-selection are the reasons behind the non-acceptance of words by people. In this connection, Kafi (1996) directly challenges men of literary [experts in Persian literature] and accuses them of having failed to provide workable solutions.

Language planning, according to Bateni (2002, p. 22) to be successful must have motivated people and government’s support. If people are not motivated enough to work together on language issues, state language planning will be inflicted on them and this will eventually end in failure. Bateni provides an example of Turkey where the new Turkish officials managed to generate the necessary motivation in the people. This seems to have been achieved thorough “nationalistic pressure...and especially attractive

were dialect words. Army officers, schoolteachers and government officials throughout the country were asked to send in words in use among the people, which formed the base of the language purification work (see Lewis, 1999, p. 16). However, it is clear that in the absence of government support, language planning is doomed to failure due to individualism and personal tastes. Both motivation and government support are necessary for successful language planning (Bateni, 2002, p. 22). Examples of foreign words used include *democracy*, *technology* and *mechanism* that have Persian equivalents: *mardomsâlâri* (from *mardom* ‘people’ + *sâlâr* ‘chief, head’ + suff, -i), *fanâvari* (from *fan* ‘technique’ + *-âvar* ‘bring’ + suff, -i) and *sâzokâr* (from *sâz* ‘build, structure’ + *o* ‘and’ + *kâr* ‘work, function), respectively. More writers use the foreign words with Persianised pronunciations (see <http://www.magiran.com>).

Davari Ardekani (2003, p. 33) points out that word-selection cannot be only done by a centralised organisation like the APLL. Rather, the APLL should act as the *Guardian Council of Language* in the speech community to encourage, support and guide numerous word-selection groups and provide them with necessary guidelines and instructions. She also holds that since the APLL’s activities are generally included in language planning, it is logical to ask some sociolinguists to assist word-selection groups. Davari Ardekani (2003) suggests that:

(1) It is necessary to establish a separate and independent panel under the title of “Department of Sociolinguistics” in the APLL to study issues in the Persian language scientifically and the trends in language planning including terminology better and more precisely; (2) What is required is a permanent and strong administrative interaction between the APLL and the Ministries of Science and Education because these two ministries are the centre for spreading the findings of the APLL; and (3) A codified

organizational and administrative interaction with the Islamic Republic of Iran's Broadcasting (IRIB) is vitally important (p. 36).

Sultanzade (2003) believes that the APLL's site should be accessed by every curious individual in order to search for the latest suggested equivalents, on the one hand, and to present their suggestions and criticisms to the APLL, on the other. Translators, writers and other interested people should be sent the latest approved words by the APLL so that they could express their views.

3.3.2 Foreign countries

3.3.2.1 Malaysia

Malaysia is a multi-ethnic, multilingual country in which a variety of languages and dialects are spoken (Mukherjee and David, 2007) within each of three main ethnic groups (the Malays, the Chinese and the Indians). Of these varieties, standard Malay is the national language of Malaysia (Gill, 2004).

In this connection, Zubaidah (2002) maintains:

The government elite in Malaysia have a clear language policy with regard to national language: it is to function as the linguistic means of communication between Malaysians of all linguistic, religious and cultural backgrounds; it is to facilitate social control through the imposition of rules and regulations; it is to formulate and spread norms and values, and it is to provide the vehicle for giving the citizens a feeling of 'oneness' to achieve 'national unity' (p. 152).

Zubaidah (2002, p. 152) adds that "in short, the Malay language is seen as fulfilling the needs of both nationalism and nationism and, as a result, the other languages of the country can be expected, progressively, to be less significant"

Both Asmah (1993) and, Nik (1994) stress on the importance of *Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka* 'Centre of Language and Publication' in Malaysia in that it is responsible

for the creation of terms and that is fully supported by the government, society, institutions, organizations as well as individuals. Asmah (1993) points out:

Malay has, for the past two decades, been enriched with specialized terms for all sorts of disciplines and professions. The creation of these terms has mainly been part of the National Planning Programme for which the Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka is responsible. The specialised terms that are in current usage and whose coinage receives the approval of the Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka, seem to reflect a linguistic attitude quite different from that in existence previously (p. 134).

This process is almost similar in Iran in that after words are created and suggested by the APLL, they have to be approved by the president. After receiving the approval of the president, new words have to be promoted by governmental institutions and organizations such as the IRIB and offices (see APLL, 2010). However, Asmah (1993) adds that:

As a language of science, Malay cannot be deemed to possess an efficient lexical system. Deficiency in the lexical aspect of the language lies in the deficiency of the scientific terms to convey new concepts which arise along with the progress of the country in the field of science and technology (p. 145).

Here, unlike most professionals' view in the APLL (see Sadeghi, 2001; Modarresi, 2001), Asmah (1993) does not thoroughly disapprove of the process of *borrowing* in Malay. However, she warns that care must be taken to determine which foreign lexical items should be borrowed and which should not due to the existence of correspondences in the native language or due to the fact that the native correspondences can be formulated from native elements. Accordingly, Asmah (1993) adds that an efficient lexis or specialised term should have the following characteristics: (i) Conciseness in form; (ii) Preciseness in meaning; and (iii) Suitability to the grammar, phonology and morphophonemics of the language (p. 146). It is worth pointing out that all the three characteristics mentioned by Asmah; i.e. conciseness, preciseness and suitability, to a great extent, overlap with the APLL's third, sixth and

second principles of terminology, respectively (see Appendix K). In addition, Nik Safiah (1994) states:

Malay has progressed through language planning. In fact, since its establishment, the Dewan Bahasa has developed a vigorous programme in terminology-building. To date there are more than 27 Terminology Committees, having coined over 500,000 terms covering 300 fields of knowledge (pp. 135-136).

Being similar to the DBP, the APLL is composed of seven departments, including the department of word selection of which the main task is to find Persian equivalents for foreign words used both in common language and scientific writings. This department consists of committees for different disciplines. These committees convene regular meetings with the collaboration of members and researchers of the Iranian Academy of Sciences for selecting terms needed in different branches of science. Terms chosen in these committees will be proposed to the high council of the Academy for final confirmation (Sadeghi, 2001, p. 28).

3.3.2.2 Indonesia

Indonesia deals with language planning quite differently. According to Alisjahbana (1971, cited in Zubaidah (2002):

The main objective of Indonesian nationalism after the Second World War was to find a means of uniting the extremely heterogeneous population in which 250 languages and dialects are spoken in more than 1000 islands.... Malay has successfully been implemented and accepted and, at the same time, has prevented Javanese domination (p. 133).

In Indonesia, one can easily trace measures on modernization. In 1942, after the Japanese domination over Indonesia, the commission of Bahasa Indonesia was established. Of the roles played by this commission was to modernize and prepare the language to meet communication needs (Modarresi, 2012). In effect, after the abolition of Dutch, the commission had already ratified some 7,000 new words and terms in 1945. Meanwhile, in 1947, another commission - "Commission for Studying Bahasa

Indonesia” - was established and ratified another 500 words or so (see Modarresi, 2012).

The Indonesian experts in language planning made special efforts to modernize Bahasa Indonesia in general, and to spread scientific and specialized vocabulary in particular. In 1970s, they presented some 250,000 equivalents in various fields. Although people have not publically accepted the equivalents presented, language planners claim the basic lexicon has substantially been strengthened (Modarresi 2012). Meanwhile, Moeliono (1994) holds that language modernization in Indonesia involves two aspects. One is the development of vocabulary and the other is the development of a range of registers and discourse forms (p. 208). This policy is partly similar to that of the APLL in that “the main focus of Iranian language planning activities for the past several decades has been new word coinage” (Modarresi, 2001, pp. 1-2). Morphological devices include reviving, widening, narrowing, and borrowing which include importation and substitution (Moeliono, 1994, p. 209).

It is also worth mentioning that the Iranian situation partly resembles that of Indonesia but has its own unique features. It is similar in that both governments emphasize the role of experts and professionals; and it is different because of language policy. That is, in Indonesia, borrowing is one of the major word-formation processes while “there is an organized movement to replace foreign words with Persian equivalents in Iran” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 37).

3.4 VST and Word-formation/ Word-selection in Persian

Having described the VST and its fivefold principles, it is now time to make links between word-selection in the APLL as a terminological activity and the principles of VST. In the following section, word-selection is described from three

interrelated perspectives: (a) Sociolinguistics, (b) Linguistic issues (c), and Language planning.

3.4.1 Sociolinguistic perspective: From a sociolinguistic viewpoint, the APLL word-selection involves standard Persian. This has been stated in the APLL's principle one (see APLL's principles, Appendix K).

According to principle one:

Slangs, obsolete Persian words, unfamiliar words taken from Middle and Old Persian, hard-to-pronounce and unfamiliar Arabic words, and dialectal words have been separated from Standard Language. This standard language is regarded as the common and ideal written language used by all educated people in the society (see APLL's principles, Appendix K).

3.4.2 Linguistic perspective: Terminology deals with words (semasiology) and concepts (onomasiology) alike (see section 3.2.1.1 Principle One). Normally, this process begins with semasiological approach and sometimes concepts are not paid much attention to and; consequently, this causes ambiguity in terminology (Felber, 1985). However, in modern terminological approaches both aspects (word and concept) are taken into account (F. Sama'ee, 2003, p. 104). It should be noted here that the APLL synchronic word-selection accords with the fifth principle of the VST (see section 3.2.1.5 Principle Five) and the development of terms through time is disregarded. Therefore, unfamiliar words from Middle and Old Persian are excluded by the APLL when finding, selecting or making words (see APLL's principles, Appendix K). For example, the words *padâfand* 'defence' (from *pad* 'against, anti'+ *âfand* 'attack') and *pâtak* 'couterattack' (from *pât* 'against, anti' + *tak* 'attack') from Middle Persian were not promoted (Zomorrodian, 2003, p. 491).

Concepts from the APLL's perspective are discussed in a conceptual system, which accord with the second principle of the VST (see 3.2.1.2 principle two, p. 31).

Logical and ontological relationships are used to specify the stand of a concept. For example, the sentence *A car is a vehical* shows a logical relationship and the sentence *Anengine is a part of a car* reveals an ontological relationship (Felber, 1985).

The APLL's word-selection principles four and six (see APLL's principles, Appendix K) overlap with the second principle in the VST (see Principle Two, p. 31). According to the fourth principle of the APLL, inflected and derivated words are preferred when finding equivalents since it is possible to make nouns, adjectives and verbs out of them. Thus, terms are studied conceptually. Examples for derived words include *bigonâh* 'innocent' (from *bi-* 'without' + *gonâh* 'sin') and *sobhâne* 'breakfast' (from *sobh* 'morning' + suff, *-ane* 'pertaining to'). Examples for inflected words are *bartar* 'better' (from *bar* 'above, profit, good' +suff, *-tar* 'more') and *bartarin* 'the best' (from *bar* 'above, profit, good' +suff, *-tarin* 'most') (Meshkatod Dini, 2000, pp. 200-201). The sixth principle (see APLL's principles, Appendix K) which reads: "In selecting equivalents, transparent words are prior to opaque ones, therefore, the direct logical and ontological relationships lead to conceptually transparent words. In addition, definitions are mostly intensional although extensional and part-whole definitions are, at times, seen." (F. Sama'ee, 2003, p. 93). This accords with principle three in the VST (see 3.2.1.3) because a word in a conceptual system and an intensional definition are well-matched to each other. Examples for opaque and transparent words include *darâšâm* 'absorbation' (from *dar* 'in' + *âšâm* 'drink') and *qandšekan* 'sugar buster' (from *qand* 'hard suger' + *šekan* 'breaker'), respectively (Farshidvard, 2010, pp. 37, 71).

The fourth principle of the VST (see 3.2.1.4 principle four), which deals with one-to-one correspondence between concept and term, is fairly compatible with the word-selection principle seven of the APLL (see APLL's principles, Appendix K).

Principle seven reads: “In word-selection, especially in science, only one word should be preferably selected for each expression which enjoys a particular meaning” (see APLL’s principles, Appendix K). In the principle seven, only mononymy has been mentioned and monosemy has been excluded. Examples of Persian words with only one meaning are *payâmgir* ‘answering machine’ (from *payâm* ‘message’ + suff, *-gir* ‘taker, receiver’) and *âbzidân* ‘aquarium’ (from *âb* ‘water’ + *zi* ‘live’ +suff, *-dân* ‘container’) (see Appendix B).

Nevertheless, in modern approaches to terminology, synonymy and polysemy are considered as facts that are not disregarded in terminological system. In these approaches, polysemy is the result of semantic development of words and synonymy shows the different views on the study of a given concept (F. Sama'ee, 2003). In fact, in the NB of the APLL’s seventh principle, synonymy in a given discipline is allowed and polysemy has been discussed from a different aspect (see APLL’s principles, Appendix K). Examples of polysemy include *âsânbar* (from *âsân* ‘easy’ + *-bar* ‘carrier’) and *bâlâbar* (from *bâlâ* ‘high, height’ + *-bar* ‘carrier’) for the French words *ascenseur* ‘lift’ (see Appendix B).

Generally, the APLL’s approach to word-selection more or less overlaps with that of VST. In this regards, F. Sama'ee (2003) explains:

It seems that the APLL has been in harmony with its time when compiling the word-selection principles. Some principles do not seem to be clear and, accordingly, should be formulated unambiguously, though. For example, in the principle three, it reads: non-euphonious words ought to be avoided (p. 105).

It seems necessary to redefine euphony for individuals and the border between morphological and sociological issues of the principles be specified. The word-selection principles, which are the localized version of classic terminology, accord with the

linguistic needs of the country. However, if polysemy and synonymy are defined more accurately in word-selection, there will emerge a new approach in terminological study.

3.4.3 Language planning perspective: In general, terminology [(word-selection)] is both a prescriptive and a descriptive activity to preserve language (Felber, 1985). Since language planning in any country must accord with linguistic and sociological needs, methods of finding equivalents and term-selection must fit the sociological and morphological requirements in the Persian language.

3.5 Sociolinguistics and Language Planning

It is widely held that language is primarily a social phenomenon, and that an intimate and reciprocal relationship exists between language and society (Gumperz, 1971; Janet Holmes, 2008; Labov, 1966; Trudgill, 1983). A review of the literature indicates that in recent years many researchers have been concerned with sociolinguistic studies of Persian, particularly language planning and the Academy of Language (Beeman, 1986; Jahangiri, 1990; Sadeghi, 2001; Modarresi, 2001; Farshidvard, 2010).

We use language planning to change linguistic behavior for certain reasons. Language planning issues may be pursued normally through sociolinguistic profiles of countries. In other words, it is a deliberate attempt to solve the communication problems of a community by studying its various linguistic varieties (Crystal, 2003). Language planning in Iran, Malaysia and Indonesia are now discussed and compared (see Section 3.1).

3.5.1 Approaches to word-formation and word-selection in Persian

Although word-selection is mostly considered as a synonym for word-formation, the fact is that word-formation is one of the various approaches to word-selection (Tayyib, 2003, p. 457). Word-selection, as the word suggests, is a process aiming to

find an equivalent for a foreign word through providing several equivalents among which a choice has to be made (see Section 1.8).

Word-formation and word-selection in Persian have been discussed by many researchers (see, for example, Haghshenas, 2000; Kafi, 1996; Sadeghi 2000; Sami'ee (Gilani), 2000; Sultanzade, 2003; Yarmohammadi 2000; Zakeri, 2000). In separate studies on word-formation and word-selection, Ne'matzade (2000), and Bahrami Aghdam (2000) and Habibi (2003) reached the conclusion that the supporting role of non-APLL individuals including interested writers and translators should be taken into account as to equivalents suggested by the APLL. As mentioned earlier (see Section 1.8), word-selection, is of two kinds. One is 'individual' and the other 'collective'. In the former, certain translators [and writers] try to present new words and expressions, whereas in the latter, the issue is pursued by a group of experts, mainly from an authorized department or public body like an Academy of Language. In collective word-selection, hidden mental argumentations become manifest and meet with opposition, but in individual word-selection, argumentation and reasoning are not revealed (Ne'matzade, 2000, p. 18).

A similar division of word-selection has also been provided by Haddad-Adel as the head of the APLL. Haddad-Adel (2003) believes that word-selection is done either individually or officially. Unlike the individual word-selection, the official word-selection is a conscious and planned activity managed by someone or some institute. In effect, official word-selection is the outcome of the development in science, technology and civilization. However, people independent of institutes for official word-selection make new words to meet their requirements. Haddad-Adel (2003) states that looking up a modern Persian dictionary, one can easily find countless words made and suggested by individuals and only a small percentage of them have been made officially.

In the individual word-selection, forms are more important than internal usages and conceptual aspects and, at the same time, they are less abstract (Haddad-Adel, 2003). He maintains individual word-selection, shortening is not used as widely as in the official word-selection. M. Sama'ee (2003) disagrees that shortening is one of the processes in word-selection and word-formation made by individuals. Two typical examples include *doxi* [from *doxtar*] 'girl' and *pesi* [from *pesar*] 'boy'. Haddad-Adel (2003) explains that individual word-selection is not precise and finer points are not reflected. For instance, the Persian words *?âmâs* or *bâd* both meaning 'swelling' are considered to be synonymous [by non-professional individuals] although doctors do not limit themselves to these two words only.

Haddad-Adel (2003) also asserts that the individual word-selection is not done systematically and is not made in clusters. In individual word-selection, individuals use the basic elements of language in that they use parts of the body or the names of animals like *češme* 'spring' (from *češm* 'eye' + suff, -e], *damâqe* 'cape' (from *damâq* 'nose' + suff, -(g)e), *mâhiče* 'muscle' (from *mâhi* 'fish' + suff, -(č)e], *mušak* 'misile' (from *muš* 'mouse' + suff, -ak). In addition, the use of colours and numbers in individual word-selection is seen to a large extent. For example, *zardak* 'carrot' (from *zard* 'yellow' + suff, -ak), *sabze* 'grass' (from *sabz* 'green' + suff, -e], *hafte* 'week' (from *haft* 'seven' + suff, -e], *hezârpâ* 'centipede' (from *hezâr* 'thousand' + *pâ* 'foot'), etc. He states that although individual word-selection lacks transparency; yet people have no communication problems. Some typical examples of words made and suggested by individuals include: *xodkâr* 'biro' (from *xod* 'self' + *kâr* 'work, function'), *pičgušti* 'screwdriver' (from *pič* 'screw' + *gušt* 'flesh' + suff, -i) and *sinepahlu* 'pneumonia' (from *sine* 'breast, chest' + *pahlu* 'beside'). Despite the shortcomings of individual word-creation, he suggests that scholars in the field of word-selection should pay

attention to individual word-selection as well. This is in line with Foroughi (1937, pp. 44-47) words in which he believes that the interaction between independent individuals and academicians is a Must when creating scientific terms. He added that if the Academy of Language tries to act individually, it will definitely result in failure. In fact, the Academy has three duties: (1) providing a means of creating new words, (2) encouraging the public to use them and (3) providing and publishing explicit and elaborate instructions.

To Bahrami Aghdam (2000), “unknown word-makers” include all individuals in the society who have contributed to the preservation and development of the Persian language. Although these people do not follow any written rules, they are creative and innovative in word-formation. Such creativity and innovation has a positive impact on these unknown individuals in making the right words. Individuals’ product is initially oral and then may become written as well. Like Habibi (2003), Bahrami Aghdam (2000) too suggests that the APLL provide practical guidelines to encourage and support such popular word-formation.

Shari’at (1986, p. 32) points out that currently there are many words that made by individuals not necessarily by the members of the Academy of Language and these words are used widely. Examples include *farmân* ‘steering wheel’ (from *farmân* ‘order, command’), *dande* ‘gear’ (from *dande* ‘rib’) and *separ* ‘bumper’ (from *separ* ‘shield’). Therefore, he proposes that individuals, particularly translators, should be encouraged to suggest and make words. Individual and official word-formation has also been discussed by Rastgar (2003) and Tabatab’ee (2003). In his study, Rastgar points out that there are many words in Persian which have been made by individuals in non-academic milieu, for example, *barfpâkkon* ‘windscreen wiper’ (from *barf* ‘snow’ + *pâkkon* ‘cleaner’), *âčârfarânse* ‘adjustable spanner’ (from *âčâr* ‘spanner’ + *farânse* ‘French’),

časb-e âlmâni ‘German adhesive’ (from *casb* ‘adhesive’ + *e* ‘of’ + *âlmâni* ‘German’), etc. Rastgar (2003) that university students should be sent to different (working) places to find out more about individual word-selection. Tabatab'ee (2003) explains that words are made either consciously or unconsciously. Unconscious word-formation is done by the public on the basis of their intuition. Examples in this connection are *gelgir* ‘mudguard’ (from *gel* ‘mud’ + *-gir* ‘taker’) and *barfpâkkon* ‘windscreen wiper’. However, conscious word-formation is done by special people or institutions [i.e. academies and other reputable institutions].

As mentioned earlier (see section 1.3), the APLL does not seem to have been so successful in promoting neologisms. Perhaps some failures of the Iranian Academies in introducing equivalents have caused the speech community, even at academic levels, not to take the words suggested by Iranian Academies seriously (Zarnikhi, 2003, p. 47).

The involvement of experts in language issues seem to be crucial. Habibi (2003) believes that the APLL’s rules and methods of word-selection and word-formation should be pointed out to translators, writers and interested individuals so that they can compare their suggested words with those of APLL’s. He adds that certain criteria including euphony should be redefined precisely.

Many new words are made through compounding and derivation since they are believed to be two major morphological processes (see section 2.3.2.1). In separate studies on word-formation by Kafi (1996) and Sami'ee (Gilani) (2000), it was purported that Persian enjoys two interesting capabilities: one is compounding and the other derivation. In fact, Kafi claims that compounding in Persian has the capacity of providing words. This is supported by Foroughi (1937, p. 51) in that he stresses that officials involved should try to make compound words as much as they can. Examples of compounding words are: *?âyin-nâme* ‘regulations’ (from *?âyin* ‘law, rule’ + *name*

‘letter’), *?âb-bahâ* ‘water-rate’ (from *?âb* ‘water’ + *bahâ* ‘price’) and *pâyân-nâme* (from *pâyân* ‘finish, end’ + *nâme* ‘letter’) ‘thesis, dissertation’. However, derivation, as Kafi (1996) points out, is not seen as productive because of the effect of foreign words borrowed from other languages and it is imperative that we restore such capability of derivation (i.e. productivity). Some examples of derived words include: *čegâlide* ‘condensed’ (from *čegâli* ‘density’ + past tense suff, *-d* + past perfect suff, *-e*), *čegâlände* ‘condenser’ (from *čegâli* ‘density’ + suff, *-ände* ‘having the characteristics of’) and *čegâleš* ‘condensation’ (from *čegâli* ‘density’ + suff, *-eš*). According to Kafi (1996), word-selection in Persian suffers from chaos due to lack of common and unique approaches by officials involved. For instance, one notes several equivalents for the English word maximum: *bišine* (from *biš* ‘more’ + superlative suff, *-in* + suff, *-e*), *mâkzimom*, *mehin* (from *meh* ‘big’ + superlative suff, *-in*) and *hadde-aksar* (from *had* ‘limit’ + *aksar* ‘most, majority’). This is an apparent indifference to ‘blocking’ as a preventive factor when suggesting several equivalents and coinages at the same time.

Derivation and compounding are more natural and popular than other word-formation processes; however, in some languages including French, derivations are more common; and in English and Persian alike natural and common words are made through compounding to a larger extent, and poetic and learned words are made more often via derivation (Sami’ee (Gilani), 2000). Sami’ee suggests that it is a good idea to borrow words from different dialects [in Iran] since this will enrich the Persian language. Providing a salient example in this regard, Sami’ee indicates that one cannot help using the different names of fishes in the north and south of Iran. Criticizing those individuals who believe in purifying Persian of all borrowed lexical items, Sami’ee (Gilani) (2000) points out that it is not necessary to replace established borrowed words with new ones due to the fact that these borrowed words are seen as native words.

According to Zakeri (2000), when providing new words through abbreviation and acronyms, short forms should be transparent and easy to communicate. Abbreviated forms should be simple, easy to pronounce and learn, as well as euphonious: For example, *Sâf* ‘PLO’, *šâbek* ‘ISBN’ and *Denâ* (di-?en-â) ‘DNA’.

As a linguist member of the APLL, Sadeghi (2000, p. 241) criticizes grammarians (i.e. men of letters) for confining themselves to traditional frameworks and not wanting to accept suggestions in word-formation. He maintains that men of letters in the APLL seem not to be considering the present situation and needs of society. Apart from the traditional ways of making words through derivation and `compounding, other more socially processes such as acronym as in IRNA ‘Islamic Republic News Agency’, blending as in *razmâyeš* ‘manoeuvre’ and clipping as in *râdiyât* ‘radiator’ should be used effectively (Sadeghi 2000, pp. 249-50).

Word-selection deals with selecting words from various existing choices. In order to make good choices, we should be familiar with certain rules. In a study involving word-selection, Yarmohammadi (2000) proposes scholars, translators and interested individuals should be provided with clear guidelines [on word-formation and word-selection drawn up by the APLL]. Yarmohammadi (2000) states that since the last century some 600,000 new words and phrases have been presented, 5000 of which have been introduced by the Academies in Iran and the rest by individuals, translators, writers and language users. With reference to word features, Yarmohammadi suggests that suggested equivalents should be easy to learn and language researchers should not waste time looking for embellishment. In addition, stressing on individuals’ roles in producing equivalents, Yarmohammadi (2006) maintains that ordinary people make interesting words such as *tirâže* ‘rainbow’ (from *tirâž* ‘circulation’ + suff, -e) and *čâykade* ‘teahouse’ (from *čây* ‘tea’ + suff, -kade ‘place’). Unlike Kafi (1996) who

favours loan translation, Yarmohammadi believes that loan translation should be avoided.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter (see p. 58), words can be introduced to a speech community by an official agency or created by individuals. These words may be either accepted or rejected. Haghshenas (2000) explains that in Persian, word-formation mechanism has so far been used in two ways: exaphoric word-formation and endophoric word-formation (see Section 1.8). Haghshenas (2000) explains that endophoric word-formation presently seems to be more practical and preferable in Persian. In exaphoric word-formation, borrowed words are easily replaced by newly made ones. For example, the Persian neologisms *yârâne* ‘subsidy’, *xodro* ‘car’ (from *xod* ‘self’ + *ro* ‘move’) and *râyâne* ‘computer’ are good examples in this replacement. In fact, the main reason behind exaphoric word-formation is to purify a language from foreign words. Such purification seems to be the cause of disagreement among the members of the APLL. In essence, people, as Haghshenas (2000) puts it, see exaphoric word-formation as the deliberate manipulation of language which violates norms in their language.

Haghshenas (2000) explains that the products of exaphoric word-formation are exclusively used by limited people including specialists and those who make these words. Endophoric word-formation can undoubtedly enrich Persian and prepare it for future needs and it is much to be regretted that endophoric word-formation is challenged by the experts who made words exaphorically. As endophoric word-formation is created by individuals, there is greater possibility of using these words (Haghshenas, 2000).

Having discussed the exaphoric and endophoric word-formation, we try to look at word-formation and word-selection in connection with Persian classical books. Persian, like many languages, has a rich literature. Major Persian classical works of art

are believed to be the source of many interesting words and phrases (Farshidvard, 2010, p. 70). In this connection, Kafi (1996) and Ma'soumi Hamedani (2003) propose that using old books and languages should be utilized for word-formation and word-selection. In fact, Kafi suggests that we select words/ equivalents from *Šâhnâme* [‘an Iranian classic book’] since it has many interesting derived words. Some familiar examples include *pâlâyeš* ‘purification’ (from *pâlâ* ‘refine, purify’ + suff, -(y)eš), *pažuheš* ‘research’ (from *pažuh* ‘search, study’ + suff, -eš), *tâbeš* ‘radiation’ (from *tâb* ‘radiate, shine’ + suff, -eš), *kušeš* ‘effort’ (from *kuš* ‘try’ + suff, -eš) (Kafi, 1996, p. 398). Ma'soumi Hamedani (2003) is of the same view and adds that we can use established words from old languages, Iranian accents, and Arabic words as well. By contrast, Foroughi (1937, p. 59) believes that it is quite wrong to find words from Pahlavi and Avestan books and consider them as Persian since they are no longer used and are obsolete. Even when in need of new words, it is better to resort to borrowing rather than to use the obsolete words. However, in doing so, Persian morphological rules must be followed to make new words not foreign language rules (Foroughi, 1937, pp. 56-57). However, it must be emphasized that the APLL’s activities is the replacement of foreign words and phrases with Persian forms.

In another study, while Zomorrodian (2003, p. 490) maintains that once a foreign word becomes widespread, it will be difficult to delete it from the language, and discusses different ways of creating new words and speaks of ‘mental image’ in that potential words would be easier to accept if people have a mental image of them. For instance, consider the Persian words *xodnevis* ‘fountain pen’ (from *xod* ‘self’ + *nevis* ‘write’), *xodkâr* ‘biro’ (from *xod* ‘self’ + *kâr* ‘work, function’) on the one hand, and *padâfand* ‘defence’ and *pâtak* ‘counterattack’ (from *pât* ‘against, anti’ + *tak* ‘attack’), on the other. The first two equivalents became widespread because the components of these

words are known to Persian native speakers and have been used in many other contexts. However, the last two words failed to be used widely since people are not familiar with both the words and their components and have been used only in the army domain. Finally, Zomorrodian (2003) suggests that (1) for words to be accepted and used widely, they should be made through derivation and compounding using frequent components in Persian like *jašnvâre* ‘festival’ (from *jašn* ‘party’ + suff *-vâre* ‘similar to’), *mâhvâre* ‘satellite’ (from *mâh* ‘moon’ + suff, *-vâre* ‘similar to’), *yârâne* ‘subsidy’, *bozorgâh* (from *bozorg* ‘big, large’ + *râh* ‘way, road’) or *?âzâdrâh* ‘autobahn’ (from *?zâd* ‘free’ + *râh* ‘way, road’), *filmnâme* ‘scenario’ (from *film* ‘film’ + *nâme* ‘letter’), *telefon-e-hamrâh* ‘mobile’ (from *telefon* ‘telephone’ + *e* ‘of’ + *hamrâh* ‘companion’), etc.; (2) Words suggested by individuals should be re-emphasized and taken into account by the APLL. For example, *gelgir* ‘mudguard’ (from *gel* ‘mud’ + *-gir* ‘taker’) and *barfpâkkon* ‘windscreen wiper’, *?eynak* ‘glasses’ (from *?eyn* ‘eye’ + suff, *-ak* ‘like’), *gojefarangi* ‘tomato’ (from *goje* ‘a kind of plum’ + *farangi* ‘foreign’); (3) Words should be extracted and used from other dialects used by Iranians in different areas, for example, instead of *pedâl* ‘pedal’, we can use *pâ-afšâr* (from *pâ* ‘foot’ + *afšâr* ‘press’) from Qâ’en dialect which is used in the southern Khorâsân (a province in the north-east of Iran); and (4) Words should be extracted from old [Persian] languages for brand new concepts which have not yet been established in Persian. For instance, the Middle Persian word *virâstan* ‘to edit’ (from *virâst* ‘edit’ + infinitive suff, *-an*), *virâstâr* ‘editor’ (from *virâst* ‘edit’ + suff, *-ar* ‘doer’), *virâyeš* ‘edition’ (from *virâst* ‘edit’ + suff, *-eš*) or *râyâne* ‘computer’ (from *rây* ‘thinking, counsel’ + *-âne* ‘like’) are used widely in Modern Persian.

Normally, productive and semi-productive words (see Section 1.8) are preferred to non-productive ones since we can make more forms from them. After Iranians had become acquainted with the west and with the advent of new sciences to Iran, the

necessity of making new words was more intense. The new words to be created meant that semi-productive and even obsolete rules of word-formation had to be changed to productive ones (Sadeghi, 2003, p. 500). Sadeghi (2003) points out that suffixes once used exclusively with certain words should be attached to new bases resulting in productive rules [of word-formation]. For example, the word [(bound morpheme)] *kade* meaning ‘place/ house’ has been used for making some compound words. As for *kade*, it has been used in Modern Persian only in compounds like *?âtaşkade* ‘fire temple’ (from *?âtaš* ‘fire’ + suff *-kade* ‘place’), *meykade* ‘pub’ (from *mey* ‘wine’ + *-kade* ‘place’), *dehkade* ‘village’ (from *deh* ‘village’ + suff *-kade* ‘place’) and *botkade* ‘idol temple’ (from *bot* ‘idol’ + suff *-kade* ‘place’); however, for the past few decades, it has been used with other bases to make new forms including *dâneškade* ‘faculty’ (from *dâneš* ‘science’ + suff *-kade* ‘place’), *pažuheškade* ‘research centre’ (from *pažuh* ‘research, study’ + suff, *-eš* + suff *-kade* ‘place’), *honarkade* ‘art institute’ (from *honar* ‘art’ + suff *-kade* ‘place’), *zâbânkade* ‘English school’ (from *zabân* ‘language’ + suff, *-kade* ‘place’) and so forth.

Meanwhile, four suffixes (*-e*, *-eš*, *-âr* and *-gar*) have been activated and used for making some compound words (Sadeghi, 2003). The suffix *-e* has several functions one of which is to make nouns meaning tool. For example, only the words *mâle* ‘trowel’ (from *mâl* ‘rub, touch’ + suff, *-e*), *tâbe* ‘frying pan’ (from *tâb* ‘turn’ + suff, *-e*) and *dastgire* ‘handle’ (from *dast* ‘hand’ + *gir* ‘take’ + suff, *-e*) were used previously; but, at present, new words have been made using this suffix. Some examples include *sanje* ‘yardstick’ (from *sanj* ‘measure, assess’ + suff, *-e*), *pâlâye* ‘filter’, and *râyâne* ‘computer’ (Sadeghi, 2003).

The second suffix includes *-eš* which is used in making gerunds. This suffix has not been used with Persian verbs; however, some individuals have recently used them

with some verbs to make new words such as *tavânes* ‘competence’ (from *tavân* ‘ability, power’ + suff, *-es*) and *xânes* ‘reading’ (from *xân* ‘read’ + suff, *-es*) (Sadeghi, 2003).

The next suffix *-âr* has several functions: subjective, gerund and rarely objective. This suffix, not used previously, has been used for the past two or three decades particularly by linguists. Examples include *sâxtâr* ‘structure’ (from *sâxt* ‘built’ + suff, *-âr*), *nevestâr* ‘writing’ (from *nevest* ‘wrote’ + suff, *-âr*), *peyvastâr* ‘continuum’ (from *peyvast* ‘joined’ + suff, *-âr*), and *virâstâr* ‘editor’ (from *virâst* ‘edited’ + suff, *-âr*) (Sadeghi, 2003).

The last suffix *-gar* ‘doer’ has become very active in recent decades. Examples include *?este’mârgar* ‘colonizer’ (from *?este’mâr* ‘colonization’ + suff, *-gar* ‘doer’, *?isârgar* ‘self-sacrificing’ (from *?isâr* ‘sacrifice’ + suff, *-gar* ‘doer’), and *jâhâdgar* ‘crusader, combatant’ (from *jâhâd* ‘combat’ + suff, *-gar* ‘doer’) (Sadeghi, 2003). This suffix may replace the French and English suffixes *-ateur* and *-er*, respectively. Some examples in this connection include *tabdilgar* ‘transformer’ (from *tabdil* ‘convert’ + suff, *-gar*), *zaxiregar* ‘accumulator’ (from *zaxire* ‘store, supply’ + suff, *-gar*) and *xonakgar* ‘cooler’ (from *xonak* ‘cool’ + suff, *-gar*) (Sadeghi, 2003).

Analogy is also used to produce new lexical items. Shaghghi (2000) is of the view that analogy plays a key role in word-formation in that native speakers can easily make new lexical items. For example, the word *sarmâ* ‘cold’ not *sardâ* was made through analogy with the word *garmâ* ‘heat’ (from *garm* ‘hot’ + suff, *-â*); *sâdân* ‘rejoicing’ (from *sâd* ‘happy’ + suff, *-ân*) from *xandân* ‘smiling’ (from *xand* ‘laugh’ + suff, *-ân*); and *bâqestân* ‘orchard’ (from *bâq* ‘garden’ + suff, *-estân* ‘place’) from *golestân* ‘flower garden’ (from *gol* ‘flower’ + suff, *-estân* ‘place’), respectively (Abolghasemi and Sadeghi, cited in Shaghghi (2000)).

Word-formation through analogy is also discussed by Ashouri (1996) and he asserts that nowadays every translator in Persian is qualified to render lexical items from European languages to Persian via analogy. In fact, he believes that the Persian language has the ability of making new words through compounding. However, he argues that mechanical word-formation (where each morpheme of a word is replaced item by item by equivalent parts in the new language) should be avoided. For example, the fabricated Persian word *?ensânšeklğiri* ‘anthropomorphism’ has been derived from *?ensân* ‘human’ and *šekl* ‘form’ and *ğiri* ‘becoming’. Ashouri (1996) states that such a word is neither euphonious nor transparent nor meaningful.

Some scholars (Sadeghi, 1986; Zomorrodian, 2003) stress the importance of the mass media in disseminating suggested equivalents and believe that schools and mass media including IRIB should be used for spreading selected words. Zomorrodian (2003) maintains that certain words in Persian have not been established due to the fact that the press has not been active in publicizing them. For instance, the word *xodro* ‘car’ has not been accepted widely although words *xodnevis* ‘fountain pen’ and *xodkâr* ‘biro’ are widely used by people.

Any native speaker is sensitive to well-formed and euphonious patterns. Sepanta (2003) shows that the adjacency of plosive velar and glottal consonants in Persian are very rare [due to imposition of language]. For instance, the Persian word *?afv* ‘pardon’ is acceptable but is not euphonious, therefore, it is pronounced as *?af*. According to the Zipf (1949) rules, the longer the word, the less probable it will be used. In other words, there is an inverse relationship between the length of a word and its frequency in linguistic context.

Euphony, as a linguistic feature, plays a key role in language when making new lexical items. In Persian, as Khoshkhuy (2000, p. 543) points out, ‘foul-sounding words

should be avoided because Modern Persian is a soft, refined and euphonious language.’ Bahrami Aghdam (1993) also believes that new words should be metrically compatible with words already existing in the language. For example, the word *kamdâšt* ‘shortage’ (from *kam* ‘little’ + *dâšt* ‘having’) can be replicated using the word *češmdâšt* ‘expectation’ (from *češm* ‘eye’ + *dâšt* ‘having’) which has already been established in Persian. Sami’ee (Gilani) (2000) stressing on phonotactics states that certain juxtaposition of phonemes pose certain limitations and believes that the occurrence of vowels in the initial position is impossible in Persian.

Word-formation can be discussed from a phonological perspective. One of the topics discussed in phonology is markedness. In fact, words may be marked or unmarked (see Chapter one, section 1.8). Eslami and Bijan Khan (2003) in an empirical study argue that the more unmarked the phonological structures of new words, the more likely they will be accepted by the public. In fact, they believe that individual word-formation is unmarked and that is why some words are welcome and used widely. Eslami and Bijan Khan (2003) conclude that the more unmarked the number of syllables within words, the more likely they are to be accepted by people. For instance, a three-syllabic word like *râyâne* ‘computer’ is preferred to a five-syllabic one like *dâdepardâzi* ‘data processing’ (from *dâde* ‘data’ + *pardâz* ‘dealing with’ + suff, -i) because the former is more unmarked. In addition, Eslami and Bijan Khan (2003: 434) emphasize the economy of language in that monosyllabic words are very frequent (43%) in Persian; however, in conscious word-formation, monosyllabic words are rarely created. Note that in monosyllabic words, as Eslami and Bijan Khan (2003) maintain, the CVCC structure is the most frequent and the CV is the least. They also point out that the APLL words *bâlgard* (from *bâl* ‘wing’ + *gard* ‘rotate’) and *čarxbâl* (from *čarx* ‘wheel’ + *bâl* ‘wing’) both meaning ‘helicopter’, can be good examples in considering

unmarkedness in morphology. These suggested words have CVC-CVCC and CVCC-CVC structures, respectively. However, the former is preferred to the latter due to the fact that words are more compatible with the CVC-CVCC structure in Persian. In this regard, Habibi (2003) implies that Iranians should have accepted the word *čarxbâl* from the Tajik language and avoided suggesting a synonymous word (*bâlgard*).

One of the topics discussed in phonology is sonority. It is defined as the overall loudness of a sound, relative to others of the same pitch, stress, and duration and the centre of a syllable is defined as the place where sonority is the greatest (Crystal, 2003: 423). Eslami and Bijan Khan (2003) believe that the more sonorous the word, the more likely it will be accepted since sonority is an instance of unmarkedness in Persian. The CV structure being the most frequent is the most unmarked in Persian and it is expected that through phonological processes and re-syllabification, other syllables change or become closer to CV. For example, words like *kârgar* ‘worker’ (from *kâr* ‘work’ + suff, *-gar* ‘doer’) and *sâzmân* ‘organization’ (from *sâz* ‘build’ + suff, *-mân*), which both enjoy CVC-CVC structures, are most often uttered as *kâr-e-gar* and *sâz-e-mân* with the CV-CV-CV structure, i.e., the CVC is changed to two CVs.

In other studies on ‘euphony’ and ‘transparency’ by Shokouhi and Hossein-Nia (1993), it was claimed that for potential words to be selected, they should be euphonious, transparent, compatible with grammar, and as short as possible not exceeding two or three syllables. In this connection, Shari’at (1993) speaks of euphony and persuasively argues that once a word lacks euphony, though made systematically, it will fail to be widely used. Moreover, if a word is similar to a word with a pejorative meaning, there is very little chance of accepting the word. Shari’at (1993) mentions that the two words *bolandgu* (from *boland* ‘loud’ + *gu* ‘say’) and *durgu* (from *dur* ‘far’ + *gu* ‘say’) were suggested for the foreign words ‘loudspeaker’ and ‘telephone’, respectively;

the former was accepted but the latter was not, due to the fact that it was similar to the pejorative Persian words *zurgu* ‘bully’ (from *zur* ‘force, compulsion’ + *gu* ‘say’).

Blocking is defined as “the non-occurrence of one form due to the simple existence of another” (Aronoff, 1976, p. 43). Experts or individuals may fail to study and consider the equivalents already suggested and used by other scholars. Scholars must be made aware of the existence of such equivalents. For example, the foreign word ‘maximum’ has three or more equivalents such as *bišine*, *mâkzimom*, *mehin* and *hadd-e aksar*. Another example is provided by the word ‘reaction’ with its seven equivalents. They are: *vâkoneš* (from *vâ* ‘again’ + *koneš* ‘action’), *aksol-amal* (from *aks* ‘against’ + *inf, -o(l)* + *amal* ‘action’), *barâžireš*, *fe’lon-fe’âl*, *radd-e amal*, *enfe?âl* and *reaksiyon* (Kafi, 1996, p. 269).

Although researchers have considered the role of speech community, their findings have been essentially anecdotal and not based on official statistics (Sadeghi, 2001). Moreover, the contradictory views of linguists (Zomorrodian, 2003) and men of letters (see Shari’at, 1986) involved in word-formation and word-selection lead to paradoxical and opposing views. This study therefore tries to state the fact that independent individuals and experts may have a lot to offer the APLL people in providing more acceptable equivalents and neologisms.

3.5.2 Demographic variables

Apart from linguistic factors, sociolinguistic factors play an important part when dealing with linguistic issues. In this study, these factors have also been taken into account. In fact, this study aims to determine if sociolinguistic factors such as age, gender, education/ major, place of residence, and the use of different accents/ dialects have a role in the acceptance or rejection of the words suggested by the APLL.

In any given speech community, there are different factors that may lead to a slight degree of variation of currency of certain language items in use (Baskaran, 2005).

Baskaran believes that:

“A dialect is therefore a variation of a language, a variant from having the common core elements of the main language but with the variations due mainly to geographical influence which is according to the particular regions in which the speakers largely reside...The age factor could also be a contributory element to giving a sociolectal difference... The more inebriated and ‘yuppie’ generation can, however, be heard often using slang and newly-blended words which are often not at all conceivable in their parents or grandparents’ linguistic repertoire (pp. 125-127).

The following section will discuss some demographic variables that affect choice.

3.5.2.1 Age

Aging is of central importance to human experience. Like gender, age correlates with variation by virtue of its social, not its biological status. Thus, the study of age, as a sociolinguistic variable, requires that we focus on the nature and social status of age and aging.

Many studies have been carried out regarding age (Jordan, 1941; Jones, 1949, 1950; Yamoore, 1985; Jahangiri, 1999; Keshavarz, 2000). Normally, adults are believed to be more conservatives than younger age groups in their use of variables (Horvath, 1985; Labov, 1966; Macaulay, 1977; Trudgill, 1974; W Wolfram, 1969). This conservatism could be due to the pressure for use of standard language in their workplace. According to Sankoff and Laberge (1978), it was revealed that there existed a correlation between the use of standard variables in Montreal French and participation in the standard language marketplace. This result is in line with Labov (1972) finding in that older men's linguistic behavior seems to change as they lose concern with power relationships. In effect, disengagement from the marketplace may result in a loss of

concern with standard language norms. Similarly, studies carried out by Edwards (1992) concerning social networks have reflected a relation between the use of vernacular variables and engagement in locally based networks.

It is worth noting that the relation between age and other social factors seems to be different across cultures. In fact, while conservatism has been attributed to adults, there is evidence suggesting that this is undoubtedly not universal. For instance, Paunonen (1994) found that Finish women become more normative in their use of /d/ as they moved from early adulthood to middle age, but other women become less normative as they moved from middle to old age. He attributed this to changes in women's position in society in that they have a greater sense of choice and power with defying of standard forms. In other words, older women seem to be enjoying greater freedom with the release from family responsibilities. As Eckert (1997, p. 157) states, “many women shed a variety of normative concerns along with their childrearing responsibilities, and it may well be that a relaxation of their language use is one aspect of this”.

Compared to child learners, adult learners seem to differ in many ways. According to Baker and Jones (1998, p. 659), factors such as motivation, perseverance, commitment, and opportunities seem to have a central role. Adults normally have freedom of choice for learning and are highly motivated. However, they have responsibilities for adult life and feel anxiety about their performance before their peers especially when the oral language skills are concerned. This may cause them to lose their motivation to speak a second language (see Newcombe, 2007, p. 36).

It should be noted that adults bring with them considerable knowledge and experience to the learning situation acquired over years. In this connection, Newcombe (2007, p. 17) states that some of this knowledge may facilitate their current learning;

however, some others may hinder their development due to dogmatic attitudes and lack of flexibility.

Studies have indicated that attitudes towards learning a second language become less positive with age. As Jones (1949; 1950) maintains, the attitude to the Welsh language becomes less favorable among 11-16 year-old students. In this connection, Jordan's (1941) reports show a similar finding on attitudes towards the French language among English students. These studies find an inverse relationship between age and attitudes. It is highly probable that older pupils find foreign/ second language learning more difficult and less valuable than other students do, especially if it is just a faculty's requirement.

On the contrary, other studies suggest that positive attitudes towards a second language increase with age, and this is also positively associated with achievement. Yamoor (1985) in her study on international students in the program of intensive English in Ohio University finds that the correlation between attitudes and achievement tends to increase as students grow older. In this regard, Gardner (1985) explains:

“The older students tend to have more knowledge of the language; hence the assessment of their achievement probably has more to do with their knowledge of the language than that for younger students. Then, too, their increased experience with the language would permit greater variation in success and failure which could be generalized” (P. 44).

In addition to this, as age goes up the individual tends to treat language differently. According to Modarresi (2012, p. 180), the deletion of final consonant in consonantal clusters at the end of Persian words is considered a non-prestigious feature. In other words, the consonants /t/ and /d/ in the final clusters of such Persian words as *dust* ‘friend’, *pošt* ‘back’, *mozd* ‘salary’ and *tond* ‘fast/ quick’ are liable to deletion and this can be observed in informal styles. In another study, Jahangiri (1999, p. 158) found that addressees' age determines the choice of polite forms by individuals. This indicates

a traditional view that older people should be respected. Meanwhile, adult females compared to adult males use more polite forms.

Furthermore, age-related linguistic features may be of lexical. For example, among under twenty-year-old Persian speakers, expressions like *xâlibandi* ‘bragging’ (from *xâli* ‘empty’ + *band* ‘do, attribute’ + suff, *-i*), *hâlgiri* ‘boredom’ (from *hâl* ‘feeling, condition’ + *gir* ‘take’ + suff, *-i*), etc., are used widely; however, the same forms are never or very little used by older individuals (Modarresi 2012, p. 179). Similarly, A. McEnery, J. P. Baker, and A. Hardie (2000); (T. McEnery, P. Baker, and A. Hardie, 2000), observed that young adults use four-letter words to a larger extent and this decreases when they come into old age. One possible explanation for not using such words and phrases as much is due to the fact that they are parents with younger children so they try to modify their language. This is called ‘age grading’ which is a variation associated with stages of people’s lives (Chambers, 1995, p. 164).

As for age-related differences, some other researchers (see, for example, Marinova-Tood, Marshall and Snow 2000; Schumann, 1978) pointed to the fact that it is the motivation rather than aging that has a key role in achieving satisfactory outcomes in language learning in that older beginners who achieve native-like proficiency are characterized by very high levels of motivation.

It is also worth noting that the continuation of first language lexical development clearly extends far beyond the teens. In effect, it is likely to end only when life ends. (Carroll, 1968, p. 124) concludes from a number of lexical studies that first language vocabulary tends to increase significantly up to at least the age of 40 or 50 whereas Diller (1971, p. 29) reports research showing that there is no point before death at which vocabulary acquisition can be predicted to cease.

Nevertheless, it is not the case that first learning vocabulary proceeds in the same way at the same rate and level of efficiency all the time. As for vocabulary learning by adult, evidences (see, for example, Arenberg, 1983; Hussian, 1981), show that the capacity of the elderly to recall memorized lexis in experimental conditions seems to be somewhat below that of younger ones, especially in respect of speed of response.

It is highly probable that the role of age in adopting positive or negative attitudes towards language and using or not using certain variations differs from one language to another, from one person to another, and on whether the language is of particular importance to the individual. Therefore, it appears likely that a positive attitude towards language increases with age since individuals realize the importance of that language.

3.5.2.2 Gender

Contemporary sociolinguistics owes much of its disciplines and directionality to William Labov and Peter Trudgill. In fact, no other scholars have been so influential in this field (Keshavarz, 2000, p. 146). From sociolinguistic perspective, researchers have been interested in men and women's speech. Among the issues discussed include gender and style shifting (for example, between formal and casual speech), prestigious and stigmatized variants, linguistic conservatism and the positive and negative evaluation of such change (see Sunderland, 2006, p. 7).

An important finding of Labov (1966) study was that women show much more concern for the correctness of their speech than men do. In another part of his study, Labov (1966) concluded that in careful speech, women use fewer stigmatized forms than men do and are more sensitive to prestigious form. This finding of Labov's is confirmed by Trudgill (1983) who claims that women are more conservative than men (who are thought to be more innovating) in dealing with language issues. In Trudgill's

(1972) earlier study, a random sample of sixty people were interviewed and it was found that women tended to use the prestigious form more than men. He also found that compared to men, women tended to over-report their pronunciation in that they produced more ‘prestigious’ sounds than they actually did.

It should be noted that language and gender has long been a subject of controversy in sociolinguistic literature. Studies of gender often seem to be contradictory due to using different methodology, samples used, and authors’ implicit assumptions about the issue and the like (Wodak and Gertraud, 1998). That is why women's language has been said to reflect conservatism, prestige consciousness, upward mobility, insecurity whereas men's language is said to show their toughness, independence, competence, hierarchy, control (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 1992, p. 90).

Generally, women and men interact closely without separating dialect groups like other groups in society might. Therefore, we do not have a separate set of features that we can label “women’s dialect” or “men’s dialect”, rather, there are some clear expectations about use affecting people’s reactions (Barry, 2002, p. 109). For the same reason, women tend to use certain words and structures. For example, colours like beige, mauve, teal, puce, lavender, and certain expressive adjectives such as gorgeous, adorable, divine, charming are not considered “masculine”. Tag questions, more polite, indirect commands and standard grammar is more associated with female usage whereas direct commands and nonstandard grammar is more associated with male usage (Barry, 2002, p. 109).

Further to this, other important studies (James and Lesley Milroy, 1980; 1981; 1987) reflect a qualitatively new approach to gender variation. Their research, compared to that of Labov, is more concerned with the internal variation within the working class

and generally not with the language community. Within working class speech alone, their finding demonstrated that “there are considerable differences between individuals, between different speech-styles, between men and women, and between older and younger speakers” (J. Milroy, 1981, p. 89). In spite of this, the results of L. Milroy (1980) again confirm that women use more standard forms than men and men more nonstandard variables than women do.

In addition to this, the results of Hudson’s (1980, pp. 164-165) report on a study (Jahangiri, 1980) of the pronunciation of certain words in Tehran Persian show that all participants of the university-educated male group use less assimilation than all members of the next group, those with secondary education, and those, in turn, less than the men with primary education, and so on. The same situation is true of females. It should be noted that in Iran, the use of sex-dependent expressions of the opposite sex could be considered unusual. For example, males consider the Persian phrase *Xoda margam bede!* ‘Oh my goodness’ as feminine and try to avoid using it, on the other hand, females consider expressions like *Čâkeram* ‘Thanks’ as masculine and try not to use it (Modarresi 2012). Women are said to be more sensitive to their language than men are and try to use less prestigious forms. For example, such forms as *lavâzemât* ‘accessories’ (from *lavâzem* ‘accessories’ + plural suff, *-ât*) and *maxârejât* ‘expenses’ (from *maxârej* ‘expenses’ + plural suff, *-ât*), which have undergone double plural-formation and are of high frequency in the speech of certain groups of Persian native speakers, are used less by females since they are not considered prestigious (Modarresi 2012).

Gender has been discussed in relation to phonology and morphology. Concerning the verbal behaviors in certain Iranian novels, Emam (1996, p. 197) found that there were no significant phonological differences between males and females’

speech, but in terms of lexical differences, it was revealed that lexical choice was of great importance and this makes each gender use certain words and expressions. Such lexical choice can help readers recognize whether the authors are male or female. Moreover, based on a research (Paknahad, 2002) carried out in Iran, there are cases of complimentary pairs in which one word is peculiar to males and the other to females; and the female forms mean something very different from the male forms. Among these are the pairs *xânum-e ra'ees* 'chairwoman' and *âqây-e ra'ees* 'chairman' in which the former refers to a woman who runs a brothel whereas the latter means a manager who is responsible for a reputable place/ office. This indicates distinct gender bias in the use of the marked female forms for certain male professions.

Meanwhile, based on the data obtained from the extensive recordings of conversations between male and female couples, Fishman (1980, p. 130) argued that it was consistently evident that when men initiated a topic of conversation, the women were prepared to engage with what they said. However, when the women attempted to initiate a topic, it had less chance of being successful. For that reason, Fishman argues, women tend to ask more questions than men do. What Fishman points out here is that men and women's linguistic behaviour was quite distinct in terms of the quantity of hedges or questions that occurred; this was not necessarily an issue of gender per se. In fact, Fishman argues that women used these strategies because they were not being listened to by their male interlocutors. However, gender relations tend to be systematic and this situation is therefore more likely to be faced by women than men.

On the other hand, in another study carried out by Krupnick (1985) at Harvard University, it was observed that in classes taught by men and with a majority of male students, males spoke two and a half times longer than females but in classes taught by women female students spoke three times more than male students.

It is worth noting here that a number of attitudinal studies reveal that females have more favorable attitudes towards a language than males do. Jones (1949; 1950) found statistically significant differences between girls and boys in the attitudes toward Welsh. In other words, girls showed more favorable attitudes towards Welsh than did boys.

Furthermore, Gardner and Lambert (1972) reports show that girls have favorable attitude towards French while boys adopt the unfavorable attitude. In another study, Lai (1977) found that female students in Tainan took more favorable attitudes towards English. Moreover; after reviewing 33 studies across different regions, Gardner (1985) concludes that girls tend to have significantly more positive attitudes than do boys.

Why such a conclusion is reached is not clear. In this connection, Neale, Gill, and Tismet (1970) hold that language is more rewarding to girls than to boys. This phenomenon, as maintained by Freeman and McElhinny (1996, p. 220), could be attributed to sociological factors. Girls tend to socialize more than boys do, therefore they need to communicate with the community and find language helpful for this purpose.

That females have a favorable attitude towards language is also emphasized in feminist literature, cross-cultural and social psychology research studies that link females' positive attitude towards language learning to their social-psychological orientation (Atari, 1977; Carlson and Widaman, 1988; Oleson, 1994). From feminist viewpoint and social psychology, females are more apt to support peace, cross-cultural communication and international understanding. As stated by Atari (1977), learning languages is an essential component of realizing peace, international understanding and communication. By contrast, Haque (1989) investigation of the possible effect of gender

on attitudes of students towards English in Bangladesh shows that the learners' gender does not have a major impact on either attitudes or achievement.

To sum up this part, it could be stated that the research on the issue of gender and its effect on language seems to be rather inconclusive and as (Gal, 1992) suggests, it requires that we carry out further studies on languages other than English more thoroughly and that we review studies already neglected in European literature.

3.5.2.3 Education and Major

In a speech community, linguistic differences that are at times quite noticeable show a significant correlation with individuals' level of education. Not all forms of English seem to be equally acceptable for all occasions and it would appear that the use of certain forms of English may label people as uneducated (Barry, 2002, p. 69).

Education as a factor affecting individuals' speech has a special significance to sociolinguists, especially when gender difference is involved. In this regard, Jahangiri (1999, p. 121) claims that university-educated women are good examples for using standard Persian and have advantages over other groups. By the same token, metathesis and devoicing processes are very limited and hardly occur in the speech of educated Persian speakers whereas these processes are noticeable in the speech of illiterate people (Modarresi, 2012). For instance, the words *nosxe* 'prescription' and *gard* 'powder' become *noxse* and *gart*, respectively. The use of these latter forms suggests illiteracy or lower education.

Further studies show that the processes of addition and deletion normally occur in colloquial speech of all Persian speakers but they are more common among less educated individuals. The words *dom* 'tail' and *dast* 'hand' become *domb* and *das*, respectively when addition and deletion are at work (Modarresi, 2012).

There are grounds for supposing that, children of uneducated parents used less nonstandard varieties whereas children of educated parents made use of more nonstandard varieties to make a distinction between themselves and their parents (Jahangiri, 1999, p. 117).

In another experimental study, Jahangiri (1980, cited in Hudson, 1980, p. 170) observed that there was a close relationship between level of education and the occurrence of vowel harmony in Persian words like *bekon* 'do' and *begir* 'take'. The formal versions of these words change to *bokon* and *bigir* in colloquial Persian once vowel harmony occurs. That is, the vowel /e/ in the initial syllable is harmonized with /o/ and /i/ in the next syllable. Based on the results of this study, the less educated the Persian native speakers in Tehran are, the more they use vowel harmony.

With respect to the specialization of students, that is, the department they are enrolled in, it seems to exert an influence on their attitudes towards language learning. However, the results of related research studies are inconclusive. According to Haque (1989), academic major does not seem to have any significant effect on students' attitudes towards the English language in Bangladesh whereas different findings reported by Durbara (1998) demonstrate significant differences between first year undergraduate students of Engineering and Arts in University of Malaya in that the Engineering students reflecting more positive attitudes towards English. In this connection, Durbara believes that the reason behind such a difference is due to the availability of a considerable amount of written texts in language; accordingly, Engineering students use English more frequently than students of Arts do. Similarly, Chandrasegaran's (1981) findings revealed that attitudes towards English are affected by the educational stream of the students in the secondary schools of Johor, Malaysia.

In other words, Science students in Chandrasegaran's study had more favorable attitudes towards English than non-Science students did.

Going by these results, it is expected that the the respondents from the Persian Language Department, more than students of any other departments, will have positive attitudes towards the APLL and its activities. Such a prediction may be supported by Al-Malkhmzouni's (1989) and Ibtisam (1999) findings of Turkish university students and Malaysian university students, respectively in that the students reflected positive attitudes to the Arabic language and its use as a medium of instruction. In fact, they attribute these positive attitudes to the students' academic major, requiring them to use the Arabic language.

In sum, it could be said that the field of study, which provides more opportunities to use a particular language, generates positive attitudes towards it. Students of such major may become more familiar and at ease with that particular language.

3.5.2.4 Geographic/ Regional difference

The nineteenth century seems to be a landmark in the history of the study of regional variation in language. As Meyerhoff (2006, p. 13) holds, "linguists have found that regional variation can highlight the importance of non-linguistic factors".

Languages and their rules change over time. These changes manifest themselves as regional dialect differences when people change their place of residence. As Beeman (1986, p. 93) maintains:

"To posit a uniform sound system for a uniform dialect of "standard Persian" is to espouse a fiction, because there is no speaker in any language who confines his sound production in actual speech on all occasions to an invariant closed corpus of sounds (cf. Labov, 1972; 1973). The positing of such sound systems for analytical purposes has continued as standard practice in linguistics because variation in speech has rarely been a central concern in the description of language until recent years."

Dialects may differ from one another in many different ways. When we talk about these differences, we often use standard variation as a reference point. Such a version [(as the case of English or Persian)] is considered to be the neutral, universal language of public discourse. According to Barry (2002, p. 99), this is “what is heard in television and radio broadcasts and what is written in newspapers, textbooks, and official public documents. It is considered to be the dialect of the educated in this country”.

Language is a means by which we identify ourselves and reveal our identity to others. Some versions seem to be highly valued whereas others are highly devalued (Barry, 2002, p. 220). In spite of this, people have the right to use their patterns and variety of languages. As reported by Wolfram and Schilling-Estes (1998, p. 285) students are affirmed to use the dialects of their nurture or whatever dialects in which they find their own identity and style. This helps a nation to be proud of its diverse heritage and preserve its heritage of dialects.

The finding of Pauwels (1998, pp. 141-144) on the use of “*Ms*” among Australian women is an interesting one. The study involved short interview with 300 women in Australian cities and regional towns aiming to establish a profile of *Ms*-users. The results revealed a stronger use of “*Ms*” in metropolitan than in regional centres. In the two largest cities of Sydney and Melbourne, while usage rated approach 40%, regional towns and centres recorded around 23% use. This lower use in regional centres suggests that the individuals have more conservative attitude towards feminist issues. Nonetheless, it is worth pointing out that the differences between city and country were not statistically significant.

In an experimental study, the extent to which the final /æ/ occurs in the speech of a number of Persian speakers in both Tehran and Qazvin (165 km northwest of

Tehran) was measured and compared. The results disclosed that while the final /æ/ did not essentially appear in the speech of Tehran interviewees, it was still significantly revealed in the case of Qazvin informants. This resulted in the emergence of differences between Tehran and Qazvin speeches. In general, due to the fact that the process of changing /æ/ to /e/ at the end of Persian words (as one of the features of Tehran Persian) is socially prestigious, younger and more educated people in Qazvin have a greater tendency to final /e/, especially on more formal occasions (Modarresi 2012). Thus, such linguistic change in Tehran is at a more advanced stage compared to Qazvin (and many other areas) and this has led to the emergence of differences in the speech of Tehran and Qazvin speakers (Modarresi 2012).

The linguistic and sociolinguistic (demographic) variables in the present study are incorporated in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The role of these variables in affecting the participants' attitudes is tested by employing a number of treatments (see 4.13.2.1, and 4.13.2.2).

In summary, the best judges of linguistic choices are the members of the speech community. In effect, we should be studying their judgments and, accordingly, this study has used a questionnaire in an attempt to obtain feedback from the Iranian state university students as to which of the APLL words are accepted or rejected and the reasons for this. Words may be accepted by an official body for different reasons but what are the factors that make coined lexical items acceptable by the general public?

Chapter 4 discusses the methodology used in this study as how to collect and analyze the data obtained from the research instruments; i.e. questionnaire and interview, in order to attain the objectives of this study.

3.6 Summary

Chapter Three was devoted to review of related literature where the Terminology, Schools of Terminology, Academy of Language in Iran, Malaysia and Indonesia, and Language Planning were discussed. Meanwhile, approaches to word-formation and word-selection in Persian as well as demographic variables were covered. In the next chapter, the Research Methodology is fully discussed and explained.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an account of the research methodology, the population, sample and the instruments used. A questionnaire is administered to 500 Iranian state university students enrolled in different universities in the city of Tehran (see Section 1.7) to investigate their attitudes towards the APLL and its activities. This is followed by follow-up interviews with a small number of students and the APLL experts exploring issues arising from the questionnaire data in more depth. The procedures of collection and analysis of data are also described in this chapter.

4.2 Research Methodology

A non-experimental descriptive research method is used, employing questionnaire to collect and process data regarding Iranian state university students' attitudes towards the general words promoted by the Academy of Persian Language and Literature (APLL). Meanwhile, this is a qualitative research since it involves recording behaviour in natural setting (interview). In fact, the qualitative phase is used to ensure validity.

This study uses a qualitative-quantitative method or mixed method since it is considered that quantitative measures would usefully supplement and extend the qualitative analysis. In effect, the present study is triangulation since the researcher initially discussed the previous researches, providing the background for the study and how they are related to the study. This is followed by using questionnaires and conducting interviews with two different groups including 21 university students and 5 APLL experts. According to (Riazi, 1999, p. 285), triangulation is collecting

information from a diverse range of individuals and settings, employing two or more methods or techniques.

4.2.1 Descriptive Research

Descriptive methodology is a widely used approach in social sciences studies and education (Gall, Gall, and Borg, 2003). Through descriptive method, researches attempt to describe and interpret the current status of phenomena. A great number of reported researches in education, especially in applied linguistics, are descriptive in nature. Descriptive method of research enjoys a variety of techniques which suit almost any sort of research questions (Zohrabi and Farrokhi, 2006).

Survey research, as the most descriptive research in the behavioral sciences (Long, 1988), asks people questions about their behaviors, attitudes, and opinions attempting to find relationships between the characteristics of the respondents and their reported behaviors and opinions. For instance, a survey could examine whether there is a relationship between gender and people's attitudes about some social issue (Marczyk, et al. 2005). The great virtue of survey studies is that they can provide information on large groups of people, allowing researchers to assess a wider variety of behaviors and other phenomena than can be studied in a typical naturalistic observation study (Marczyk, *et al.* 2005).

Form the point of view of time, researchers can think of research either as cross-sectional or longitudinal. In the former case, the research is conducted at one single point in time whereas in the latter the study involves the investigation over several time-periods of individuals or groups of individuals (Porte, 2002, p. 238).

Wiersma (1986) introduces another classification in that he discusses survey research in terms of two criteria: (1) the group measured and (2) the method of data collection. In the former, it can be a population or a sample. Population surveys (or

censuses) are suitable for large populations whereas a sample survey involves “a sample”, a subset of the population, which is to be measured.

In the latter, there are two basic categories of data: (1) nonmetric and (2) metric, each has its own methodology, methods and techniques: Nonmetric data (also referred to as qualitative data) are typically attributes, characteristics, or categories that describe an individual and cannot be quantified. Metric data (also referred to as quantitative data) exist in differing amounts or degrees, and they reflect relative quantity or distance. Metric data allow researchers to examine amounts and magnitudes, while nonmetric data are used predominantly as a method of describing and categorizing (Hair *et al.*, 1995, cited in (Marczyk, *et al.* 2005). In other words, quantitative research is based on the objective measurement and statistical analysis of numerical data to understand and explain phenomena. Here, researchers use questionnaires to collect data.

On the other hand, in qualitative research, the researcher is concerned with qualitative phenomena. In fact, researchers use interviews, observation and other techniques.

4.2.2 Mixed Methods Research

While qualitative and quantitative research are believed to be studied along a continuum rather than as an either/ or choice for the researcher, each approach has its own particular characteristics, making it applicable to certain steps in conducting study (Farhady and Foroozandeh, 2005, p. 32).

Researchers, at times, combine quantitative and qualitative methods under the titles of multitrait-multimethod research, methodological triangulation or mixed methods research (Creswell *et al.*, 2003). According to Strauss and Corbin (1998, p.

34), “the qualitative should direct the quantitative and the quantitative feedback into the qualitative in a circular”.

As Sanderowski (2003) maintains, there are two main purposes for using mixed methods. In the first instance, the goal is to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon whereas, in the second, it is strived to verify one set of findings against the other. In other words, the second purpose is the traditional goal of triangulation, namely to validate one’s conclusion by presenting converging results obtained through different methods.

In the present study, the second goal is intended. In fact, what the researcher tries to do is to compare the results obtained from both the questionnaire and the interview (of which the questions are mainly based on the questionnaire) in order to make sure whether there are significant differences between the results achieved through using the two different instruments. More precisely, after administering the questionnaires and obtaining the results, the researcher will interview a certain number of students and a small number of APLL experts. This will be followed by codifying and quantifying the answers to be compared with the ones yielded from the questionnaires.

4.3 Corpus

The APLL has so far coined and approved 282 general words (equivalents) for foreign loan words during the past several decades (Sadeghi, 2001). It is worth noting that only a limited number of new words seem to have been added to this number. According to the custodian of the APLL Word-selection Department, of all 30 thousand new words created and suggested by the APLL, only 300 words are allocated to general words (Reza’ee, 2011).

The approved words have been announced to all governmental offices and institutions, newspapers and the Islamic Republic of Iran's Broadcasting (IRIB) by the government.

Visiting the website "<http://www.magiran.com>", the researcher noticed seven newspapers (both governmental including IRAN, KEYHAN, JAM-E JAM and RESALAT; and non-governmental including E'TEMAD, AFTAB-E YAZD, and DONYA-YE- EGHTEHAD) and 82 magazines. This website was studied to determine the frequency of the words used by typing the foreign words together with their equivalents in the spaces provided. The overall result within a year (2009) showed that 54% of the equivalents (i.e. 152 words) suggested by the APLL had been used in the aforementioned newspapers and magazines (ranging from one time to more than 1000 times) and 46% of the APLL equivalents (i.e. 130 words) had not been used by writers of the articles and the editors.

In order to investigate the respondents' feeling towards the acceptance and/ or rejection of the APLL general words, the researcher provided 50 words. The reason behind choosing 50 words is that respondents normally do not seem to be positive about answering boring long lists of questions, even if they do, they do not respond to questions attentively. This was exactly the case with the APLL suggested words (see the Limitation of the study in section 1.9). Therefore, the researcher provided the list of 50 words. From the APLL words that had been used in the above-mentioned newspapers and magazines (henceforth, frequent words), 25 out 152 words were chosen in descending order (from the most frequent words to the least frequent). Another 25 out of 130 words were selected from the APLL words that had never been used in the papers and magazines in question (henceforth, non-frequent words) through systematic

random sampling with an interval of five (see Sub-section c from Section Three Appendix A).

It needs pointing out that apart from questionnaire and interviews, the researcher visited the APLL institution and interviewed a small number of experts involved in making neologisms. The researcher also investigated books, papers and pertinent documents discussing the APLL and relevant issues (see Chapter Three).

In the next section, the researcher will discuss the construction of the instruments, the validity and reliability of the instruments and the treatment of data collected by different instruments.

4.4 The construction of the questionnaire

Questionnaire, as the main tool of survey research (Ibtisam, 1999), is a set of questions on a topic or groups of topics designed to be answered by respondents. According to Kumar Singh (2006, p. 192), “A questionnaire is a systematic compilation of questions that are submitted to a sampling of population from which information is desired.” In educational researches, questionnaires consist of a set of questions or statements to which individuals are asked to respond. The questions are frequently asked for facts or the opinions, attitudes or preferences of the respondents. If the respondents are unclear about the meaning of a question, they can ask for clarification.

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire is used to convert into data the information given by the participants. By providing access to what is “inside a person’s head”, this approach makes it possible to measure what a person knows, what he likes and dislikes, what he thinks, what experiences have taken place, and what is occurring at present. This information may be transferred into a number of quantitative data by using rating scale techniques (Hayman, 1968, p. 66).

4.5 The contents of the questionnaire

In designing the questionnaire, the present researcher adopted well-organized standard patterns (Likert scales, Semantic differential scales and Numerical rating scales), which would help the respondents feel at ease while answering the questions and to express their opinions freely. Some items were adopted from the research done by Ibtisam (1999), other items were developed using the literature review (Z. Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998; Gardner, 1985; Gardner and Lambert, 1972), while still others were designed specifically for the purpose of the study and adopted to the Iranian context.

The questionnaire was provided in both Persian and English. In fact, all the participants filled the Persian version (since not all the Iranian university students were qualified enough to understand the questionnaire in English). Meanwhile, the English version of the questionnaire was provided only for the English reader's convenience and due to the fact that the medium of researching is English. Finally, a pilot study was conducted.

The approach used in this study is a quantitative method which is used by sociologists for obtaining statistical information (see Appendix A). Being descriptive and cross-sectional, this study is based on a questionnaire as the main data-gathering tool. It should be noted that the main attraction of questionnaires is their efficiency in terms of researcher time and effort. If constructed well, processing of data obtained from questionnaire can also be fast and relatively straightforward, especially by using some computer software. Meanwhile, as a survey method, questionnaires are useful especially when realizing the anonymity of the respondents (Dörnyei, 2007). However, there are some limitations here. It can be boring and time taking to complete long questionnaires, and "they invite carelessness" (Gillham, 2008, p. 11) (see Chapter One, Section 1.9).

Following the methodology adopted by many researchers such as Z. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998); Zubaidah (2002); David, P, and Yee.W. (2008) and having reviewed the commonly utilized methods, the researcher decided to develop an extensive questionnaire to obtain comparable data from all respondents. Questionnaire data from the respondents provided an overall picture of linguistic behaviour of the Iranian state university students. The questionnaire responses were subjected to statistical analysis (SPSS 11.50) to yield information based on frequency counts and percentages of the acceptance and rejection of the APLL general words. The findings are expected to provide possible answers for the Research Questions in Chapter One (see Section, 1.4) through the conclusions drawn from the data analysis and suggestions presented in Chapter Seven.

The questionnaire consists of a cover letter and three major parts. The cover letter includes some information about the research. The aims of the questionnaire were spelled out and the importance of the students' opinions was emphasized. It was made clear that all answers would be held in confidence, and would be used specifically for research purposes. The students were also told that their names were not necessary to be mentioned in order to ensure the privacy of participants and confidentiality of the data (see Appendix A). Each section including a group of items pertaining attitudes towards the APLL and relevant issues is explained below.

4.5.1 Part A: Personal details

Part A is dedicated to personal details, namely: (1) the gender of the participant (male and female) (2) the major of the participant and department and (3) the academic level of the participant whether he/ she is Bachelor, Master or Ph.D candidates). (A copy of the questionnaire in both English and Persian can be found in Appendices A and B). In earlier researches (Gardner and Lambert, 1972), attitudes are discussed

without taking into account certain variables such as gender, field of study and programmes. Although as generally discussed in some studies (see Yamoor, 1985), such variables are presented to describe the sample rather than investigate their significance for attitude. The researcher included the aforementioned variables in the present study so as to assess any possible relationship with these variables and attitudes towards the APLL and its activities. In some researches (see, for example, Gardner and Smythe, 1975; Jones, 1949, 1950), girls have been recognised to take more favourable attitudes towards language than boys do. Accordingly, the researcher decided to include the gender variable to find out whether there existed any clear distinction between attitudes to the APLL and the respondents' gender. This is the case with the students' 'department' and 'programme' in that they are also included to see if these demographic variables affect the students' attitudes towards the APLL and relevant issues

4.5.2 Part B: Main questions

Part B, in turn, is composed of three sections as follows: (1) The APLL and its activities (2) Culture, Media and Personal interest and (3) Words and their features.

4.5.2.1 Section One: APLL and its Activities

Section One deals with the APLL and its activities presented with twenty-two worded items in that each participants are asked to rate himself/ herself, using a 5-point Likert scale, as to their feeling towards the APLL and its activities. In fact, this part addresses the respondents' familiarity with and their interest in word-formation and word-selection. The respondents are asked about their knowledge of foreign language(s) and its effect in accepting the APLL new words, about the success of the APLL in fulfillment its activities, and about the involvement of experts (like linguists, distinguished writers/ translators, etc.) for providing new lexical items. Meanwhile, the

participants are also queried about the use of the APLL words by certain individuals (such as reporters, and university professors). The responses comprise five points which indicate the extent to which the twenty items are considered, ranging from the lower ('Very little' and 'little'), Neutral ('Fine'), to higher ('Much' and 'Very much'). Each of the five descriptions is given simple weights of 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, respectively. A sample item is "The professors/ lecturers in my university use the APLL words..."

4.5.2.2 Section Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests

Section Two which concerns culture, media and personal interests is composed of twenty statements/ items in three sub-sections: Sub-sections a, b and c. Sub-section a (with eleven items) asks the participants to best describe their feeling towards language-connected factors. Here, the importance of prevailing accents or dialects, affixes and roots, classic and contemporary books written by distinguished scholars as well as the creation of a database for the creation of new words is addressed. Meanwhile, the respondents are asked about the experiences and knowledge of other countries (like France, India, etc.) for creating new words.

In this section, the respondents are asked to mark one of five choices from 'Very little', 'Little', 'Fine', 'Much', and 'Very much'. An example of item is "It is important to utilize words used in the classic Persian books in order to make new words." ('Very little', 'Little', 'Fine', 'Much', 'Very much'). This variable is included to determine if it is of importance to make use of words written in the classic Persian books (like *Bustân*, *Hâfiz*, *Shâhnâme*) to provide equivalents.

Sub-section b in Section Two consists of a Likert-like scale of five statements addressing the respondents to rate themselves as to how often they read newspapers and magazines, listen to and watch literary programmes on the radio and TV and how often they study literary works. An example of statement is "I watch literary programmes on

television.” These variables were included to determine whether there is any correlation between the respondents’ attitudes towards the acceptance of the APLL-promoted lexical items and their use of the above-mentioned media and programmes. For such an item, the participants are asked to choose one of the following options: ‘Always’, ‘Usually’, ‘Sometimes’, ‘Rarely’, and ‘Never’.

Sub-section c in Section Two is concerned with the respondents’ feeling towards media (such as cinema, newspaper, radio, satellite, SMS, TV, theatre, and the Internet) in order of preference. In this section, the researcher asks the participants to write a number (from 1 to 8) in front of each of the aforementioned media in order of preference. These variables were included to determine the respondents’ attitudes towards different ways of promoting the words suggested and promoted by the APLL.

4.5.2.3 Section Three: Words and their Features

Section Three of the questionnaire (with three Sub-sections) deals with words and their features. Section Three (with eleven items) asks the participants to describe their feeling towards language-connected factors.

More precisely, Sub-section a consists of a Likert-like scale of five worded statement concerning words and five relevant features including ‘brevity’, ‘productivity’, ‘euphony’, ‘semantic transparency’ and ‘eusemy’ (see section 1.8). Here, the participants are asked to tick in the appropriate box that best describe their feelings about words and the five features in question. The rationale for including these variables is to determine which feature(s) are the respondents’ top priorities when choosing new lexical items. The choices are composed of five points ranging from the higher (‘Strongly agree’, ‘Agree’), ‘Neutral’ (Fine), to lower (‘Disagree’, and ‘Strongly disagree’). Each of the five descriptions is given simple weights of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. An example of item is “Euphony is important when creating new words.”

Sub-section b in Section Three consists of a Likert-like scale of five statements addressing the respondents to choose a number (from 1th to 5th) in the spaces provided as to the five mentioned word features in order of importance. An example of statement is “Productivity is my (1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th) preference when accepting new words.”

Sub-section c of Section Three is concerned with the respondents’ feeling towards 50 APLL general words in terms of the five word features (brevity, eusemy, euphony, semantic transparency, and productivity) already mentioned in section one and section two in part three. These APLL lexical items are provided to determine whether the participants are positive about them. If so, what is/ are the reason(s) behind it?

It should be noted that these sections and items are included based on studying related Review of Literature and then are constructed and classified consulting similar questionnaires. This classification, which is in accord with the Research Questions, helps to easily analyze the data obtained from the questionnaire.

Before administering the questionnaire, the research assistants (ten personnel from the ISPA) were briefed to approach the subjects in a friendly manner and try to gain their cooperation and assistance. They were asked to explain the goals of the research to the subjects and assure them that the personal information they provided in the first part of the questionnaire would not be disclosed. In order to ascertain this point, the subjects were asked not to write their names.

In an attitude questionnaire, favourable attitudes are reflected in higher scores (Seliger and Shohmay, 1989). Therefore, in all parts of attitudes scale, the respondents are asked to rate each item on a continuum of options ranging from ‘Very little’ to ‘Very much’ (from ‘Strongly agree’ to ‘Strongly disagree’; and from ‘Always’ to ‘Never’) (see Appendix A). Response options for the worded statements are assigned

numbers or values ranging from 5 for ‘Very much’ (‘Always’/ ‘Strongly agree’) to 1 for ‘Very little’ (‘Never’/ ‘Strongly disagree’).

To give up sharp contrast, the two lowest responses (‘Very little’ and ‘Little’/ ‘Strongly disagree’ and ‘Disagree’) are combined together. The highest responses (‘Very much’ and ‘Much’/ ‘Strongly agree’ and ‘Agree’) are also combined together. The means are calculated, and they range between ‘1’ and ‘5’. These means are divided into three categories: 1.00–2.33; 2.34–3.67; and 3.68–5.00. The attitudes are considered positive if the item concerned gets a mean above 3.68, moderate if between 2.34–3.67 and negative if lower than 2.34 (Gay, 1992). This broad definition and short summary of bits of data helps for better and easier classification and conclusion.

The Likert-like scale is selected since it is ‘the most commonly used scaling technique’ (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010, p. 27), relatively easy to construct, more reliable, easily used in respondent-centered and stimulus-centered studies, and is frequently used by the students of opinion research (Kothari, 2004). It should be note that after administrating the item, each response option is assigned a number to score purposes (for instance, ‘very little’ = 1 ... ‘very much’ = 5) and the scores for the items that address the same target are summed up or averaged (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 105).

4.5.3 Part C: Comments and Suggestions

In this section, the respondents are asked to comment on the APLL, its activities and the words suggested by the APLL to obtain more in-depth information. The participants were provided with the researcher’s phone number and email address in case they wished to pass more information or make any helpful comments and suggestions about the APLL and its activities.

4.6 The validity of the questionnaire

A questionnaire is considered to be valid if the data serve the purpose for which they were collected. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 93), defines validity as “the extent to which a psychometric instrument measures what it has been designed to measure”. In other words, validity refers to the extent to which observation and statements are true reflections of measuring what is supposed to be measured.

In this study, the researcher took some steps to ensure the construct and content validity of the questionnaire. The construct validity refers to the congruence between the study’s results and the theoretical framework guiding the research. In fact, construct validity queries “whether the theory supported by the findings provides the best available explanation of the results” (Marczyk et al., 2005, p. 67). Construct validity is relevant to this study, because it is “the degree to which a measure is ‘invented’ to explain non-observable behavior: orientation, attitude and motivational intensity, and to explain certain differences between individuals” (Gay, 1976, p. 89).

The content-related validity refers to the relevance of the instrument strategy to the construct being measured. Put simply, the content validity is the extent to which an instrument provides adequate coverage of the topic under study. It may be “determined by using a panel of experts who shall judge how well the measuring instrument meets the standards, but there is no numerical way to express it.” (Kothari, 2004, p. 74). In order to ensure the content validity of the questionnaire, the present researcher had it evaluated by five experts in the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya in Malaysia as well as five experts in Iran in the Faculty of Humanities and Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Tehran. The purpose was to eliminate ambiguity, irrelevance and verbiage. These experts were given a clear idea about the purpose of the instrument and what the instrument was supposed to measure. They

reviewed the questions by evaluating the construct and content validity of the questionnaire for the purpose of ensuring that each item was relevant to the research questions. After the evaluation, the panel returned the questionnaires to the researcher. Some valuable revision were suggested, and based on those suggestion, the researcher revised and rewrote some other items. Items that did not have the consensus of the experts were deleted. For example, the questionnaire was basically composed of two major parts: Part A: personal details and Part B: Main questions. This two-part format changed to a three-part format: Part A: personal details, Part B: Main questions and Part C: Comments and suggestions.

In Part B (i.e. the main questions) the order of Sections were changed. That is, it changed from “(1) The APLL, (2) Word features, (3) Culture, Media and Personal interests” to “(1) The APLL and its activities, (2) Culture, Media and Personal interests and (3) Words and their features”. Meanwhile, the four-Likert like scale (‘Very little’, ‘Little’, ‘Much’ and ‘Very much’) were changed to five-Likert like scale (i.e. ‘Strongly disagree’, ‘Disagree’, ‘Fine’, ‘Agree’ and ‘Strongly agree’). Meanwhile, in some questions semantic differential scales (‘Always’, ‘Usually’, ‘Sometimes’, ‘Rarely’ and ‘Never’) were used

In the following, based on the pilot-study, a number of changes made to the first draft of the questionnaire are discussed. In Part B, the questions were from 1 to 18 in which some questions, in turn, were composed of several minor questions. However, in the final draft, each of the minor questions was considered as a separate question. For example, the question 1 included two minor questions (1a and 1b). Questions 1a and 1b, in turn, were changed to questions 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively. All changes made to the first draft are shown in the Table 4.1 below (see also Appendices A and C).

Table 4.1 Comparing the first draft and final draft of the questionnaire

First draft		Final draft		Comments
Section	Q.	Section	Q.	
One: The APLL	1a	One: The APLL and its activities	1 and 2	1 question was divided into 2 separate questions.
One: The APLL	1b	One: The APLL and its activities	3 and 4	1 question was divided into 2 separate questions.
One: The APLL	2	One: The APLL and its activities	12-16	1 question was divided into 5 separate questions.
One: The APLL	3	One: The APLL and its activities	6-9	1 question was divided into 4 separate questions.
One: The APLL	4	One: The APLL and its activities	10 and 11	1 question was divided into 2 separate questions.
Two: Word features	5	Three: Words and their features (Sub-section a)	1-5	Question 5 (with 8 parts) was changed to 5 questions.
Two: Word features	6	Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests (Sub-section a)	2-6	1 question was divided into 5 separate questions.
Two: Word features	7	Three: Words and their features (Sub-section b)	1-5	Question 7 (with 4 parts) was changed to 5 questions.
Three: Culture and Social Status	8	Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests (Sub-section a)	11	Question 8 from Part Three (first draft) and question 11 from Sub-section a of Part Two (final draft) were swapped.
Three: Culture and Social Status	9	One: The APLL and its activities	17	Question 9 from Part Three (first draft) and question 17 from Part One (final draft) were swapped.
Three: Culture and Social Status	10	One: The APLL and its activities	18-22	1 question was divided into 5 separate questions.
Three: Culture and Social Status	11	Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests (Sub-section a)	1	Question 11 from Part Three (first draft) and question 1 from Sub-section a of Part Two (final draft) were swapped.
Four: Personal interests and Media	12	Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests (Sub-section a)	7	Question 12 from Part Four (first draft) and question 7 from Sub-section a of Part Two (final draft) were swapped.
Four: Personal interests and Media	13	Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests (Sub-section a)	9-10	1 question was divided into 2 separate questions.
Four: Personal interests and Media	14	Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests (Sub-section b)	1-5	1 question was divided into 5 questions.
Four: Personal interests and Media	15	One: The APLL and its activities	5	Question 15 from Part Four (first draft) and question 5 from Part One (final draft) were swapped.
Four: Personal interests and Media	16	Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests (Sub-section c)	1-8	1 question was divided into 8 separate parts.
Four: Personal interests and Media	17	Three: Words and their features (Sub-section c)	1-50	Composing 50 APLL words

4.7 The reliability of the questionnaire

Reliability has to do with the precision and consistency of the measurement. It refers to “our measure repeatedly delivering the same (or near same) results” (Litosseliti, 2010, p. 55). Theoretically, the reliability of an instrument refers to the extent to which scores on the instrument are free from errors of measurement (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010, p. 93). The most famous indicator to report the reliability of an instrument is the correlation coefficient. We can improve the overall reliability of a scale by identifying and then deleting items reducing the scale’s Cronbach Alpha. This must be done before adequate reliability is achieved (at least 0.70) (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010, p. 119).

Reliability is used to measure the extent to which an item, scale, or instrument will yield the same score when administered in different times, locations, or populations, and when the two administrations do not differ in relevant variables (Razmjoo and Sahragard, 2006, p. 109). In other words, the more reliable the instrument, the more confidence one has that the same result can be obtained when the test is re-administered (Gay, 1985, p. 166).

There are four different methods of measuring reliability: Test-retest reliability, Internal consistency reliability, Split-half reliability and Cronbach Coefficient Alpha measure of internal consistency (Ahmad, 2007). Ideally, if we use the same measure with the same people under the same conditions and our measure gives us the same result, then our test is reliable (Litosseliti, 2010, p. 55). In the present study, the researcher applied the last method, namely, Cronbach Coefficient Alpha measure of internal consistency.

4.8 Piloting the questionnaire

In order to determine if any modifications were required for the instrument, the questionnaire was piloted before conducting this study. In fact, a well-prepared questionnaire should be pilot-tested before being administered in the main study. In other words, it should be piloted with a group similar to the target group who will eventually respond it. Based on the feedback received from the pilot group researchers can provide useful information to make sure that all the items are clearly understood and the entire questionnaire is user-friendly (Perry, 2008, p. 123). In this connection, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 55) state that the purposes of the pilot study include: (1) to mark any items whose wording need improvement (2) to mark any items whose meaning is not 100% clear (3) to mark any unnecessary items and (4) to try to think of anything else that might be worth asking about. In other words, a pilot test study can help the researcher to identify problems with survey design before he/she collects the data. It is worth pointing out that any attempt to omit the pilot phase of study will certainly be a risk to the psychometric quality of the questionnaire regardless of how well it has been designed.

The questionnaires were administered to a sample of thirty Iranian UM students from three different programmes (BA, MA and Ph.D), including both males and females. They met the same selection criteria as used in the the major study, that is, the State University students in the city of Tehran. The emphasis on a common setting similar to the final setting is made by Sapsford and Jupp (2006, p. 103): “The pilot sample must be representative of the variety of individuals which the main study is intended to cover.” In effect, the pilot-study sample, then, should be administered under the same condition as it is intended for the final survey.

The researcher used the same data collection procedures and statistical analysis procedures in the pilot test as proposed in the major study. The informants were asked

to comment on the clarity of meaning of the questionnaire. They were also asked about the length of the questionnaire and whether they felt that this reduced their concentration while answering.

Based on the pilot study, some changes were made to the questionnaire. This was to ensure more clarity and specificity and to help the respondents understand and interpret the statements. In other words, certain modifications were duly made to the original form based on helpful comments and useful feedback from respondents. For example, questions 5 and 7 in Section Two of the first draft (Words and their features) were modified in that the eight features of word provided in question 5 were reduced to five (see Appendix A, sub-section a from Part 3 of final draft) and in question 7, four word features were increased⁴ to five (see Appendix A, sub-section b from Part 3 of final draft). Meanwhile, as for the question 5 above, definitions and examples were added to the features of word (see Appendices A and C). As Dörnyei (2007, p. 112) states, “Based on the feedback received from the initial pilot group we can normally put together a near-final version of the questionnaire and that ‘feels’ satisfactory and does not have any obvious glitches”. The results of the pilot study showed that modifications were also necessary concerning the wording and construction of some items although the basic content of the questionnaire remained unchanged.

As for reliability, it was measured using the SPSS Chronbach’s alpha test because Chronbach’s alpha is one of the most widely used and reliable tools used in descriptive research (Miller, 2002). Initially, the α -coefficient for the pilot test was below 0.70 (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 SPSS output reporting reliability (First pilot)

```
***** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****
-
R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   ( A L P H A )
Reliability Coefficients
N of Cases =      30.0                      N of Items = 61
Alpha =      .6813
```

According to Nunnally (1978), reliability coefficient of 0.70 and above is desirable. Thus, in order to reach a more reliable instruments, the researcher made some changes to the questions. Some questions were rephrased for the sake of better understanding and efficiency, and some other questions were deleted, swapped and amalgamated into the more relevant sections. After all these steps, the pilot test was repeated and the α -coefficient was calculated again. Finally, the α -coefficient improved to above 0.88 (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 SPSS output reporting reliability (Second pilot)

```
***** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****
-
R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   ( A L P H A )
Reliability Coefficients
N of Cases =      30.0                      N of Items = 57
Alpha =      .8863
```

Such a high α -coefficient (the maximum value for $\alpha = 1$) indicated that the reliability of the instrument was acceptable. The final version was produced in late May 2010 (see Table 4.1 above).

4.9 The Population

What statistics does is to describe samples and to make inferences about populations. As maintained by Schmidt (2010, p. 280), “statistical inference is based on

probability theory. A variety of different statistical techniques are used to determine the probable degree of accuracy of generalizations about the population from which a sample or set of data was selected.”

The matter of the fact is that researchers usually are not able to include all the people with whom he is concerned in his study. It will be too large, and practical considerations will pose difficulties using all of its members. This will preclude the researcher from proceeding with the study without resorting to sampling. The following section will deal with the method used for determining the selected sample. However, before dealing with details, the definition of the term ‘population’ seems to be exigent.

According to Perry (2008, p. 59), population is defined as “all the members of the group of participants/ objects to which the researcher wants to generalize his or her research findings. This is referred to as the target population.”

The population of this study is comprised of Iranian non-medical state university students (BA, MA, Ph.D) in capital city of Tehran in the academic year 2009-2010 (see Appendix E). These students pursue their study in the following thirteen universities as shown in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4 Non-medical state universities in Tehran

Non-medical state universities in Tehran			
1	Tarbiat Modares University	8	Alzahra University
2	Khaje Nasireddin-e- Toosi University	9	Tehran University
3	Sharif Technical University	10	Shahid Beheshti University
4	Allameh Tabatabaee University	11	Imam Sadegh University
5	Art University	12	Tarbiat Mo’allem University
6	Iran Science and Technology University	13	Shahed University
7	Amir Kabir Technical University		

According to statistics released by the National Report of Higher Education, Science and Technology in Iran in 2009, Tehran has the higher percentage of students than any other provinces in the whole country (see Appendix F for more details about the number of Iranian state students in the whole country).

4.10 The Characteristics of the Population

4.10.1 Gender

Figure 4.1 exhibits the target population by gender. The females outnumber males (61% vs 39%). A possible explanation comes from Shiani and Ali-Mohammadi (2009, p. 28) that male and female students are given almost equal opportunity in Iran. More interestingly, the number of female students has outnumbered males by 22% in the preceding years (see Appendix E).

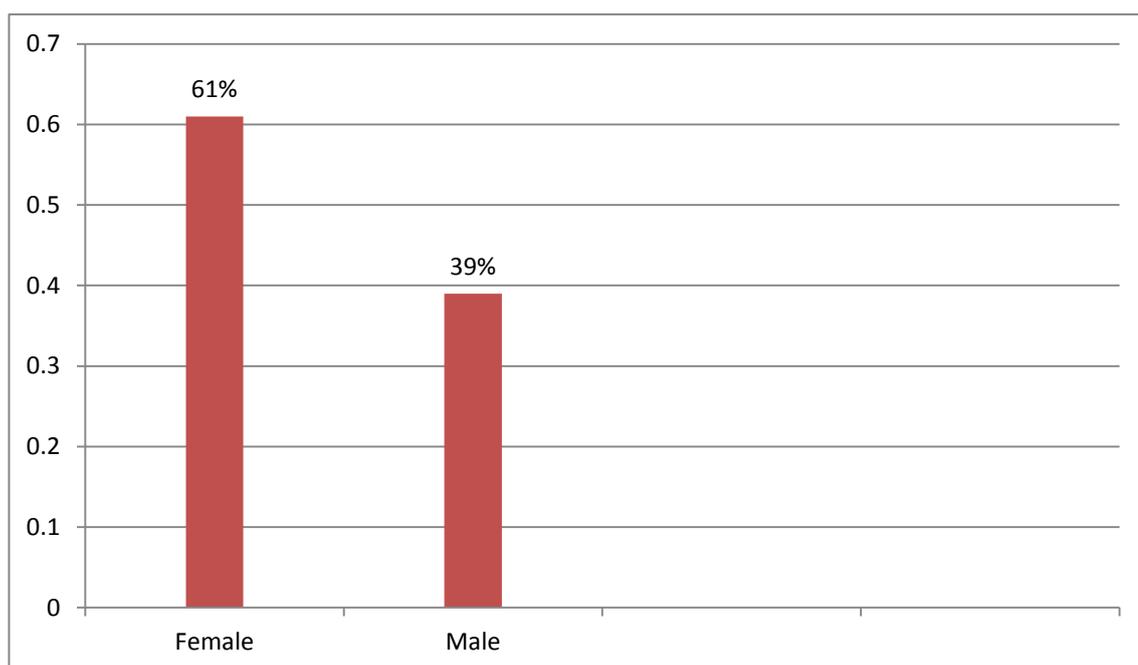


Figure 4.1 Percentages of population by Gender

4.10.2 Academic levels

The number of students according to different academic levels is displayed in Figure 4.2. The number of Bachelors, Masters and Ph.D students range from 79.4%,

17% and 3.6%, respectively. It is clear that the number of Iranian postgraduate students is low. This could be due to the fact that the admission to university for postgraduate levels has been low in spite of the candidates' willingness

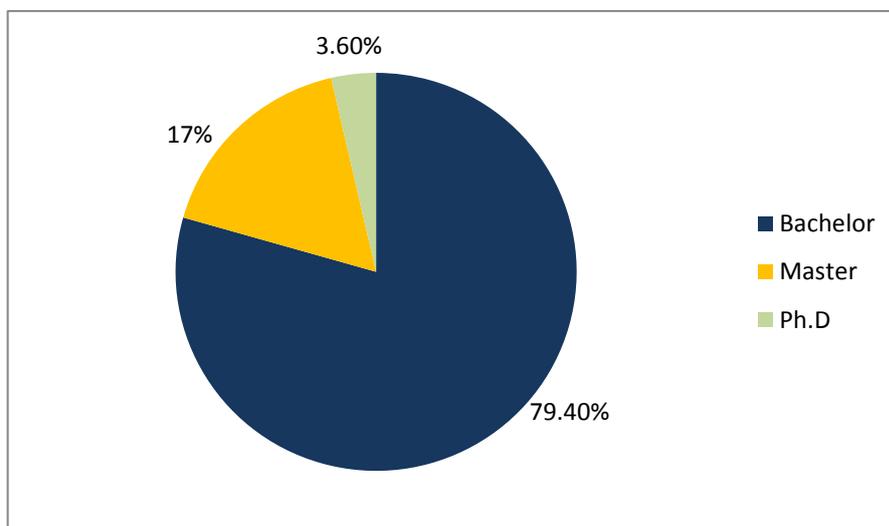


Figure 4.2 Percentages of population by Academic levels

4.11 Sample selected

Researchers normally are concerned with two key terms when carrying out a study, population and sample. Sample is defined as “the group of people researchers actually examine and the population is the group of people whom the survey is about” (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010, p. 60). Since the investigation of the whole population is not really necessary and, at times, hardly viable, researchers have to resort to sampling to select a smaller number of people to be questioned. Therefore, a good sample should be representative of the target population in terms certain characteristics such as age, gender, social class, academic qualification, etc. It is also worth mentioning that researchers should explain the rationale used for selecting the participants so that the reader may be able to assess whether the resulting data are valid for the purpose of the study (Perry, 2008, p. 48).

In this connection, Babbie (2011, p. 119) holds that “we are almost never able to study all the members of the population that interests us, however, and we can never make every possible observation of them”. In this case, then, the researcher has to select a sample from a population to obtain the data to study.

There is no easy answer to the question of sample size. The sample size being too small, the results obtained may not be reliable due to the idiosyncratic composition of the respondent group (DeVellis, cited in Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010, p. 56). Meanwhile, increasing the size of the sample has its own limitations. In other words, “a large sized sample increases the cost of collecting data and also enhances the systematic bias” (Kothari, 2004, p. 58). Therefore, a small, but carefully selected sample can be used to represent the target population.

The targeted population for this study includes the Iranian state university students pursuing undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. Due to large numbers of universities in the whole country, the researcher focuses on only non-medical state universities in the city of Tehran (see Section 1.7). According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), populations over 100,000 require a sample size of at least 384 respondents.

Meanwhile, the Cochran’s (1977) sample size formula $n = Z^2 \times p \times q \div d^2$ was determined where n = the sample size; Z = standard error associated with the chosen level of confidence (1.96); p = estimated proportion; $q = 100 - p$; and d = margin of error. Considering the formula above, we may estimate the sample size as follows: $n = Z^2 \times p \times (1 - p) \div d^2 = (1.96)^2 \times 0.5 \times (1 - 0.5) \div (0.05)^2 = 384$ where $p = 0.5$ and $d = 0.05$. As N (population of the study) is high, the FCP (sampling fraction) which equals n / N has not been realized for ease of calculation. As seen on the right-hand side of the equation, the number ‘384’ is the required minimum for providing a reasonably

representative sample. To secure this number, the researcher determined the sample size as large as 500 and, accordingly, he distributed 500 copies of the questionnaires.

Sampling bias is a big problem in research. According to Babbie (2011, p. 211) “bias simply means that those selected are not typical or representative of the larger populations they have been chosen from”. A major source of bias may be the use of volunteers, a second source is the use of available groups just because ‘they are there’, or because administrators allow the researcher to use only particular groups. Thus, the researcher has to be aware of sources of sampling bias and do his/her best to avoid them (Gay, 1976, p. 78).

In this study, in order to make the sample representative of its population, the researcher tried to avoid sampling bias through employing the cluster sample method. Based on the cluster sampling, the target population, especially when it is widely dispersed, is divided into sections or clusters and the number of units selected at random from a given cluster is proportional to the total number of units in the cluster (Razmjoo and Sahragard, 2006). The distribution of the characteristics with clusters is usually not random but relatively homogeneous. These clusters exist as social units and the individuals in them tend to resemble each other although their homogeneity is not complete. Homogeneous sampling, according to (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 127), “allows us to conduct an in-depth analysis to identify common patterns in a group with similar characteristics”.

The major advantages of cluster sampling are that it is a good representative of the population, easy, economical, and highly applicable in education. Meanwhile, observations can be used for inferential purpose (Kumar Singh, 2006, p. 90). In this study, for example, the sample group was chosen from 5 out of 13 state universities including 50 faculties in Tehran (see Tables 4.3 and 4.4 below) through cluster

sampling that satisfactorily represents the target population. Ary *et al.* (2010, p. 154) opines that the cluster sample is sometimes the only feasible method of selecting a sample.

According to Babbie (2011, p. 234), cluster sampling involves the following steps: (1) identifying and defining the population (2) determining the desired sample size (3) identifying a logical cluster (4) listing all clusters (or obtaining a list) which comprise the population members per cluster (5) determining the number of clusters needed by dividing the sample size by the estimated size of a cluster (6) randomly selecting the needed number of clusters (using a table of random numbers) and (7) including all population members in each selected cluster. As such, the researcher employed all the above-mentioned steps. Information and statistics of all Iranian state universities students' population was obtained from the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology.

In order to achieve the objective of this survey, the researcher utilized multi-stage sampling in that all universities in the city of Tehran (including 13 universities) which were categorized into four different disciplines: (1) General (six universities representing 46.2%) (2) Technical (4 universities representing 30.7%) (3) Humanities (two universities representing 15.4%) and (4) Arts (one university representing 7.7%) as shown in Table 4.5. Meanwhile, General universities include all educational departments such as Science, Language, Arts, Social Sciences, Agriculture, Law, Engineering, and Physical Education.' in the last paragraph.

Table 4.5 Respondents of survey

No	Groups	Names of Universities
1	General	(1) Tehran; (2) Shahid Beheshti; (3) Tarbiat Modares; (4) Alzahra; (5) Shahed; (6) Kharazmi
2	Technical	(1) Sharif; (2) Amir Kabir; (3) Khaje Nasireddin Toosi; (4) Iran University of Science and Technology
3	Humanities	(1) Imam Sadegh; (2) Allameh Tabataba'ee
4	Arts	(1) Arts

Then, due to inaccessibility to all universities as well as the homogeneity of the universities, of the first two groups (General and Technical) in Table 4.4 above, three universities and from each of the last two groups (Humanities and Arts) only one university were selected at random. The randomly selected universities included University of Tehran, Iran University of Science and Technology University, Sharif University, Allame Tabataba'ee University and Arts University (see Table 4.6 below).

It is worth pointing out that why the researcher selected three universities [Tehran University (27%), Iran University of Science and Technology (23%) and Sharif Technical University (20%)] instead of two from General and Technical groups is that they include 10 universities representing 76.9% of the total universities in Tehran. In other words, 70% of the sample size was taken from 76.9%.

Table 4.6 Sample size from different faculties of the universities under study

No	Names of Universities	Sample size	Percentage
1	Tehran University (18 faculties)	135	27%
2	Iran University of Science and Technology (13 faculties)	115	23%
3	Allameh Tabatabaee University (7 faculties)	100	20%
4	Sharif Technical University (7 faculties)	100	20%
5	Art University (5 faculties)	50	10%
Total		500	100%

Samples from different programmes (BA, MA and Ph.D) were provided through stratified sampling from the selected universities. Table 4.6 shows the final sample size of this study for each programme in different universities (see also Section 4.10).

Table 4.7 Sample size from different programmes

No	Names of Universities	Samples	BA	MA	Ph.D
1	Tehran University (18 faculties)	135	81	40	14
2	Iran University of Science and Technology (13 faculties)	115	69	35	11
3	Allameh Tabatabaee University (7 faculties)	100	60	30	10
4	Sharif Technical University (7 faculties)	100	60	30	10
5	Art University (5 faculties)	50	30	15	5
Total		500	300	150	150

4.12 The distribution of the questionnaire

To ensure a high percentage rate of participants' return, the researcher distributed to a sample approximately 30% more than the minimum size (i.e. 384). Many participants showed interest and cooperation, and considered it as opportunity to express their viewpoints. Of the 500 distributed questionnaires, seven were incomplete and not taken into consideration. In total, 493 respondents or 98.6% returned the questionnaires personally, duly completed (see Table 4.6).

4.13 The characteristics of the sample

A total of 500 Iranian non-medical students majoring in different fields of study from different state universities (see Table 4.6) in Tehran for the academic year of 2009-2010 participated in this study. The rationale for choosing state universities as the research site was due to Tehran being a metropolitan city, the subjects of the

questionnaire represent the different cultures and social background in Iran (see Section 1.7).

4.13.1 Age

Based on the preliminary responses, the participants' ages ranged from 18 to 61 years, with an average of 23.4 years.

4.13.2 Gender

Figure 4.3 shows the number of male and female students. 270 are male representing 54.8% of the participants, and 223 or 45.2% were female.

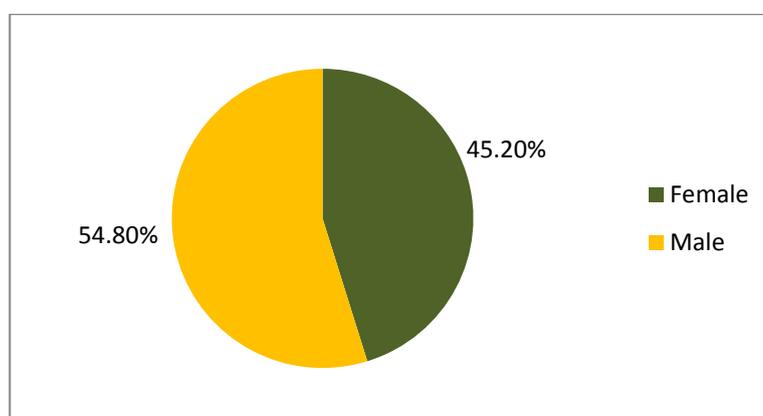


Figure 4.3 Percentages of participants by Gender

4.13.3 Department

The distribution of the participants according to major is given in Figure 4.4. It is clear from the figure that 74 students are (15%) are from the Science and 143 students (29%) are from the Social science and Humanities specialization. From the Art, there are 49 students representing 9.9% of the entire sample. There are 32 (6.5%) from the Languages and Linguistics department. The largest number is in the Engineering group, where 191 students represent 38.7% of the total sample. It is worth pointing out that four students (0.8%) fail to mention their department; however, they were kept in the sample because they provided valuable data as others did.

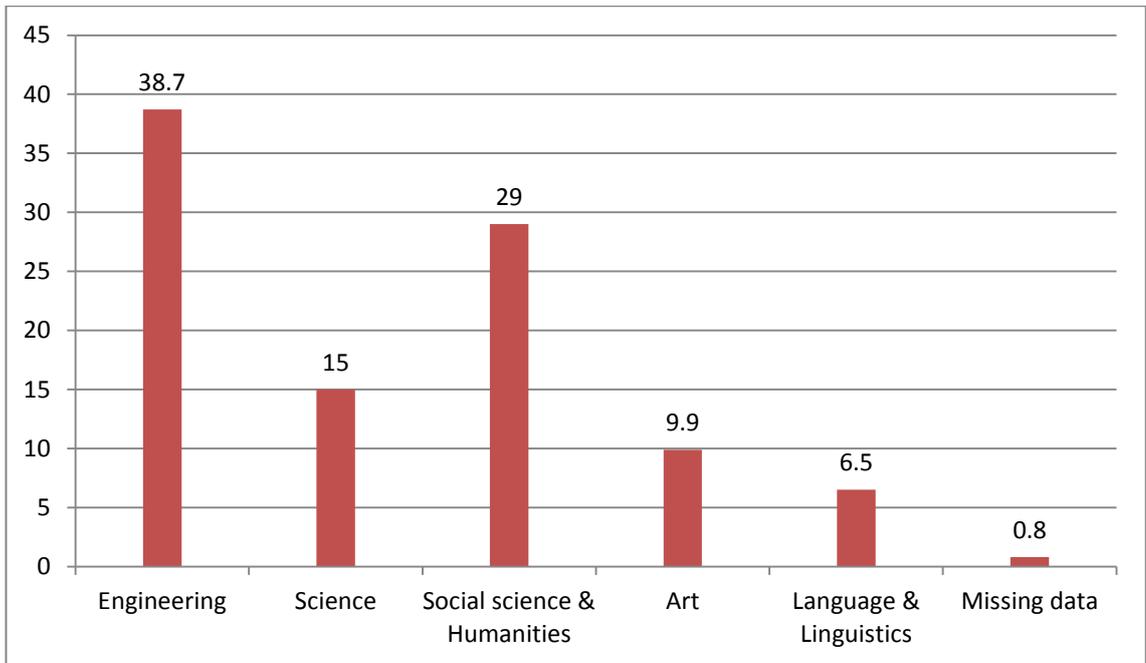


Figure 4.4 Percentages of participants by Department

4.13.4 Academic level

Figure 4.5 shows that the highest percentages of respondents are in the BA level: 296 or 60% of the entire sample, followed by Masters: 147 (30%). The lowest percentage is at the Ph.D level: 50 (10%).

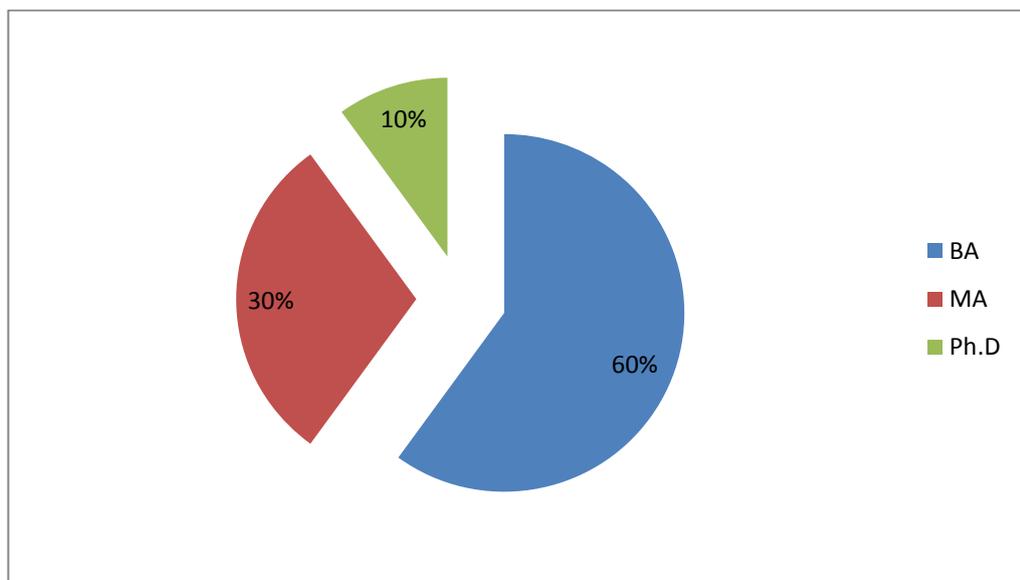


Figure 4.5 Percentages of participants by Academic levels

4.13.5 Participants' parents' education

Figure 4.6 below shows the frequencies and percentages of the education of the respondents' parents'.

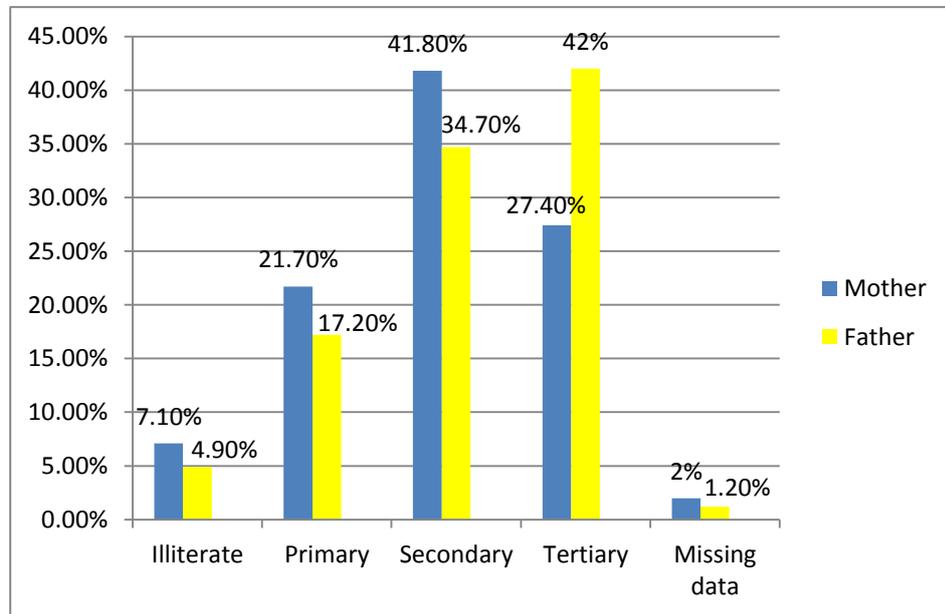


Figure 4.6 Percentages of participants' parents by Education

It is obvious from the figure above that the participant's parents' education is mostly secondary and above. Fathers seem to be more educated in tertiary level.

4.13.6 Place of residence

Of 493 participants, 292 (or 59.2%) live in Tehran, 197 (or 40%) live other cities and towns, and 4 students (0.8%) mention nothing about their place of residence. As shown in Figure 4.7, the participants mostly live in the capital city of Tehran.

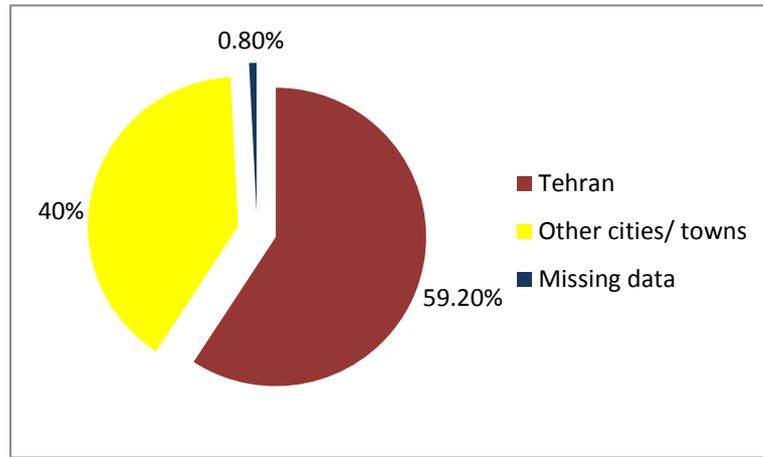


Figure 4.7 Percentages of students by the Place of residence

4.13.7 Use of different accents or dialects

Figure 4.8 show the respondents in terms of using Persian and other accents or dialects. It is clear that 312 participants representing 63.3% use Persian only, 176 students (or 35.7%) use Azeri and Kurdish (accents or dialects other than Persian), and 5 respondents (1%) make no reply.

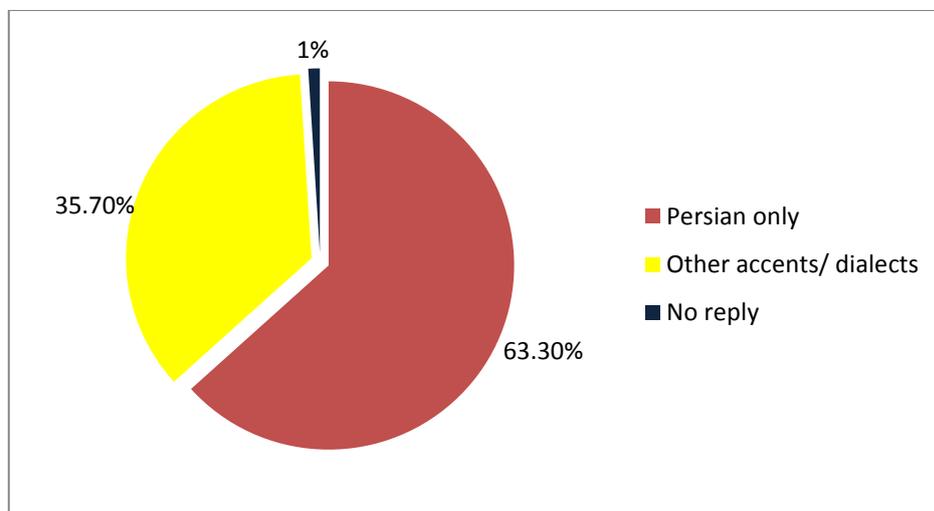


Figure 4.8 Percentages of participants by using accents/ dialects

4.14 Statistical treatment

The data obtained from the questionnaire are processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 11.5). Descriptive and inferential statistics are used

in the analysis. While descriptive statistics describe and summarize the data, the inferential statistics allow the drawing of inferences, which have a wider generalizability. The following statistics techniques are utilized:

4.14.1 Descriptive statistics

Of the descriptive statistics, simple frequency distributions, percentages, means, standard deviation (SD), coefficient of variation (CV), and ranking are applied to present tendencies and clusters in the responses.

Note that SD is considered as the most frequently used measure of variability. In fact, 'it is standard in the sense that it looks at the average variability of all the scores around the mean' (Hatch and Farhadi, 1982, p. 57). On the other hand, CV represents the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean, and it is a useful statistic for comparing the degree of variation from one data series to another, even if the means are drastically different from each other. In other words, 'CV allows us to compare the variation between two (or more) different variables' (Jaisingh, 2006, p. 59).

Frequencies are converted into percentages to make the results more easily understood. Percentages and means help to reveal discernible patterns of responses (see sections 5.2 and 5.3). Put precisely, concerning the Objectives One and Two (Sections 5.2 and 5.3), descriptive statistics is utilised using SPSS in that mean, standard deviation (SD), coefficient of variation (CV) and ranking have been calculated. This is followed by rating the variables in order of preference.

4.14.2 Inferential statistics

Normally, researchers are interested in finding relationships between variables or differences between groups. To attain these objectives, they may resort to inferential statistics because it includes both parametric and non-parametric procedures for

analyzing data (Perry, 2008, p. 171). For inferential purposes, the data obtained from the questionnaire includes ordinal data and nominal data; it is subjected to parametric and non-parametric treatment (tests) alike. Through parametric tests, researchers are able to assess “how confident they can be in inferring that phenomena observed in samples will also appear in the populations from which the samples were drawn” (Ary *et al.*, 2010, p. 193). They are typically run on interval data, can be used in situations in which the researchers are allowed “to go beyond the parameters of their study sample and draw conclusions about the population from which the sample was drawn” (Marczyk *et al.*, 2005, p. 209). Dörnyei (2007) also observes that:

“Interval data provides the most ‘precise’ information and such data – provided that it is reasonably normally distributed - can be processed by parametric tests such as ANOVA or Pearson correlation. If we have less precise, ordinal data, or categorical (i.e. nominal) data or if the data is not normally distributed, parametric tests are not appropriate and we need to use nonparametric procedures” (p. 227)

One of the assumptions of parametric statistics is that the variable measured is normally distributed (Zohrabi and Farrokhi, 2006). In other words, in order to guarantee the appropriateness of application of non-parametric tests, it is necessary to make sure that the distribution is non-normal (Soleimani, 2009, p. 41). Parametric tests are believed to make strong assumption about the distribution of data from dependent variable (Porte, 2002).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher applied Spearman’s rho test, Mann-Whitney *U*-test and Kruskal-Wallis. Each of the tests utilized in this study will be discussed and the reasons for their use will be given.

4.14.2.1 Spearman's rho

Normally, the Spearman's rank order correlation (rho) is a useful nonparametric test. It is applicable to small samples (of fewer than 30) to test the same hypothesis as the Pearson r . According to Dörnyei (2007), Spearman rho "is appropriate for ordinal data or for interval data that do not satisfy the distribution normality or the equal-intervalness assumption... is usually less 'powerful' than the Pearson one". Like all other correlation coefficients, the Spearman's rho takes a value between -1 and +1. A positive correlation is one in which the ranks of both variables increase together while as for a negative correlation, the ranks of one variable increase as the ranks of the other variable decrease (Soleimani, 2009, p. 154).

In this study, the correlation coefficient is used to determine whether the attitudes of the students towards the words promoted by the APLL are associated with a number of other variables such as their familiarity with foreign language(s) (see 5.4.3) and their different activities such as reading newspapers, magazines, etc. (see 5.4.8)

4.14.2.2 Mann-Whitney U -test

To determine whether participants' responses vary according to their demographic variables, Mann-Whitney U test is used. It is a non-parametric test that can be substituted for an unpaired t -test (Soleimani, 2009, p. 76). In other words, this test is the ordinal counterpart of the parametric independent t -test, which is used to establish a significant difference between two independently selected random samples (Riazi, 1999, p. 154).

The Mann-Whitney test is a powerful non-parametric test when the difference between two groups (for instance, between males and females) is to be assessed. However, it cannot be used with more than two groups at a time (for example, between

BA, MA and Ph.D students' attitudes toward a given variable). Kruskal-Wallis test is used in such a case.

4.14.2.3 Kruskal-Wallis test

The 'Kruskal-Wallis' test is the extension of the Mann-Whitney *U*-test but is more easily applicable to the testing of more than two means at a time (Zohrabi and Farrokhi, 2006, p. 117). For example, the acceptance of the APLL new words among three groups of participants pursuing BA, MA and Ph.D programmes (see Section 5.4.5) or the relationship between the respondents' parents' education (illiterate, primary, secondary and tertiary) and their acceptance of the APLL words (see Section 5.4.5). Kruskal-Wallis is the ordinal equivalent to the parametric one-way ANOVA (Soleimani, 2009, p. 84). Note that Mann-Whitney test and Kruskal-Wallis' test are based on the ranking of scores whereas their parametric equivalents are computed on the base of means.

To sum up, with regard to the Objective Three (Section 5.4), inferential statistics has been used in that both nonparametric tests including Spearman's rho test, Mann-Whitney *U*-test and Kruskal-Wallis test.

4.14.3 Level of significance

Significance level (or alpha level represented by the Greek letter α) is a predetermined value which is chosen by the researcher and used to judge whether a test statistic is statistically significant. For all inferential tests the 0.05 level of significance was adopted because "in psychological and educational circle, the 5 per cent level of significance (.05) is often accepted as a standard for rejection" (Kumar Singh, 2006). It is set at the beginning of an experiment and limits the probability of making a Type I

error since if we specify alpha after performing an analysis it opens one up to the temptation to tailor significance levels to fit the results (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 585).

Alpha corresponds to a probability which can range from 0 to 1. In other words, if we take a confidence level of 95%, there will be 95 chances in 100 (or 0.95 in 1) that the sample results represent the true condition of the population within a specified precision range against 5 chances in 100 (or .05 in 1) that it does not (Kothari, 2004, p. 155).

4.15 The construction of the interview

An interview, as a qualitative data collection technique, involves oral questioning of respondents, either individually or as a group (Razmjoo and Sahragard, 2006, p. 77). Interviews are conducted not as surveys of how people feel but primarily to obtain observations that the researcher is unable to make directly to capture multiple realities or perceptions of any given situation. When standardized information is needed from large numbers of people, the written survey is more efficient, but in most qualitative studies, researchers try to probe more deeply than is possible with questionnaires. Through the interview, the researcher assumes questions are comprehensible and consistent in meaning across respondents (Colwell, 2006, p. 295).

The interview is an alternative method of collecting survey data. Rather than asking respondents to read questionnaires and enter their own answers, researchers send interviewers to ask the questions orally and record respondents' answers (Babbie, 2011, p. 291).

Sometimes, in spite of using sophisticated statistical procedures, the researcher faces some unexpected outcomes, for instance, the lesser use of neologism by university-educated individuals. This could be due to the fact that questionnaire data

may usually reveal little about the exact nature of relationships. In such cases, as Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 109) maintains, “adding a sequent qualitative component to the study can remedy this weakness: In a follow-up interview, we can ask the respondents to explain or illustrate the obtained patterns, thereby adding flesh to the bones”.

Interviews can be used both in quantitative and qualitative research. However, there are significant differences between the two approaches. Whereas quantitative research methods gather a narrow amount of information from a large number of respondents, qualitative interviews gather broader, more in-depth information from fewer respondents. In this sense, qualitative interviews are concerned with microanalysis (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 295).

The current study uses the general interview guide approach. The researcher needed to prepare a detailed interview guide, which would serve as the main research instrument. According to Schmidt (2010, p. 298), an interview guide is “a list of topics used by an interviewer during an interview. An interview guide helps the interviewer make sure that the important topics have been covered during the interview”.

In this study, two sets of interview questions were used as to both respondents and some experts from the APLL (see Appendices G and H).

The interview questions are mainly based on the instrument used in the study, namely the questionnaire (see section 4.2.2). In designing the guiding interview questions (of students), Section One was exactly adopted from the questionnaire which concerns the demographic details. Questions 1, 3, 4 and 5 in Section Two as well as questions 2 and 3 of Section Three were adopted from Ibtisam (1999). Other questions were designed specifically for the purposes of this study to ensure their suitability for the Iranian context and the APLL in Iran. On the other hand, in designing the guiding

interview questions (of experts), all sections were adopted from the interview questions of students with some modifications (See Appendices G and H).

4.15.1 Piloting the interview

A pilot interview was conducted in Persian with five students including three males and two females from different groups (2 Bachelors, 2 Masters and one Ph.D). The primary purposes were include: (1) to establish rapport (2) to inform him/her about the goals of the research (3) to test the clarity of the questions to determine whether all questions were understood by the participants and (4) to measure how long the interview may take.

The interview lasted for one hour for each participant. As a result of the pilot interview, the guiding interview questions were broken into four major sections. Each section focuses on one aspect and shed light on the question under investigation (see Appendices G and H) and analysis of the interview in Chapter Six).

In order to measure the reliability, the SPSS Chronbach's alpha test was run in that the α -coefficient was over 0.80 (see Table 4.8, below). As such, it is inferred that the instrument was reliable, producing consistent results. Accordingly, the interviews were conducted in mid November 2012.

Table 4.8 SPSS output reporting reliability

```
***** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****
-
  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   ( A L P H A )
  Reliability Coefficients
N of Cases =      5.0                               N of Items = 18
Alpha =      .8101
```

4.15.2 Interview Sample

There is no general rule about the number of participants to include in a qualitative study. In fact, the number of people to be studied is not specified at the beginning of the research due to the fact that researchers are not sure of where the research will take them. However, as put by Dörnyei (2007, p. 127), in qualitative research there is a point when additional data do not seem to develop the concepts any further but simply repeat what previous information have already revealed. This is referred to as saturation that is the point when the researcher becomes empirically confident that he/she has all the data needed to answer the research question. Of course, in this connection, Ary et al. (2010) suggests that researchers may include “as many as 20-25” (p. 464) participants.

Considering the points mentioned above, the researcher selected a total of 21 students from different programmes (BA, MA and Ph.D) as the sample size for interview. The sample group was chosen from 18 faculties of 7 state universities in Tehran (see Table 4.8 below). Their ages were between 19 and 43, with an average age of 26.2. Out of 21 participants, 13 were males (61.9%) and 8 others were females (38.15) from different programmes including 8 (38.1%) undergraduates, 7 (33.3%) Masters and 6 (28.6%) Ph.D students. The interviews were conducted with one student at a time. The researcher decided against the use of tape recorder for fear some of the students might not have felt at ease. In fact, the questions were asked one by one and then responses were elicited and written at the same time. In case the responses did not seem to be clear or were too short, the interviewees were requested to elaborate further on them. This was done until the interviews were completed.

Table 4.9 Participants of Interview by programmes

No	University	Programme			Total	Percentage
		BA	MA	Ph.D		
1	Tehran	2	3	1	6	28.6%
2	Sharif	1	0	1	2	9.5%
3	Alame	0	0	2	2	9.5%
4	Iran Science and technology	1	0	1	2	9.5%
5	Amirkabir	2	0	0	2	9.5%
6	Sh. Beheshti	0	2	0	2	19%
7	Kharazmi	1	2	1	4	19%
8	Khajenasir	1	0	0	1	4.8%
Total		8	7	6	21	100%

As for the place of residence, 12 (57.1%) of the participants live in Tehran and 9 (42.9%) in other cities and towns. In addition, 41.7% of these students belong to Engineering Department, 41.6% from Humanities Department while 16.7% come from Science Department (see Table 4.10).

Of 21 participants, 12 (57.1%) use dialects other than Persian while 9 (42.9%) of them use only Persian. Precisely put, 11 (52.4%) use Turkish, 1 (4.7%) uses Kurdish while 9 (42.9%) of them use Persian only (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10 Participants by departments, place of residence and use of accents/ dialects

Departments	Place of residence			Dialects/ Accents			
	Tehran	Other cities	Total	Persian	Turkish	Kurdish	Total
Humanities	5	5	10	4	5	1	10
Engineering	5	3	8	3	5	0	8
Science	2	1	3	2	1	0	3
Total	12	9	21	9 (42.9%)	11 (52.4%)	1 (4.7%)	21 (100%)

With regard to the participants' parents' education, as shown in Table 4.10, nine parents including 4 male parents (19%) and 5 female parents (23.8%) are illiterate. These figures are 14.3% and 19% for primary education, respectively. While 16 parents including 9 fathers (42.9%) and 6 mothers (28.6%) have high school diploma, 5 (23.8%) of the participants' fathers and 6 (28.6%) of their mothers are university-educated (see Table 4.11 and Fig 4.9 below).

Table 4.11 Education of Participants' Parents

Programme	Fathers' education					Mothers' education				
	Ill	Prim	Sec	Ter	Total	Ill	Prim	Sec	Ter	Total
BA/BS	1	-	5	2	8	1	-	4	3	8
MA/MS	1	2	3	1	7	2	2	1	2	7
Ph.D	2	1	1	2	6	2	2	1	1	6
Total	4	3	9	5	21	5	4	6	6	21

Ill = Illiterate; Prim = Primary; Sec = Secondary; Ter = Tertiary

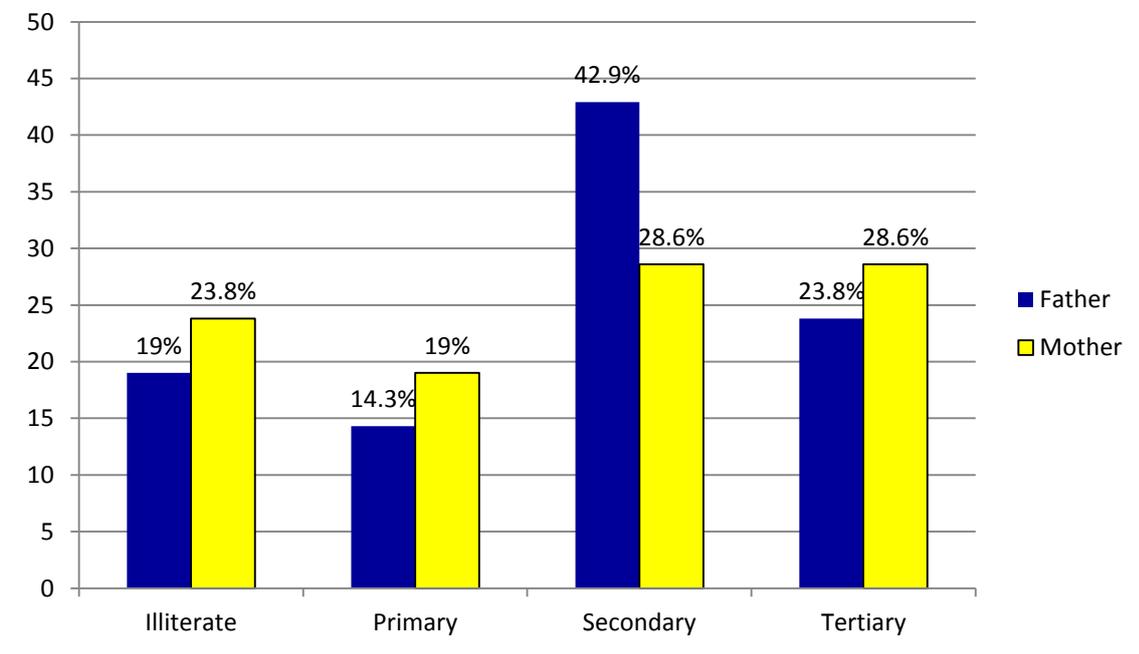


Figure 4.9 Education of Participants' Parents in percentage terms

As for the interview with experts, five individuals were met at the APLL. They were all majored in linguistics except for one (being a graduate of veterinary medicine) and interviewed in Word-selection Department in a friendly atmosphere.

4.16 Summary

Chapter Four was devoted to the procedures, methodology, and instruments employed to obtain the empirical data of this study. The population of the study was identified, and the sample and sampling procedures were described and justified. A description of the characteristics of the participants were provided with reference to the target population.

After the data were received, the SPSS statistical package and Excel were used to analyze the data in this study. The researcher analyzed them in a systematic way, by organizing data from the survey as a summary of findings and classifying the findings under specific research questions.

First, variable titles were decided upon and after that the variable value was assigned to each response. The raw data was then entered. In the next stage, results were produced using the statistical analysis method available in the SPSS system. Descriptive statistics of frequencies, subsequently, cross-tabulations between related variables and statistical analysis was used to show certain relationships. In doing so, some relevant tests such Spearman rho test, Mann-Whitney test and Kruskal-Wallis test were carried out. The results will be discussed in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter was devoted to the procedures, methodology and the description of the instruments employed. In this chapter, the data obtained from the questionnaire is analyzed. The data analysis will be presented according to the research questions related to the three objectives stated in section 1.4.

With reference to Objectives One and Two (Sections 5.2 and 5.3), descriptive statistics has been utilised using SPSS through which mean, standard deviation, coefficient of variation and ranking have been calculated. This was followed by rating the variables in order of preference. Concerning Objective Three (Section 5.4), inferential statistics has been used where nonparametric tests including as Spearman's rho test, Mann-Whitney *U*-test and Kruskal-Wallis test are run.

5.2 Objective One: The Iranian State University Students' Attitudes towards the APLL and its Activities

The first objective of this study was to provide insight into the attitudes of Iranian state university students towards the APLL and its activities. For this purpose, 17 questions were formulated (see Section 1.4). This is tackled using descriptive statistics due to the nature of these questions. In order to answer these questions, the participants in this study were requested to respond to 39 statements/ items concerning attitudes towards the APLL and its activities by marking one of five options (for more details see 4.5.2). It is worth noting that last item consists of two types of options; namely, the first part with two options (Con '+' and Pro '-') and the second part with five options (word features) to show the reason(s) why the participants agree or disagree with the choices.

Inspection of these thirty-nine statements reveals that the statements could be logically grouped into two related dimensions, namely: (1) The APLL and its words that includes Research Questions 1-5 and 7-17 and (2) Involvement of experts which includes only Research Question 6 (see Section 4.5.2). The data will be presented according to these two dimensions.

5.2.1 The “APLL and its words” dimension

The first dimension covers nineteen statements including items from 1 to 11 and 17 from Part B, Section One of the questionnaire. Eleven statements including items from 1 to 11 from Part B, Section Two of the questionnaire. Five statements including items from 1 to 5 from Part B, Section Three (a) of the questionnaire. Five statements including items from 1 to 5 from Part B, Section Three (b) of the questionnaire as well as one question consisting 50 APLL general words from Part B, Section Three (c) of the questionnaire. Table 5.1 below exhibits the data as to the APLL and its words. The figures show that the respondents moderately associate with the APLL and its activities. The overall mean is low (1.90). In addition, the means of individual items show that all items are ‘little’ supported.

Table 5.1 Percentages and Means of Students rating their Attitudes towards APLL and its Activities

No	Statement	VL/ L 1/2	F 3	M/ VM 4/ 5	Mean
1a	I am familiar with word-formation (the process of making new words not existing in a language previously) by the APLL.	67.9	25.4	6.7	1.034553
2-a	I am familiar with word-selection (the selection of words from a set of words or phrases already existing in a language) by the APLL.	68.5	24.3	7.2	1.07771
3-a	I am interested in word-formation.	52.8	21.7	25.5	1.516393
4-a	I am interested in word-selection.	52.6	25.6	21.8	1.465164
5-a	My knowledge of foreign language(s) helps me in accepting the APLL words.	37.2	28.6	34.2	1.913135
6-a	Word-formation by the APLL is important.	38	22.1	39.9	1.97286
7-a	Word-formation by individuals is important.	37	24	39	2.030992
8-a	Word-selection by the APLL is important.	37.3	23.1	39.6	1.985567
9-a	Word-selection by individuals is important.	37.7	22.3	40	2.042105
10-a	The APLL has been successful in fulfillment of word-formation.	59.4	28.9	11.7	1.317623
11-a	The APLL has been successful in the fulfillment word-selection.	58.7	28.2	13.1	1.343558
17-a	It is necessary to conduct a public opinion poll at regular intervals concerning suggested words by the APLL.	22.7	11.8	65.5	2.563265
1-b	It is important to use other prevailing accents/ dialects (such as <i>Isfahani, Kurdish, Turkish</i> , etc.) for the creation of words.	37.7	25	37.3	1.973361
2-b	It is important to use living elements (<i>prefixes, roots and suffixes</i>) in the Persian language in order to make new words.	30	20	50	2.313402
3-b	It is important to refer to works by contemporary famous poets in Persian in order to make new words.	25.6	25.4	49.1	2.333333
4-b	It is important to refer to works by contemporary famous writers in Persian in order to make new words.	28.6	26.4	45	2.206967
5-b	It is important to refer to works by distinguished translators in Persian in order to make new words.	25.7	23.1	51.2	2.35102
6-b	It is important to utilize words used in the classic Persian books (like <i>Bustân, Hâfiz, Shâhnâmeh</i>) in order to make new words.	26.4	22.6	51	2.45122
7-b	It is necessary that some parts of the Persian literature course at universities be allocated to word-formation.	44.4	19.8	35.8	1.812757
8-b	It is necessary that some parts of the Persian literature course at universities be allocated to word-selection.	42.7	19.4	37.9	1.879346
9-b	It is necessary to create a database for WF in the Internet.	37.5	20.1	42.4	2.032854
10-b	It is necessary to create a database for WS in the Internet.	34.9	19.3	45.8	2.137577
11-b	It is important to use the experiences and knowledge of other countries (like <i>France, India</i> , etc.) for creating new words.	39.3	20.5	40.2	1.933333
	Overall Mean	1.899482			

VL= Very Little; L= Little; F= Fine, M= Much; VM= very Much

Objective One, Research Question 1: As shown in Table 5.1, the results obtained from items 1a and 2a regarding the extent to which participants are familiar with word-formation and word-selection, out of 492 responses, 334 (67.9%) were familiar with

WF ‘little’ or ‘very little’ and 33 participants (6.7%) are familiar with WF ‘much’ or ‘very much’. However, this percentage is 25.4% (125 students) for ‘moderately’ option. This is almost the case with WS; namely, ‘little and very little’ by 68.5% (335 participants), ‘moderately’ by 24.3% (119 respondents) and ‘much and very much’ by 7.2% (35 students), respectively (see Table 5.2 below).

Objective One, Research Question 2: Concerning the respondents’ interest in WF and WS, the results obtained from items 3a and 4a disclosed that of 488 respondents (99%) answered this question. The figures show that totally more than 258 respondents (52.6%) are ‘little’ or ‘very little’ interested in WF and WS and less than 106 (23.7%) are ‘moderately’ interested in WF and WS. This percentage is the same for the last two options, viz, ‘much’ and ‘very much’ (namely, 23.7%).

The Overall Mean shows that most of the Iranian state universities are ‘little’ or ‘very little’ familiar with and/ or interested in the word-formation and word-selection. As seen in Table 5.2, based on CV obtained, the participants’ preferences include ‘interest in WS’, ‘interest in WF’, ‘familiarity with WS ’ and ‘familiarity with WF’, respectively.

Table 5.2 Respondents’ familiarity with and interest in WF and WS

	VL/ L	F	M/ VM	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
Respondents’ interest in WS	52.6	25.6	21.8	1.465164	1.186342	0.809699	1
Respondents’ interest in WF	52.8	21.7	25.5	1.516393	1.234238	0.81393	2
Respondents’ familiarity with WS	68.5	24.3	7.2	1.07771	0.946355	0.878117	3
Respondents’ familiarity with WF	67.9	25.4	6.7	1.034553	0.955648	0.923731	4
Overall Mean	60.5	24.2	15.3	1.273455			

Perhaps a possible explanation for the responses could be the fact that the APLL and its activities have not well been established among Iranian people, even at academic level. This finding corroborates with Yarmohammadi (2000) and Habibi’s (2003) ideas

and recommendations in which they believe that the APLL's rules, methods and clear guidelines of word-selection and word-formation should be pointed out to scholars, translators, writers and interested individuals so that they can compare their suggested words with those of APLL's.

Objective One, Research Question 3: As for the 50 APLL approved words, 493 responses were obtained in which more than 32% of the respondents showed that semantic transparency is the most important factor when accepting and rejecting new words, and productivity is the least significant factor in the acceptance or rejection of new equivalents. Meanwhile, in order to determine whether the findings of questions in subsection (b) in Section Three of the questionnaire could be confirmed by the results obtained from questions in subsection (c) in Section Three of the questionnaire (see Appendix A), the respondents were queried about the aforementioned five criteria in a different way. On average, the respondents' preferences in terms of acceptance were semantic transparency (32.1%), euphony (22.4%), brevity (21%), euphony (20%) and productivity (4.5%), respectively (see Figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3). This means that these findings confirmed the same results.

Objective One, Research Question 4: Concerning the importance of WF and WS by the APLL and independent individuals, the results obtained from items 6a-9a (see Table 5.1) show that overall more than 39% of participants are positive about WF and WS when done by whether the APLL or private individuals. Put precisely, 191 respondents (39.9%) believe that word-formation should be done by the APLL by choosing 'very much' and 'much'; 106 students (22.1%) ticked 'moderately'; and 182 students (38%) agreed on 'very little' and 'little' suggesting that the APLL had better not make and introduce neologisms. These percentages seemed to be quite similar as to word-formation carried out by individuals in that 189 participants (39%) were 'very

‘much’ and ‘much’; 179 participants (37%) said ‘little’ and ‘very little’; and ‘moderately’ was ticked by 116 students (24%).

However, as for WS by the APLL, 192 respondents (39.5%) chose ‘much’ and ‘very much’; 37.4% (181 participants) chose ‘little’ and ‘very little’; and 112 students (23.1%) chose ‘moderately’. This means that totally about half the respondents are positive about WS done by the APLL. However, with reference to WS by individuals, 40% said ‘much’ and ‘very much’; 37.7% chose ‘little’ and ‘very little’, which means that the respondents disagree about word-selection done by individuals. The option ‘Moderately’ was ticked by 22.3% (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Percentages of WF and WS by APLL and Individuals

Condition	VL/	L	F	M	VM	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
WF done by individuals	14.3	22.7	24	23.8	15.2	2.030992	1.284189	0.632296	1
WS done by individuals	13.9	23.8	22.3	24.2	15.8	2.042105	1.29194	0.632651	2
WS done by APLL	15.5	21.9	23.1	27.8	11.7	1.985567	1.26041	0.786634	3
WF done by APLL	16.5	21.5	22.1	28	11.9	1.97286	1.277949	0.647765	4
Overall Mean	15.1	22.5	22.8	25.9	13.7	2.007881			

As shown in Table 5.3, the overall mean is low (2.01). In addition, the means of individual items reveals that all items are ‘moderately’ supported. Based on CV obtained, the participants’ preferences are ‘WF done by individuals’, ‘WS done by individuals’, ‘WS done by APLL’ and ‘WF done by APLL’, respectively. Taken together, the chance of WF and WS by the APLL and/ or private individuals is shown to be a fifty-fifty.

Objective One, Research Question 5: Items 10a and 11a (see Table 5.4 below) reveal data regarding the APLL’s success in word-formation and word-selection. 290 out of

488 respondents (59%) chose ‘little’ and ‘very little’ as to word-formation. This percentage is almost the same with respect to word-selection (namely, 58.7%). However, considering the last two options (‘much’ and ‘very much’), these percentages were totally 11.7% (by 57 respondents) and 13.1% (by 64 respondents) for WF and WS, respectively. Meanwhile, 141 participants (28.9%) think that the APLL has ‘moderately’ been successful in WF whereas this percentage is 28.2% for WS (by 138 respondents).

Table 5.4 Respondents’ views on APLL’s success in WF and WS

Activity	VL	L	F	M	VM	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
APLL’s success in WS	22.3%	36.4%	28.2%	10.8%	2.3%	1.343558	1.012506	0.7536	1
APLL’s success in WF	22.7%	36.7%	28.9%	9.4%	2.3%	1.317623	0.998735	0.757982	2
Overall Mean	22.5%	36.5%	28.6%	10.1%	2.3%	1.330591			

Based on CV obtained, the APLL seems to be more successful in WS than WF. In fact, as shown in Table 5.4, totally, a slightly less than 60% of participants have chosen ‘Little’ and ‘Very little’ regarding the APLL’s success in the fulfillment of WF and WS while only a little more than 12% of respondents have ticked ‘Much’ and ‘Very much’. This percentage was less than 30% for ‘moderately’ option. Totally, This finding is in line with Sadeghi’s (2001, p. 28) observation in which from all products only a few words of the APLL have been readily accepted by Iranian Persian speech community.

However, attitudes towards word-formation and word-selection carried out by the APLL seem to be dissimilar. Or to put it in another way, some researchers (see Zomorrodian, 2003, p. 494) are of the opinion that the APLL has been successful in creating and promoting new lexical items (see Chapter Three). Others (Farshidvard, 2010, pp. 85-86; Zarnikhi, 2003, p. 47) express different opinions in that the results

have been disappointing so much so that they have caused the speech community, even at academic levels, not to take the words suggested by the APLL seriously.

As stated earlier (see Chapter Three), in order to be successful in this connection it requires that people be motivated and obviously if there is no support on the part of the government, efforts are doomed to failure due to individualism and extremism (Batani, 2002, p. 22).

Objective One, Research Question 7: As for the necessity of conducting a public opinion poll at regular intervals concerning the APLL suggested equivalents (see item 17a above), 490 respondents (99.4%) answered this question. As shown in Table 5.1, more than 65.5% (321 participants) had a favourable attitude towards a public opinion poll choosing ‘much’ and ‘very much’. By contrast, 22.7% of the responses (111 participants) said ‘little’ and ‘very little’ and 11.8% said ‘moderately’ (by 58 participants).

More than half of the respondents have a favorable attitude towards a public opinion poll choosing ‘much’ and ‘very much’. A probable justification could be the fact that since the respondents belongs to university-educated circle; they would prefer to interact with each other to come to an agreement as to new equivalents. This finding is in line with data from Jahangiri (1980; 1999) and Modarresi (2012), who claim that university-educated people compared to other groups in the society treat language issues in a similar way.

Objective One, Research Question 8: The results obtained from item 2b concerning the use of living elements (roots, prefixes and suffixes) in Persian for word-formation reveal that 485 out of 493 respondents (98.4%) answered the question. Table 5.7 disclosed that 49.7% of the responses said ‘much’ and ‘very much’; 23.1% said ‘moderately’; and 27.2% said ‘little’ and ‘very little’ meaning that it was not important

to make use of roots, prefixes and suffixes for the creation of new words. Such a result indicates that almost half the participants are positive about using these living elements in Persian by choosing the last two options: ‘much’ and ‘very much’.

Objective One, Research Question 9: In items 1-5 (see Table 5.5), the Iranian state university students were queried about the importance of the features of word (such as brevity, euphony, eusemy, productivity and semantic transparency) in accepting or rejecting the APLL general words. The data obtained from the questionnaire showed that 281 respondents (57.1%) chose ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’, believing that brevity has a key role when accepting new words; 138 participants (28%) said ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ and 73 students (14.9%) said ‘neutral’.

With regard to productivity, 251 respondents (51%) ticked ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’; 144 participants (29.3%) said ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’; and 97 students (19.7%) ticked ‘neutral’.

As for euphony, 291 respondents (59.3%) said ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’, indicating that they agreed on the importance of euphony in accepting new words whereas 22.9% (by 112 students) preferred to tick ‘disagree’, ‘strongly disagree’ and 87 participants (17.8%) chose ‘neutral’.

Concerning semantic transparency, 490 students answered this question in which 295 respondents (60.2%) believed that it is a determining factor in accepting new words by choosing ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’; 89 participants (18.2%) ticked ‘neutral’; and 106 respondents (21.6%) ticked ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’, believing that semantic transparency is not so important when accepting new words.

Regarding eusemy, 493 participants answered this question in which 297 respondents (60.2%) seemed to be positive about the importance of eusemy in accepting

new words selecting ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’; and 79 respondents (16.1%) said ‘neutral’ whereas 23.7% (by 117 students) said ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’, expressing that eusemy was not that important when accepting new words.

As seen in Table 5.5, based on CV obtained, semantic transparency and eusemy are the respondents’ first two choices for accepting new words by 60.2%. Other priorities included euphony (59.3%), brevity (57.1%), and productivity (51%), respectively. The overall mean is 2.49, showing that the respondents’ choices fluctuate between ‘Disagree’ and ‘Neutral’.

Table 5.5 Importance of word features when accepting new words

NO	Statement	SD/ D 1/ 2	N 3	A/ SA 4/ 5	Mean	SD*	CV	Rank
1	Semantic transparency is important when accepting new words.	21.6%	18.2%	60.2%	2.630612	1.250064	0.475199	1
2	Eusemy is important when accepting new words	23.7%	16.1%	60.2%	2.62069	1.265609	0.48293	2
3	Productivity is important when accepting new words.	29.3%	19.7%	51%	2.29065	1.126823	0.491923	3
4	Euphony is important when accepting new words.	22.9%	17.8%	59.3%	2.565306	1.272977	0.496228	4
5	Brevity is important when accepting new words.	28%	14.9%	57.1%	2.319106	1.328752	0.572959	5
Overall Mean					2.485273			

SD = Strongly disagree, D = Disagree, N = Neutral, A = Agree, SA = Strongly agree
SD* = standard deviation

Objective One, Research Question 10: In items 1-5 (see Table 5.6) regarding the respondents’ preference for the importance of five criteria in accepting the APLL equivalents), 475 out 493 respondents (96.3%) answered the question in which they ticked semantic transparency (1) and productivity (5) as their first and last choices. Three other choices in order of preference were eusemy (2), brevity (3) and euphony (4). In other words, the respondents believe that semantic transparency is the most determining factor when accepting and rejecting new words. For any new given words to be accepted, they should be semantically transparent. Productivity is believed to be

the least determining factor of the five criteria in the acceptance or rejection of new lexical items. Generally, this shows that clarity in meaning is highly important and accordingly the APLL should consider it when creating and suggesting new lexical items.

Table 5.6 Participants' preference for word features when accepting new words

NO	Feature of word	1st	2nd	3th	4th	5th
1	Brevity is my Preference when accepting new words.			■		
2	Productivity is myPreference when accepting new words.					■
3	Euphony is myPreference when accepting new words.				■	
4	Semantic transparency is myPreference when accepting new words.	■				
5	Eusemy (beautiful meaning) is myPreference when accepting new words.		■			

Objective One, Research Question 11: In addition to this, the respondents were asked to what extent it was important to utilize words used in the classic Persian books for word-selection (item 6b). Of 492 responses (99.8%), 51% of the participants chose ‘much’ and ‘very much’, indicating that a slightly more than half the participants were positive about the use of classic Persian books for the creation of words. Quite the contrary, 26.4% of these students said ‘little’ and ‘very little’, which suggest that they are not (that) favourable about using classic books for providing new lexical items; and 22.6% ticked ‘moderately’.

As shown in Table 5.7, despite the fact that less than 30% of the participants have unfavourable attitude towards the use of either the classic or modern books for WF and WS, it could totally be observed that Iranian university students are positive about selecting words from both sources. These findings regarding the use of both modern and

classic books for WF and WS are also consistent with the APLL's principals of terminology (see Appendix K) and previous studies (Farshidvard, 2010; Kafi, 1996; Ma'soumi Hamedani, 2003) in which they unanimously claim that Persian enjoys a rich literature and major Persian classic works of art are believed to be the source of a plethora of interesting words and phrases. For example, they suggest that we should try to select equivalents from *Shâhnâme* due to the fact that it replete with hundreds of interesting derived words.

Objective One, Research Question 12: In connection with the importance of the works of contemporary poets in relation to word-formation and word-selection (see item 3b), 489 responses (99.2%) were obtained. 240 respondents (namely, 49%) chose 'much' and 'very much'; and 25.4% of the choices (124 participants) said 'moderately'; and 'little' and 'very little' were ticked by 125 students (25.6%) (see Table 5.7). These figures show that approximately half of the participants adopted positive attitudes towards works by contemporary poets.

With regard to the significance of the works of contemporary famous writers in making and selecting new words (item 4b), 488 participants (99%) answered the question. Based on the data obtained from the questionnaires (as shown in Table 5.7), 219 participants (45%) chose 'much' and 'very much' whereas 129 of them (26.4%) ticked 'moderately' and 140 respondents (28.6%) said 'little' and 'very little'.

As for the importance of the works of distinguished translators in word-formation and word-selection (see item 5b), 490 responses (99.4%) were obtained in that 'much' and 'very much' were chosen by 251 participants (51.2%); 'little' and 'very little' were selected by 126 participants (25.7%); and 'moderately' was ticked by 113 participants (23.1%). As shown in Tables 5.1 and 5.7, more than half the participants have positive attitude towards famous translators.

The overall mean of these three items is 2.28. Taken together, over 48% of participants have positive attitude about using works by famous and distinguished poets, writers and translators by choosing ‘much’ and ‘very much’. This result reveals that these distinguished individuals (mostly non-APLL members) have a leading part in WF and WS. This also accords with previous observations and studies (Bahrami Aghdam, 2000; Habibi, 2003; Ne'matzade, 2000; Yarmohammadi 2000) who reached the conclusion that individuals including interested writers and translators should be taken into account as to equivalents suggested by the APLL. Of about 600, 000 new words and equivalents presented in the last century, only 5000 of which have been introduced by the Academies in Iran and the rest have been created by individuals, translators, writers and language users.

Objective One, Research Question 13: Item 1b above deals with the importance of using other dialects/ accents and the acceptance and rejection of the APLL words, the data obtained from the questionnaires disclosed that 176 out of 488 of the respondents (approximately 36%) used dialects other than Persian. Meanwhile, 51.6% of those participants using other accents or dialects have accepted the APLL new words and this percentage is 49.5% with regard to participants who use only Persian. In this connection, Mann-Whitney U-test was employed for any potential relation between using different accents or dialects and the acceptance of the APLL equivalents (see Section 5.4.9 for more detail).

Based on the results obtained from item 1b of the questionnaire, 488 out of 493 respondents answered the question. It is worth noting that, as shown in Table 5.7 below, 37.3% of those who answered this question (namely, 182 participants) believed that it was necessary to make use of accents or dialects other than Persian by choosing ‘much’ and ‘very much’. In addition, 122 students (showing 25%) ticked ‘moderately’. By

contrast, 184 participants (37.7%) were of the view that it was of ‘little’ and ‘very little’ importance that we use other accents or dialects, suggesting that there is no need to utilize other accents/ dialects in word-formation and word-selection.

Based on CV obtained, the participants’ preferences are ‘Use of other accents and dialects for creating words’, ‘Classic Persian books for WF and WS’, ‘Famous poets’ work for WF and WS’, ‘Distinguished translators’ work for WF and WS’, ‘Famous writers’ work for WF and WS’ and ‘Use of other accents and dialects for creating words’, respectively. A possible explanation might be the fact that standard Persian is of importance in dealing with linguistic activities, particularly in an academic setting; at the same time, respondents seem to be conservative and of the opinion that other nonstandard varieties are not prestigious and/ or capable to meet communication needs. This finding is in accord with the first part of the APLL’s principles of terminology in which we should avoid unfamiliar and dialectical words and use new equivalents from Modern Standard Persian since it is regarded as the common and ideal written language used by all educated people in the society (see APLL’s principles, Appendix K). In addition to this, it should be noted that the aim of the Prague School of Linguistics is claimed (Felber, 1985) to investigate the standard language as tool of communication in all areas of social life, in particular in the area of human culture, civilization and technology (see Chapter Three for more detail).

Table 5.7 Importance of different resources for WF and WS

Resources	VL	L	F	M	VM	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
Use of living elements for creating words	6.6%	20.6%	23.1%	34.2%	15.5%	2.313402	1.155621	0.499533	1
Classic Persian books for WF/ WS	5.3%	21.1%	22.6%	25.2%	25.8%	2.45122	1.22751	0.500775	2
Famous poets' work for WF/ WS	7.4%	18.2%	25.4%	31.9%	17.1%	2.333333	1.172313	0.50242	3
Distinguished translators' work for WF and WS	9.6%	16.1%	23.1%	32%	19.2%	2.35102	1.229847	0.523112	4
Famous writers' work for WF/ WS	10%	18.6%	26.4%	30.5%	14.5%	2.206967	1.197273	0.542497	5
Use of other accents/dialects for creating words	15.8%	21.9%	25%	23.8%	13.5%	1.973361	1.277393	0.647318	6
Overall Mean	2.271551								

Objective One, Research Question 14: Item 5a is concerned with the effect of participants' familiarity with foreign language(s) on the acceptance of APLL words. 161 out of 472 respondents (34.2%) are of the opinion that such knowledge (as exhibited in Table 5.1) has an effect on their acceptance of the APLL new words by choosing 'much' and 'very much' whereas 37.2% of the responses (including 176 students) reveals that the participants do not think so by ticking 'little' and 'very little'. However, 135 students (28.6%) believe that their foreign language knowledge 'moderately' affect their acceptance of the words suggested by the APLL. These results indicate that previous language knowledge may or may not affect attitudes of individuals towards new learning situation and language issues. This finding seems to be consistent with that of Newcombe (2007, p. 17) who states that previous knowledge and experience may facilitate learning; however, some others may hinder their development due to dogmatic attitudes and lack of flexibility (see Chapter Three).

Objective One, Research Question 15: In item 11b, the participants were asked about the importance of sharing the experiences and knowledge of other countries in word

creation. As revealed in Table 5.1, 465 participants answered this question in which a slightly more than 40% (187 participants) were positive about it by choosing ‘much’ and ‘very much’, believing that it was important to share the experience of other countries in providing new words. ‘Moderately’ was chosen by 96 participants (20.5%). By contrast, 183 students (39.3%) chose ‘little’ and ‘very little’, believing that it was not that important to share foreigners’ experience and knowledge in creating neologisms.

Objective One, Research Question 16: Since the ‘Persian Literature’ is a course taught in all academic disciplines in the Iranian universities, the respondents were asked whether or not it was necessary to include a section under the title of ‘Word-formation’ and ‘Word-selection’ (see Table 5.1, items 7b and 8b). In fact, the reason behind such an idea was to provide students with experiencing the Persian language and make them create and suggest their own new words. This could help them to be more concerned with the new words created and promoted by the APLL.

The results obtained from items 7b and 8b revealed that of 493 respondents, 486 (98.6%) answered this question as for word-formation. In other words, regarding the importance of word-formation as a part of the ‘Persian literature’ course, as shown in Tables 5.1 and 5.8, over 35.8% of respondents chose ‘much’ and ‘very much’; 44.4% was ‘ little’ and ‘very little’; and 19.8% said ‘moderately’. The mean of this item is low (2.81), showing that the respondents are not so favourable about the inclusion of WF in their Persian Literature Course.

Concerning the inclusion of ‘word-selection’ as a part of the ‘Persian literature’ course, approximately similar responses were obtained (see Table 5.1). In fact, 185 respondents (37.9%) ticked ‘much’ and ‘very much’, believing that it was important to allocate a certain section of the Persian Literature Course to word-selection; By

contrast, 42.7% were of the opinion that there was no need to include such a subject-matter in Persian Literature by choosing ‘little’ and ‘very little’. However, 19.4% chose ‘moderately’. The mean of this item is low (1.88), indicating that the respondents are not so favourable about the inclusion of WS in their Persian Literature Course.

Table 5.8 Necessity of WF and WS in University Course and Website Creation

Resources	VL	L	F	M	VM	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
Website creation for WS	14.4%	20.5%	19.3%	28.5%	17.3%	2.137577	1.319202	0.617148	1
Website creation for WF	17%	20.5%	20.1%	26.7%	15.7%	2.032854	1.33447	0.656452	2
WS in university course	19%	23.7%	19.4%	26%	11.9%	1.879346	1.311895	0.698059	3
WF in university course	20.5%	23.9%	19.8%	25.3%	10.5%	1.812757	1.304995	0.719895	4
Overall Mean	1.965634								

Objective One, Research Question 17: Items 9b and 10b concern the necessity of establishing a website for the categories of word-formation and word-selection. Data obtained disclosed that of 206 out 487 responses (42.4%) were positive about the establishment of such a website for word-formation by choosing ‘much’ and ‘very much’; 98 participants (20.1%) said ‘moderately’; and 183 students (37.5%) said ‘little’ and ‘very little’, showing that it was no use to create a website for this purpose (see Table 5.1 and 5.8). This is almost the case with word-selection in that more than 223 respondents (45.8%) ticked ‘much’ and ‘very much’; 94 participants (19.3%) said ‘moderately’; and ‘little’ and ‘very little’ were preferred by 34.9%, indicating that they did not believe in website creation for word-selection at all (see Table 5.1 and 5.8). Overall, considering website creation for WF and WS, the results reveal that respondents are mostly favourable about website creation for both categories (i.e. word-formation and word-selection).

As seen in Table 5.8, based on CV obtained, the participants' preferences include 'Website creation for WS', 'Website creation for WF', 'WS in university course' and 'WF in university course', respectively.

5.2.2 The "Involvement of experts" dimension

Objective One, Research Question 6: The second dimension consists of five statements (see Part B, Section One of the questionnaire). Items 12-16 (see Table 5.9 below) are about the respondents' assessment of the importance of certain experts' involvement in the APLL's activities (e.g. linguists, men of letters, writers, poets and translators). The overall mean is fine (2.64). In addition, the means of individual items in Table 5.9 show that all items are 'moderately' supported.

Concerning the involvement of linguists in the APLL's activities (WF and WS), 491 out of 493 responses (99.6%) were obtained in which 68.4% of the responses said 'much' and 'very much'. This percentage decreased to 21.8% for 'little' and 'very little', indicating that linguists' involvement in the APLL was not so important; and 9.8% said 'moderately'. As seen in Table 5.9, the mean for this item is high (3.83). Such a positive attitude towards linguists expressed by the respondents in this study is consistent with earlier observations by Sadeghi (2003) in which he claims that linguists play a pioneering role in using certain language elements and structures such as *sâxtâr* 'structure', *nevestâr* 'writing', *peyvastâr* 'continuum', and *virâstâr* 'editor'. Meanwhile, this favorable attitude is in line with Davari Ardekani's (2003) research in that she suggests that it is logical to ask some sociolinguists to assist word-selection groups.

Table 5.9 Importance of experts' involvement in the APLL

NO	Statement	VL/ L 1/2	F 3	M/ VM 4/ 5	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
12	The involvement of linguists in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...	21.8	9.8	68.4	2.802444	1.250173	0.446101	1
13	The involvement of men of letters in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...	20.6	15.5	63.9	2.712245	1.228851	0.453075	2
14	The involvement of famous writers in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...	21.2	18.6	60.2	2.585714	1.220898	0.472171	3
15	The involvement of distinguished translators in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...	22.5	15.2	62.3	2.678351	1.290319	0.481759	4
16	The involvement of famous poets in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...	26	22.1	51.9	2.423313	1.244145	0.513407	5
Overall Mean		2.640413						

VL= Very little; L= Little; F= Fine, M= Much; VM= Very much

Concerning the involvement of men of letters, 490 out of 493 respondents answered this question in that 63.9% said 'much' and 'very much', agreeing on the importance of the involvement of this group of experts in the APLL. Moreover 'moderately' was chosen by 15.5%. By contrast, 20.6% were 'little' and 'very little' positive about the presence of these people in the activities of APLL. Totally, it is shown that the majority of the respondents (about 64%) voted for the involvement of men of letters in the APLL's activities (see Table 5.9). Such a positive attitude towards men of letters expressed by the respondents of this study does not seem to be consistent with earlier studies by Kafi (1996), who directly challenges men of letters and accuses them of having failed to provide workable solutions. Neither is it in line with Sadeghi's (2003) claims in which he criticizes men of letters for confining themselves to traditional frameworks and not wanting to accept suggestions in word-formation as well as ignoring the present needs of Iranian society.

With regard to the presence of writers in connection with WF and WS done by the APLL, 490 out 493 respondents (99.4%) answered this question in which 295 respondents (60.2%) agreed that the involvement of writers is of importance choosing

‘much’ and ‘very much’; 104 responses (21.2%) said ‘little’ and ‘very little’; and 91 respondents (18.6%) ticked ‘moderately’. The responses indicate that most respondents (more than 60%) are positive about writers’ presence in the APLL as well (see Table 5.9 above).

Regarding poets, 489 out of 493 responses (99.2%) were obtained in which 254 respondents (51.9%) said ‘much’ and ‘very much’; 127 respondents (26%) said ‘little’ and ‘very little’; and 108 respondents (22.1%) said ‘moderately’. In short, more than half the respondents believed that poets’ involvement in the APLL was important (see Table 5.9).

In the last part of the question, the respondents were asked about the importance of well-known translators’ involvement in the APLL. 485 out 493 responses (98.4%) were obtained in that 62.3% of them said ‘much’ and ‘very much’. This percentage dropped to 22.5% for ‘little’ and ‘very little’; and lastly ‘moderately’ was reported by 15.2% (74 responses).

As shown in Table 5.9, the overall mean is fine (2.64). It can be observed that the respondents are of the opinion that the involvement of experts in the activities of the APLL is important; and linguists (68.4%), men of letters (63.9%), well-known translators (62.3%), writers (60.2%) and poets (51.9%) were their choices in order of preference (see Table 5.9).

Based on CV obtained, the participants’ preferences are ‘linguists’, men of letters’, ‘writers’, ‘translators’ and ‘poets’ involvement in the APLL for WF and WS, respectively.

Taken together, the data concerning the attitudes of Iranian state university students towards the APLL and its activities shows that the APLL is accorded a higher

place. Table 5.10 shows that the overall mean of the two dimensions is 2.35, indicating that the participants are partly neutral and partly agree with the APLL and its activities.

Table 5.10 The Means of two dimensions

No	Dimensions	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
1	“Involvement of experts” dimension	2.640413	1.246877	0.472228	1
2	The “APLL and its words” dimension	1.935861	1.218263	0.629313	2
Overall Mean		2.35			

5.3 Objective Two: The Iranian state university students’ attitude towards application of APLL suggestions in mass media and by certain individuals

The second objective of this study was to provide insight into the attitudes of Iranian state university students towards the application of APLL suggestions in mass media and by certain individuals. For this purpose, two questions were formulated (see Section 1.4). The data pertaining to those two questions are discussed in 5.3.1 and 5.3.2.

5.3.1 Iranian State University Students’ attitudes towards the use of APLL words by certain individuals (such as the public, reporters, newsreaders, their family and professors or lecturers)

In order to answer this question, the participants in this study were requested to respond to five statements from Part B, Section One of the questionnaire by marking one of five options (for more details see 4.5.2).

Objective Two, Research Question 1: Table 5.11 exhibits the data related to the extent to which reporters, newsreaders, the public, the participants’ family and university professors are believed to be using the new words suggested by the APLL. The figures show that the respondents negatively associate with these individuals’ use of the words. The overall mean is low (1.64). Furthermore, the means of individual items in Table

5.11 show that the first two items (reporters and newsreaders) are either ‘Much’ or ‘Very much’ supported. In other words, at least more than 35% and at the most 56.2% of the participants state that reporters and newsreaders use the APLL words ‘much’ or ‘very much’. It should be noted at this point that according to a circular announced by the APLL in 1996, governmental organizations, departments, institutes, etc. including the IRIB are obliged to make use of the words suggested by the APLL when exchanging letters (see <http://www.persianacademy.ir>). In addition, newsreaders have access to texts (RCIRIB, 2011) and, more importantly, such texts are already edited several times by IRIB experts to ensure that all intended circulars have been followed, one can find newsreaders using the APLL approved equivalents more whereas since reporters provide live news coverage, they are probably expected not to use the APLL words as much.

The last three items are either ‘Very little’, ‘Little’ or ‘moderately’ supported in that at least 46.4% and at most 70.4% of the participants express that their family, the public and the university professors or lecturers use the words created by the APLL ‘little’ or ‘very little’.

Concerning the respondents’ families and the public, it could be said that since they are not forced by any institutions or organization to use the words promoted by the APLL, they do not seem to readily accept and make use of these new words and habitually they use those words that they have already learnt. However, as for the first two groups (i.e. reporters and newsreaders), they have to abide by the rules enforced by the IRIB. Perhaps, it takes time for individuals to replace already established words with new approved equivalents.

As for the university professors and lecturers, they seem to make less use of the APLL words compared to reporters and newsreaders but more use of the words compared to respondents' families and the public.

Table 5.11 Percentages and Means of Students rating their assessment of certain Individuals' use of APLL Neologisms

NO	Statement	VL/ L 1/2	F 3	M/ VM 4/ 5	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
18	Newsreaders use the APLL words ...	13.9	29.9	56.2	2.366599	1.072868	0.453337	1
19	Reporters use the APLL words ...	25.6	38.5	35.9	1.941057	1.106628	0.570116	2
20	The professors/ lecturers in my university use the APLL words ...	46.4	29.8	23.8	1.653689	1.065102	0.644077	3
21	My family members use the APLL words ...	70.2	21.5	8.3	1.128834	0.933093	0.826599	4
22	The public use the APLL words ...	70.4	22.2	7.4	1.106122	0.93389	0.844292	5
Overall Mean		45.3	28.4	26.3	1.63926			

VL = Very Little; L = Little; F = Fine; M = Much; VM = Very Much

A look at the table reveals that the items, which were highly supported, are items 18 and 19. The means of these two items as shown in the columns of the Table 5.11 range between 1.94 and 2.37. In addition, the items, which were low supported, are items 20, 21 and 22 of which the means range between 1.11 and 1.65. Totally, more than 45% of the students when asked these questions, marked 'little' or 'very little' options; 28.4% chose 'moderately' option while 23.8% ticked 'much' or 'very much'. As seen in Table 5.11, based on CV obtained, the participants' rating include 'newsreaders', 'reporters', 'university professors/ lecturers', 'family members' and 'the public', respectively.

5.3.2 Iranian State University Students' attitudes towards the use of APLL words by mass media (such as cinema, newspapers, radio, satellite, SMS, TV, theatre and the Internet)

Objective Two, Research Question 2: In order to answer this question, the participants in this study were requested to respond to one item from Part B, Section Two, subpart

(c) of the questionnaire by writing a number from 1-8 in the spaces provided (for more details see 4.5.2). In fact, the second question of the second objective of the study tries to provide answers lying in participants' feeling about different media (including cinema, newspapers, radio, satellite, SMS, TV, theatre and the Internet) in order of preference for promoting the APLL suggestions.

Table 5.12 Mass media and Participants' priorities for promoting APLL words

NO	Media	Participants' priorities	Mean	SD	CV	Rank
1	Cinema	5	4.601227	2.093726	0.455036	7
2	Newspapers	3	4.494888	2.078499	0.462414	5
3	Radio	2	4.579918	2.226812	0.486212	3
4	Satellite	4	4.803681	2.33696	0.486493	2
5	SMS	7	4.934426	2.268389	0.459707	6
6	Television	1	2.854508	2.538682	0.889359	1
7	Theatre	8	5.670082	2.282818	0.402608	8
8	the Internet	6	4.530738	2.187109	0.482727	4

As indicated by Table 5.12, the participants' priorities range from TV (1) to theatre (8). Other choices in order of preference are radio (2), newspapers (3), satellites (4), cinema (5), the Internet (6) and SMS (7). In addition to this, based on the CV obtained the respondents' first and last choices are the same; i.e., Television and theatre, respectively (see Table 5.12 above). A possible explanation could be the fact TV and radio seem to be easily found in almost every house and this covers more viewers and listeners in connection with different categories including linguistic issues. In other words, these media are the cheapest means for the purpose of spreading new concepts in the speech community. This finding is in line with the ideas of some scholars (Sadeghi, 1986; Zomorrodian, 2003) in which they stressed that mass media hold a predominant position in disseminating suggested equivalents and the IRIB should particularly be used for spreading selected words (see Chapter Three).

5.4 Objective Three: Correlation between the Iranian state university students' attitude toward the APLL and certain factors such as demographic traits and social status.

- 1) Is there any correlation between the attitudes of the participants towards the APLL and gender?
- 2) Is there any correlation between the attitudes of the participants towards the APLL and their age?
- 3) Is there any correlation between participants' knowledge of foreign language(s) and their accepting the APLL words?
- 4) Is there any correlation between the attitudes of the participants towards the APLL and their place of residence?
- 5) Is there any correlation between the attitudes of the participants towards the APLL and their level of education?
- 6) Is there any correlation between the attitudes of the participants towards the APLL and their field of study?
- 7) Is there any correlation between the attitudes of the participants towards certain word feature (brevity, euphony, eusemy, productivity, and semantic transparency) and the acceptance of the words suggested by the APLL?
- 8) Is there any correlation between participants' activities (reading newspaper and magazines, studying literary works, and listening and watching literary programmes on the radio and the television) and their acceptance of the APLL words?
- 9) Is there any correlation between participants' use of accents/ dialects other than Persian and their accepting the APLL words?

The third objective of this study was to provide insight into the correlation between the Iranian state university students' attitudes towards the APLL and other

factors. For this purpose, nine questions were formulated (see Section 1.4). In order to answer these questions, the participants were requested to complete Part A and some statements/ items from Part B of the questionnaire (for more details, see 4.4.1 and 4.4.2). In other words, nine variables are specified as potential determinants of students' attitudes towards the APLL and its activities. Those variables are: gender, age, knowledge of foreign language, place of residence, level of education, field of study, attitudes towards some word features, different activities, use of different accents or dialects.

5.4.1 The effect of Students' gender

Objective Three, Research Question 1: In this study, the males outnumber the females; namely, 55% and 45%, respectively (see Table 5.13). With regard to the importance of gender and the acceptance and rejection of the APLL words, the data suggested that male respondents seem to be a little more positive about the APLL suggested equivalents. That is, a little more than half of the male respondents (51.3%) accepted the words whereas the female respondents were 49% on the acceptance of the equivalents. In this connection, since gender is treated as a nominal variable and participants' attitudes as an ordinal variable, the Mann-Whitney *U*-test was employed to determine whether the respondents' attitudes towards the APLL and its activities would vary according to their gender. The results were $u = 27965.500$; $z = -1.360$; $p = 0.174$. Based on these figures, it could be inferred that the participants' attitudes towards the APLL and its activities are in general independent of their gender.

Table 5.13 SPSS output reporting gender frequency

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Female	223	45.2	45.2	45.2
Male	270	54.8	54.8	100.0
Total	493	100.0	100.0	

	Mean
Gender Female Acceptance	49.00
Male Acceptance	51.33

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Acceptance	Female	223	49.0026	15.09042	1.01053
	Male	270	51.3282	15.37874	.93592

Mann-Whitney Test Ranks

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Acceptance Female	223	237.41	52941.50
Male	270	254.92	68829.50
Total	493		

Test Statistics

	Acceptance
Mann-Whitney U	27965.500
Wilcoxon W	52941.500
Z	-1.360
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.174

a Grouping Variable: Gender

In other words, there was no significant relationship between the respondents' gender and the acceptance or rejection of the APLL words. It needs to be pointed out that although male respondents tend to be slightly more accepting of the words as compared to the females, this finding is consistent with Haque's (1989) study in which he found that the learner's gender on attitudes of students towards English in Bangladesh does not have a major impact on either their attitudes or achievement.

On the other hand, this result does not confirm the findings of previous gender-related studies (Emam, 1996), in that in terms of lexical differences, it was disclosed that males' choice of language was quite different from that of females so much so that such lexical choice could help readers recognize whether the authors were male or female.

It is worth noting that studies of gender, as Wodak and Gertraud (1998) put it, often seem to be contradictory due to using different methodology, samples used, and scholars' implicit assumptions about the issue. Therefore, a possible explanation could be that the research on the issue of gender and its effect on language seems to be rather inconclusive. In sum, this findingshows that although nonlinguistic parameters affect linguistic behavior of individuals in different societies, the nature and extent of their effect may vary from society to society.

5.4.2 The effect of Students' age

Objective Three, Research Question 2: With reference to age, the respondents' age in this study ranged from 18 to 61 years, with an average age of 23.4 (see Table 5.14).

Table 5.14 SPSS output reporting participants' age

Descriptive Statistics		
Age		
N	Valid	486
	Missing	7

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	486	18.0	61.0	23.414	3.8115
Valid N (listwise)	486				

In this regard, the Spearman's rho test was employed to determine whether the respondents' attitudes towards the APLL and its activities would vary according to their age. Note that the rationale behind using this non-parametric test (Spearman coefficient)

is that on the one hand, we are dealing with an ordinal variable (participants' attitude) and, on the other hand, the students' age is treated as an interval variable.

The result obtained was $p = 0.097$; coefficient = 0.075. Based on this figure, it could be inferred that the participants' attitudes towards the APLL and its activities are in general independent of their age. In other words, the participants' age do not seem to affect their acceptance or rejection of the APLL words.

Table 5.15 SPSS output reporting Spearman's rho test statistics

Nonparametric Correlations

Test	Variables	<i>P</i>	Acceptance	Age
Spearman's rho	acceptance	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.075
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.097
		N	493	486
	age	Correlation Coefficient	.075	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.097	.
		N	486	486

This finding is in disagreement with Jordan's (1941) reports in which he found that on attitudes towards the French language among English students there is an inverse relationship between age and attitudes. Nor is this finding consistent with Yamoor's (1985) study in that she maintained that positive attitudes towards a second language increase with age (as students grow older).

A probable justification is could be the fact that the research on the issue of age and its effect on language seems to be rather inconclusive. Put it differently, the relation between age and other social factors seems to be different across cultures. It is highly probable that the role of age in adopting positive or negative attitudes towards language and using or not using certain variations differs from one language to another, from one person to another, and on whether the language is of particular importance to the individual.

5.4.3 The effect of students' knowledge of foreign language(s)

Objective Three, Research Question 3: According to the results obtained from item 5a (i.e. the effect of respondents' familiarity with foreign language(s) on the acceptance of APLL words), about 34% of participants chose 'much' and 'very much', believing that having knowledge of foreign language(s) had an impact on their accepting the APLL new words. Less than 29% ticked 'moderately' and a slightly more than 37% were of the opinion that knowing foreign language(s) had no effect in their acceptance of the words promoted by the APLL by choosing 'little' and 'very little' (see Table 5.2).

As we are dealing with two ordinal variables; namely, attitude and familiarity with foreign language(s), the Spearman test was also conducted. In order to know the extent to which the two variables (i.e. familiarity with language and the acceptance of the APLL words) correlate. The results was $p = 0.042$ and Spearman's $\rho = 0.094$, indicating that the test was confirmed by 95%. Based on these figures, it could be inferred that there is a significant relationship between the percentage of acceptance of the APLL words and the respondents' familiarity with foreign language(s). A possible explanation could be the fact that when someone is acquainted with foreign languages, it will be much easier for him/ her to analyses new words for acceptance or rejection. In other words, he/ she may scrutinize the components of new equivalents to make sure whether or not they are precise and convey meaning(s) properly.

Table 5.16 SPSS output reporting Spearman test statistics

Correlations

			Acceptance	Familiarity with foreign language(s) and acceptance of APLL words
Spearman's rho	Acceptance	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.094(*)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.042
		N	493	472
	Familiarity with foreign language(s) and acceptance of APLL words	Correlation Coefficient	.094(*)	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.042	.
		N	472	472

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

			Mean
Familiarity with foreign language(s) and acceptance of APLL words?	Very little	Acceptance	46.44
	Little	Acceptance	48.98
	Fine	Acceptance	50.09
	Much	Acceptance	53.93
	Very much	Acceptance	47.67

5.4.4 The effect of students' place of residence

Objective Three, Research Question 4: The fourth question of objective three in this study was about the importance of respondents' place of living and their acceptance or rejection of the APLL words. According to the data obtained revealed that of the 489 respondents who answered this question, 292 of them (approximately 60%) lived in Tehran and 197 (approximately 40%) in other cities and towns.

The data obtained from the questionnaire showed that respondents living in Tehran were less positive about the APLL words. In other words, the percentage of the acceptance among Tehran respondents was lower than that of those from other cities or

towns (48.7% vs. 52.7%, respectively). The Mann-Whitney *U*-test was employed to determine whether the respondents' attitudes towards the APLL and its activities would vary according to their place of residence. The Mann-Whitney *U*-test was run due to the fact that the participants' place of residence is treated as a nominal variable and the participants' attitude as an ordinal variable.

The results were $z = -2.471$; $u = 24977.000$; $p = 0.013$, indicating a significant relationship. In other words, based on these figures, it could be inferred that those respondents living in cities/ towns other than Tehran were more agreeable to the APLL suggested equivalents. In general, this different attitude towards the APLL words could be attributed to the respondents' family and relatives' background. Alternatively, since one can find more educated families and relatives in Tehran, s/he is more exposed to exchange of ideas in different subject-matters including language issues. However, this condition more or less fails to be provided in other cities or towns, especially in small ones. Of course, this finding is in line with the view held by Modarresi (2012, p. 144) in that linguistic change happens more quickly in Tehran compared to other cities such as Ghazvin (165 km northwest of Tehran).

Table 5.17 SPSS output reporting Mann-Whitney *U*-test statistics

**Mann-Whitney Test
Ranks**

	Place of residence	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Acceptance	Tehran	292	232.04	67755.00
	Other cities	197	264.21	52050.00
	Total	489		

Test Statistics (a)

	Acceptance
Mann-Whitney U	24977.000
Wilcoxon W	67755.000
Z	-2.471
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.013

a. Grouping Variable: Place of residence

However, this finding seems to be in disagreement with that of Pauwels (1998), in which it was revealed that there was a stronger use of “Ms” in metropolitan than in regional centres. More specifically, the two largest cities of Sydney and Melbourne, while usage rates approach 40%, regional towns and centres recorded around 23% use. This lower use in regional centres suggests that the individuals have more conservative attitudes towards such issues.

5.4.5 The effect of students’ level of education

Objective Three, Research Question 5: The fifth question of objective three in this study was about the importance of respondents’ level of education and their acceptance or rejection of the APLL words. According to the data obtained from the questionnaires (see Table 5.18), it was revealed that of the 296 of respondents (60%) were Bachelors; 147 of them (30%) Masters; and 10% were Ph.D.

Table 5.18 Percentage of Respondents by gender and education

Gender	Programmes							
	BA		MA		Ph.D		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Female	153	31	57	12	13	3	223	45
Male	143	29	90	18	37	8	270	55
Total	296	60	147	30	50	10	493	100

With reference to the relationship between participants’ level of education and their accepting APLL words, the Kruskal-Wallis test was employed since one of the variables is nominal (participants’ education) and the other one is ordinal (participants’ attitudes). The results ($df = 2$; $\chi^2 = 4.049$; $p = 0.132$) indicated that there was no relationship between respondents’ *level of education* (BA, MA, Ph.D) and their acceptance and rejection of the APLL general words. In other words, Undergraduates, Masters and Ph.D students treated the issue almost in a similar way. This finding does

not support Modarresi's (2012) claim in that he held that people's level of education and even their fields of study play an important part in a speech community. Nor is this result in agreement with that of Jahangiri's (1980) study of the pronunciation of certain words in Tehran Persian, in which he found that all participants of the university-educated groups use less assimilation than all members of the next group, those with secondary education, and those, in turn, less than the those with primary education, and so forth.

Table 5.19 SPSS output reporting Kruskal-Wallis test statistics

**Kruskal-Wallis Test
Ranks**

Programmes		N	Mean Rank
Acceptance	Undergraduate	296	241.18
	Master	147	245.84
	Ph.D	50	284.90
	Total	493	

Test Statistics (a,b)

	Acceptance
Chi-Square	4.049
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.132

a Kruskal Wallis Test
b Grouping Variable: Programmes

As for parents' education, data obtained from Part A of the questionnaire revealed that parents of participants living in Tehran compare to those living in other cities and towns seem to be more educated (see Table 5.20).

Table 5.20 SPSS output reporting parents' education and place of residence**Cross tabulation**

Count		Fathers' education					Total
		Illiterate	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Tertiary	
Place of residence	Tehran	5	32	2	102	149	290
	Other cities	19	51	0	67	58	195
Total		24	83	2	169	207	485

Count		Mothers' education					Total
		Illiterate	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Tertiary	
Place of residence	Tehran	6	45	2	127	108	288
	Other cities	29	59	0	78	27	193
Total			104	2	205	135	481

Since one of the variables is nominal (participants' parents' education) and the other one is ordinal (participants' attitudes), the Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to find any correlation between the participants' parents' education and their acceptance of the APLL words. The results of mothers' education and fathers' education were ($df = 4$; $\chi^2 = 36.061$; $p = 0.000$) and ($df = 4$; $\chi^2 = 18.456$; $p = 0.001$), respectively, revealing a reverse relationship. In other words, what appears to be particularly significant is that respondents with more educated parents treated the issue of acceptance and rejection of the APLL words rather differently in that the more educated the parents, particularly mothers, there was less acceptance of the APLL words on the part of the respondents (see Table 5.21).

Table 5.21 SPSS output reporting Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics
Kruskal-Wallis Test
Ranks

Mothers' education		N	Mean Rank
Acceptance	Illiterate	35	294.46
	Primary	105	287.19
	Middle	2	240.75
	Secondary	206	245.23
	Tertiary	135	188.34
	Total	483	

Test Statistics(a,b)

	Acceptance
Chi-Square	36.061
Df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a Kruskal Wallis Test

b Grouping Variable: Mothers' education

Kruskal-Wallis Test
Ranks

Fathers' education		N	Mean Rank
Acceptance	Illiterate	24	294.44
	Primary	83	274.64
	Middle	2	199.00
	Secondary	171	259.24
	Tertiary	207	213.94
	Total	487	

Test Statistics(a,b)

	Acceptance
Chi-Square	18.456
Df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.001

a Kruskal Wallis Test

b Grouping Variable: Fathers' education

Based on these figures it could be inferred that there was a significant relationship between the respondent's parents' education and the respondents' acceptance of the APLL words. A possible explanation of this may be the fact that educated parents tend to spend more time with their children at home discussing different issues in relation with society, politics and language. More importantly, with fathers being away at work, mothers are in more contact with their children; therefore,

they have a more intimate relationship with their mothers and learn more from them. This finding supports Trudgill's (1983) view in that women are more conservative than men (who are thought to be more innovating) in dealing with language issues. In addition to this, this finding coincides with Jahangiri's (1999) study in that he claimed that university-educated women are good examples for using standard Persian and have advantages over other groups.

Additionally, such a result, as asserted by Modarresi (2012), confirmed the key role of mothers in training children notably when language is concerned because they can more easily transfer features connected to language to next generation.

5.4.6 The effect of students' field of study

Objective Three, Research Question 6: It was assumed students' attitudes towards the APLL and its activities might be associated with their majors and departments. This belief is based on the fact that different departments deal with Persian in a different way. In other words, Persian Language Department in any faculties, for example, requires different number of courses to be taught in connection with the Persian language. This belief is examined by applying Kruskal-Wallis test which is an extension to Mann-Whitney *U-test*. In other words, Kruskal-Wallis test is employed since one of the variables is nominal (participants' fields of study) and the other one is ordinal (participants' attitudes). The results are given in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22 SPSS output reporting Kruskal-Wallis Tests
Kruskal-Wallis

Ranks			
	Departments	N	Mean Rank
Acceptance	Engineering	191	219.43
	Science	74	277.11
	Humanities and Social sciences	143	284.77
	Art	49	225.35
	Language	32	336.63
	Total	489	

Test statistics a, b

	Acceptance
Chi-Square	24.613
Df	4
Asymp. Sig	.000

- a. Kruskal Wallis Test
 b. Grouping variable: Departments

The figures ($df = 4$; $\chi^2 = 24.613$ and $p = 0.000$) speak of the existence of statistically significant differences (at 0.05 and beyond levels) between the participants depending on which department they come from. It should be noted that based on results revealed by Kruskal-Wallis test, the direction of significance seemed to be in favour of Language Department. In other words, respondents from Language Department seem to be more positive about the APLL words. The other departments include Science, Humanities, Art and Engineering, respectively. This is probably due to the fact that these students are more exposed to using language.

5.4.7 The effect of students' attitudes towards some word features

Objective Three, Research Question 7: It was assumed students' attitudes towards the equivalents suggested and promoted by the APLL might be associated with certain word features. This belief is based on the fact words with different features might be more appealing or appear uninteresting and unacceptable. This belief is examined by applying Spearman's rank order correlation (ρ) test which is appropriate for ordinal or

interval data when not satisfying the distribution normality. The results are given in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23 SPSS output reporting Spearman-test statistics

			Correlations					
			Acceptance	Brevity	Productivity	Euphony	Semantic transparency	Eusemy
Spearman's rho	Acceptance	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.045	.097 (*)	-.007	.087	.032
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.316	.032	.873	.055	.480
		N	493	492	492	490	490	493
Sig. (2-tailed)	Brevity	Correlation Coefficient	.045	1.000	.641 (*)	.659 (*)	.563 (**)	.547 (**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.316	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	492	492	491	489	489	492
Sig. (2-tailed)	Productivity	Correlation Coefficient	.097 (*)	.641 (*)	1.000	.618 (*)	.575 (**)	.563 (**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.032	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
		N	492	491	492	489	489	492
Sig. (2-tailed)	Euphony	Correlation Coefficient	-.007	.659 (*)	.618 (*)	1.000	.635 (**)	.661 (**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.873	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
		N	490	489	489	490	487	490
Sig. (2-tailed)	Semantic transparency	Correlation Coefficient	.087	.563 (*)	.575 (*)	.635 (*)	1.000	.616 (**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.055	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
		N	490	489	489	487	490	490
Sig. (2-tailed)	Eusemy	Correlation Coefficient	.032	.547 (*)	.563 (*)	.661 (*)	.616 (**)	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.480	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
		N	493	492	492	490	490	493

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The figures do not seem to speak of the existence of statistically significant differences (at 0.032 levels and with a correlation coefficient of 0.097) between the word features (except for productivity) and their accepting the APLL words. In fact, the results of the correlation test showed that the direction of significance seemed to be in favour of only productivity. In other words, there is a relationship between productivity of word and the participants' acceptance of APLL words.

5.4.8 The effect of students' different activities

Objective Three, Research Question 8: It was assumed students' attitudes towards the APLL and its activities might be associated with reading newspapers, magazines,

Persian literary books and materials and/ or using literary programmes on TV and radio. This belief is based on the fact that the more we are exposed to programmes of this kind, the more easily we can decide on the new words suggested by the APLL. This belief is examined by applying Spearman's rho test which is "applied to ordinal data only" (Riazi, 1999, p. 258). Here, two ordinal variables (participants' different activities and their attitudes) are involved. The results are given in Table 5.24.

Table 5.24 SPSS output reporting Spearman-test statistics
Correlations

			Acceptance	Newspapers	Magazines	Literary programs on Radio	Literary programs on TV	Persian literary works
Spearman's rho	Acceptance	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.033	.014	.069	.078	.131(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.463	.750	.130	.086	.004
		N	493	487	487	487	489	486
	Newspapers	Correlation Coefficient	.033	1.000	.638(**)	.295(**)	.318(**)	.413(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.463	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	487	487	482	483	484	481
	Magazines	Correlation Coefficient	.014	.638(**)	1.000	.336(**)	.321(**)	.379(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.750	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
		N	487	482	487	483	485	481
	Literary programs on Radio	Correlation Coefficient	.069	.295(**)	.336(**)	1.000	.373(**)	.283(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.130	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
		N	487	483	483	487	485	481
	Literary programs on TV	Correlation Coefficient	.078	.318(**)	.321(**)	.373(**)	1.000	.187(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.086	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
		N	489	484	485	485	489	483
	Persian literary works	Correlation Coefficient	.131(**)	.413(**)	.379(**)	.283(**)	.187(**)	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
		N	486	481	481	481	483	486

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

The figures do not seem to speak of the existence of statistically significant differences (at 0.004 levels and with a correlation coefficient of 0.131) between the participants' use of above mentioned media (except for Persian literary books and materials) and their accepting the APLL words. In fact, the results of the correlation test showed that the direction of significance seemed to be in favour of only books and materials on literature. This is probably due to the fact that in general the respondents

are not interested in what are appeared in newspapers and magazines, or what are on TV and on the radio.

5.4.9 The effect of Students' use of different accents or dialect

Objective Three, Research Question 9: This research question is concerned with the importance of using other accents/ dialects and the acceptance or rejection of the APLL words. The data obtained in this regard revealed that 488 out of 493 respondents answered the question. Approximately 36% (176 out of 488) of respondents were found to be using dialects other than Persian. Meanwhile, it was revealed that the percentage of the acceptance of the APLL words among those who use only Persian was about 2% less than that of those participants using other accents and dialects (see Table 5.25 below).

In order to consider such a difference, the Mann-Whitney *U*-test was run since the participants' use of accents/ dialects is treated as a nominal variable and their attitude as an ordinal variable. The results ($z = -1.297$; $u = 25517.500$ and $\text{Sig} = 0.195$) showed that there seems to be no significant relationship between using dialects other than Persian and the acceptance and rejection of the APLL words. More precisely, the percentage of the acceptance among this group is 51.6% compared to the other group who use only Persian (49%), suggesting that this relationship did not seem to be statistically significant. Therefore, it could be said that whether to use other accents/ dialects or not, it will not have any impact on the acceptance of the APLL words by respondents. This finding is not in line with the view held by Modarresi (2012) in that linguistic change happens more quickly in Tehran compared to other cities such as Qazvin (165 km northwest of Tehran).

Table 5.25 SPSS output reporting Mann-Whitney *U*-test

Mann-Whitney Test Ranks				
Using other accents/ dialects		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Acceptance	Yes	176	255.51	44970.50
	No	312	238.29	74345.50
	Total	488		

Test Statistics	
	Acceptance
Mann-Whitney U	25517.500
Wilcoxon W	74345.500
Z	-1.297
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.195

a Grouping Variable: Using other accents/ dialects

In general, this difference of attitudes towards the APLL words could be attributed to the respondents' family and relatives' background. In fact, approximately 19.5% of the Iranian educated people reside in Tehran; therefore, one can find more educated families and relatives in this capital city (Department of Statistics, 2007). These families seem to be more exposed to exchange of ideas in different subject matters including language issues.

Possible explanations could be the fact that standard Persian is of importance in dealing with linguistic activities, particularly in an academic setting; at the same time, respondents seem to be conservative and believe that other nonstandard varieties are not prestigious and/or capable to meet communication needs.

5.5 Comments by respondents

Although limited responses to this question (see Section 1.9), it is worth considering them here. Below are discussed the points made by 39 out of 493 respondents on the equivalents approved by the APLL:

From the comments received from the participants, it could generally be concluded that one of the reasons that the respondents show disagreement on some of

the approved APLL equivalents is that they are of Arabic roots. In other words, four students had unfavourable attitude towards certain words due to the fact that they were of Arabic roots. Such negative attitude towards Arabic words expressions has long been common among distinguished Iranian scientists and writers throughout history (Farshidvard, 2010: 153-54). Examples in this connection include: *moxâberât* ‘telecommunication’; *majles* ‘parliament’; *mozu*’ for *sujet* ‘subject’; *hey’at* ‘commission’; and *mo’assese* ‘institute’.

As mentioned earlier (see Table 5.6), semantic transparency (see Section 1.8) is the respondents’ first choice when accepting new words. Based on the comments passed by the respondents, fourteen of them were not positive about certain equivalents due to lack of transparency and in some cases said that the suggested words convey different meanings.

Meanwhile, as the comments indicate, it could be inferred that some of the equivalents are not favoured due to the fact that the foreign words themselves had been common before the APLL words were introduced. In fact, these suggested equivalents are not used widely and the foreign words are still preferred by people.

On the base of these points, it seems clear that the APLL has failed to introduce new equivalents in a timely manner. Some of the words suggested by the APLL are not preferred because the previously introduced equivalents were better and more transparent. More importantly, some everyday technical words, already established, are believed to be user-friendly and free of ambiguity. Examples include *elmi* (from *elm* ‘science’ + suff, -i) and *âlemâne* (from *âlem* ‘scientist’ + suff, -âne ‘like’) for *académique* ‘academic’; *tabaqe* for *clâsse* ‘class’; *yârâne* for *subside* ‘subsidy’; *ettehâdiye* (from *ettehâd* ‘union’ + suff, -iye) for *syndicat* ‘syndicate’; *goruh* for *commission* ‘commission’; *bâmpuś* (from *bâm* ‘roof’ + *puś* ‘cover’) for *isolation*

‘isolation’ and *ganjine* (from *ganj* ‘treasure’ + suff, *-ine*) for *muse* ‘museum’. Having considered the words *elmi* and *âlemâne* for ‘academic’, one may conclude that these words fail to convey meaning due to the fact that the former normally means *scientific* and the latter *wise(ly)/ learned*.

Five respondents were unfavourable about some of the equivalents because the foreign words themselves had been common before the APLL words were introduced. In other words, the equivalents suggested by the APLL are not used widely and foreign words are still preferred by people. For example, *dânešgâhi* (from *dânešgâh* ‘university’ + suff, *-i*) and *âlemâne* for ‘academic’; *hamâhang* (from *ham* ‘together’ + *âhang* ‘tune’) for *harmonique* ‘harmonic’; *nemâyeš* (from *nemâ* ‘show’ + suff, *-(y)eš*) for *théâtre* ‘theatre’; *fanâvari* for *technologie* ‘technology’; *sâzemân* for *organisation* ‘organization’; *fan* for *technique* ‘technique’; *hamâyeš* for *congrès* ‘congress’; *darsad* (from *dar* ‘per’ + *sad* ‘hundred’) for *pourcentage* ‘percent’; *ramz* for *symbole* ‘symbol’; *goruh* and *hey’at* for *commission* ‘commission’; *baxš* for *département* ‘department’; and *darsadâne* (from *dar* ‘per’ + *sad* ‘hundred’ + suff *-ane*) for *pourcentage* ‘percentage’. This is exactly the point already made by Sadeghi (see Section 3.3.1) where he states that international words, such as *râdio*, *post*, *televiziyon* should be preserved.

Three participants said that the previous equivalents were better and clearer. For example, *darsadi* (from *dar* ‘per’ + *sad* ‘hundred’ + suff, *-i*) for *pourcentage* ‘percentage’; *mahtâbi* (from *mahtâb* ‘moonlight’ + suff, *-i*) for *balcon* ‘balcony’; *nurgir* (from *nur* ‘light’ + suff, *-gir* ‘take’) for *patio* ‘patio’; *soxanrâni* (from *soxan* ‘speech’ + *rân* ‘maker, doer’ + suff, *-i*) for *conference* ‘conference’; *kafpuš* (from *kaf* ‘floor’ + *puš* ‘cover’) for *moquette* ‘fitted carpet’; and *johardân* (from *johar* ‘ink’ + suff, *-dân* ‘container’) for *estampe* ‘stamp’. Some of these equivalents had been used in classic books and by the respondents’ forefathers. An example includes the word *mahtâbi*

'balcony' where families and friends used to get together underneath the moonlight in the summer nights and enjoy the moment. *Mahtâbi* was later replaced by *balkon*, a Persianised form of the French word *balcon* 'balcony'.

Apart from having a favourable attitude towards previously existing words, nine respondents believed that some everyday technical words have already been established and there seems to be no need to introduce new equivalents. Examples include *kâmpiyuter* for computer; *mos* for mouse; *pirinter* for printer; *mobâil* for mobile; and *helekupter* for helicopter. In other words, these Persianised words are widely used by large number of people. This is in line with the claim made by Zomorrodian (see Chapter Three) where he believes that when a foreign word becomes widespread in a language, it will be difficult to delete it from the language.

5.6 Summary

In Chapter Five, the data obtained from the questionnaire was discussed in detail based on objectives and related research questions. In Chapter Six, the data obtained from the interview with students and the APLL experts will be fully discussed.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW DATA

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the presentation and analysis of the qualitative data derived from interviews with 21 Iranian state university students and 5 APLL experts concerning their attitudes towards the APLL and its activities (see 4.14). It is hoped that the interviews provide supplementary findings that would inform and augment the findings yielded by the questionnaire.

6.2 Findings of the Interview with students

Figure 6.1 shows the distribution of students to their departments. Out of 21 participants, 10 (47.6%) are from Humanities and 8 (38.1%) participants are from the Engineering Department while the number of participants from Science Department is 3 (14.3%).

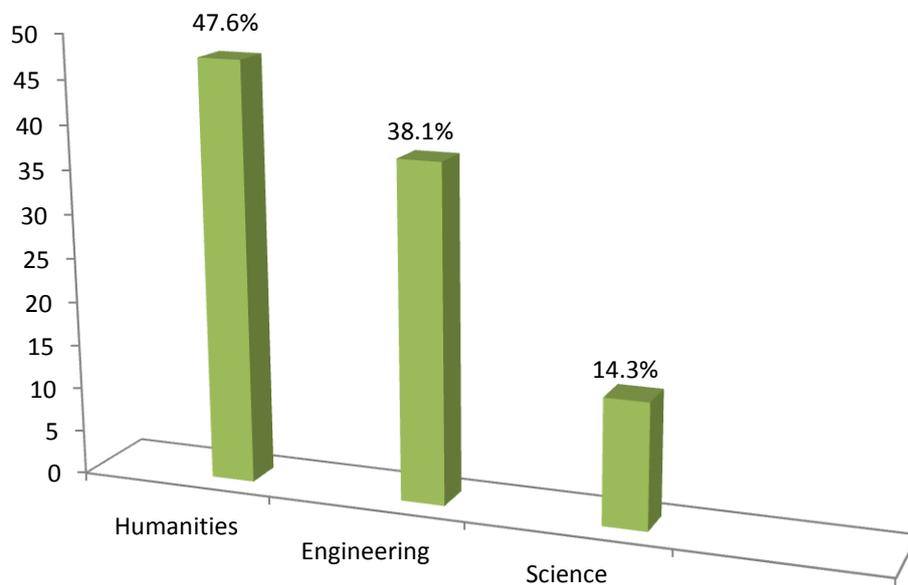


Figure 6.1 Participants in the interview by Department

In order to address the interview questions (see Appendices G and I), the answers were subjected to content analysis. For the sake of simplification, the findings were broken into four major sections, namely:

- (1) Demographic details
- (2) The APLL and its activities
- (3) Culture, Media and Personal interests
- (4) Words and their features

Every section corresponds to a number of questions of the interview.

6.2.1 Section One: Demographic details

The participants include 21 Iranian state university students in Tehran between the ages of 19 and 43, with an average age of 26.2. Out of 21 participants, 13 were males (61.9%) and 8 others were females (38.15) from different programmes including 8 undergraduates, 7 Masters and 6 Ph.D students (see 4.15.2 for more details).

6.2.2 Section Two: The APLL and its activities

6.2.2.1 Participants' feeling about the APLL's success in fulfillment of word-formation and word-selection

The responses are given in Table 6.1. The analysis shows that the participants' attitudes fall into 4 categories ranging from 'very weak' to 'good'. Less than 34% of the participants have favourable attitudes towards the APLL's success in WF and WS; i.e., 9.5% of the participants believe that the APLL's success has been good and 23.8% think that their success has been fine.

Table 6.1 The APLL's success in WF and WS

No	Attitude	Department			Number	percentage
		Humanities	Engineering	Science		
1	Very weak	2	0	1	3	14.3%
2	Weak	5	2	4	11	52.4%
3	Fine	2	1	2	5	23.8%
4	Good	1	0	1	2	9.5%
Total		10	3	8	21	100%

By contrast, more than 66% showed negative feelings: 52.4% believe the APLL has been weak and 14.3% think the success has been very weak. Taken together, the results give the impression that the participants' feeling about that APLL's success is weak.

It can be noted from the data in Table 6.1 that 3 participants from Humanities, 3 from Science and 1 participant from Engineering Department adopted positive attitude. Example 6.1 shows positive attitudes of participants from Humanities and Science Departments towards the APLL' success in WF and WS.

Example 6.1:

P2: The APLL's success has been good.

P16: Compared to the past, the APLL has been more successful. In the past, the APLL used the wrong methods. But presently, they work technically and collectively. This means success. Meanwhile, the APLL has stopped creating new words for such foreign words as telephone and telegraph. It is natural to act unskilfully in the beginning. However, if word-formation is done in groups, it will give results in the long run.

P1: The APLL's success has been fine. Some of the new words made by the APLL are suitable, for example, *yârâne* 'voucher' and *payâmak* 'SMS' while others seem to be hard and lack beauty *kâšâne* 'flat' and *âbzidân* 'aquarium'.

P9: The APLL words are acceptable but mediocre. I think the APLL members stay aloof from the public and no strong bond has been developed between the APLL and the speech community.

P15: It is fine. About five years ago, we could see more development in Persian but there was gradual a decline. Now it has stopped completely.

P18: In total, we can see a moderate degree of success in WF and WS by the APLL.

P19: In spite of all efforts made, the APLL has not been very successful. I think it is fine. The reason is that the words suggested by the APLL are not widespread, for example, the word *čarxbâl* 'helicopter'.

Table 6.1 also shows that seven participants from Humanities, two from Science and 4 participants from Engineering Departments hold negative attitudes towards the APLL activities. They are of the idea that the APLL's success has been weak and very weak. More than 50% of the participants from all departments (11 students) hold that the APLL has been weak in WF and WS (see Table 6.1 above). These negative attitudes

which were revealed by the participants from the above-mentioned departments are seen in examples 6.2 and 6.3.

Example 6.2:

P3: The APLL has worked a lot but the words suggested are not suitable. They are hard to apply. Totally, the success has been weak!

P4: We should appreciate the APLL for its hard work; however, the words made are hardly used by the public. For example, the use of *payâmak* in place of SMS is not a good idea.

P6: It has been weak.

P7: The APLL's activities are very important but its members fail to make and select new words timely, therefore, their success seems to be weak. Meanwhile, their propaganda is not good.

P8: The activity of the previous Academy was good but the new Academy (APLL) has been weak. They don't provide beautiful words.

P12: I haven't been concerned with the activities of the APLL. They do not seem to have many meetings. In total, they have been weak.

P13: I think the APLL has been theoretically good but practically it has not been satisfactory; and therefore, it has been weak.

P10: the APLL's activity has been weak because word-formation is not timely. In other words, new words arrive and are established and then the APLL tries to provide equivalents. For example, we should have made an equivalent for the foreign word 'flask' before it became established in the community,

P20: It has been rather weak since the words suggested are complex and hardly used by people.

Example 6.3:

P5: It has been very weak.

P11: Personally, I have interviewed the head of the APLL. They seem to be very weak.

P14: It has been very weak because they don't make suitable words.

P17: to me, the activity of the APLL is not defensible. The words they suggest are not beautiful and euphonious. Most people don't care about them.

As shown in Table 6.1 above, less than 15% of the participants believe that the APLL has been very weak in WF and WS. Interestingly, no participant from Science Department used 'very weak' and 'good' when talking about the APLL's activities. Two participants from Humanities Department and one from Engineering Department think that the APLL has been very weak in WF and WS.

To sum up, it is worth noting that in the light of this argument, it could be said with some reservation that Iranian state university students do not seem to have favourable attitudes the APLL and its activities.

6.2.2.2 Participants' opinion about the role of the APLL members and non-APLL individuals in the issue of WF and WS

As shown in Table 6.2, 4 out of 21 (19%) of the participants believe that the APLL experts have a key role in WF and WS. By contrast, 9 (42.9%) participants say that it is the non-APLL experts that play a crucial role in WF and WS. Taken together, 38.1% of the respondents think that both groups of experts take a leading role in WF and WS.

Table 6.2 The role of the APLL members and non-APLL members in WF and WS

Experts	Department			Total	
	Humanities	Science	Engineering	Number	Percentage
APLL experts	1	0	3	4	19%
Non-APLL experts	5	2	2	9	42.9%
Both	4	1	3	8	38.1%
Total	10	3	8	21	100%

It can be noted from the data in Table 6.2 that one participant from Humanities and three from Engineering Departments are positive about the role of experts in the APLL in WF and WS whereas no Science student believes in the APLL experts' role. Examples 6.4-6.6 show the attitudes of participants from the Departments of Humanities and Engineering towards the APLL experts' role in WF and WS.

Example 6.4:

P2: The APLL experts who have expertise in different fields particularly the Persian language play a more important role.
 P12: The APLL experts have a major role since it is their job.
 P14: Both complete each other; however, the APLL experts have a more important role since they possess complete mastery of WF and WS.

Example 6.5:

P3: University professors and lecturers and independent experts have a more prominent role.
P4: I think independent experts are more ability to make and select new words.
P9: In my opinion, independent experts (like Mr Ashuri) fulfil a better role because these experts speak the people’s language and are familiar with it. The atmosphere of the APLL is administrative, the personal do their job not necessarily with great interest.

Example 6.6:

P1: Both have an important role.
P5: No matter whether they are APLL experts or independent experts. They must be eligible and creative. To fulfil their function better, they should cooperate with linguists.
P10: The interaction between these two groups is a MUST. Through consultation and collaboration we can provide better words.

6.2.2.3 Participants’ feeling about the involvement of linguists and men of letters in the APLL is important in connection with WF and WS

As shown in Table 6.3, 5 out of 21 (23.8%) of the participants believe in the involvement of linguists in WF and WS and only one participant has no idea about the involvement of these experts alone or collectively. Totally, 15 (71.4%) participants agree that both groups of experts can play a crucial role in WF and WS.

Table 6.3 The involvement of Linguists and Men of letters in WF and WS

Experts	Department			Total	
	Humanities	Science	Engineering	Number	Percentage
Linguists	3	1	1	5	23.8%
Men of letters	0	0	0	0	0%
Both	7	2	6	15	71.4%
No idea	0	0	1	1	4.8%
Total	10	3	8	21	100%

The data in Table 6.3 shows that no participant shows positive attitude towards the involvement of only men of letters in WF and WS. Examples 6.7 and 6.8 show positive attitudes of participants from the Departments of Humanities, Science and

Engineering towards the role of linguists and men of letters in WF and WS, respectively.

Example 6.7:

P4: It is the linguists who have a key role in WF and WS since they substantially deal with the structure and words of language.
P11: I think linguists may do better in this issue.
P17: Since the APLL is the source of creating and promoting new words, the APLL experts have better facilities in this connection; however, they should connect with experts continuously.

Example 6.8:

P5: Both of them play a key role in this connection. They are similar to wings of a bird in that the interaction between linguists and men of letters helps both the improvement and enrichment of WF and WS in Persian.
P9: Both have a major role in this regard. People are highly sensitive to linguists and men of letters because they want to speak easily.

As shown in Table 6.3, participants from Science Department have the least favourable attitudes towards the involvement of linguists and men of letters in WF and WS by less than 14.5% and students from Humanities Department are of the most favourable attitudes by more than 47.5% while Engineering students come second by a bit more than 38%.

In a nutshell, in the light of this argument, it could be said that Iranian state university students seem to have favourable attitudes the involvement of linguists and men of letters in WF and WS.

6.2.2.4 Participants' opinion about the use of the APLL words by their family members, friends, university professors or lecturers, newsreaders, reporters and the public

Based on the data shown in Table 6.4, over 95% of newsreaders are believed to be using the APLL words while this figure is less than 86% as for reporters. On the

other hand, participants believe that the public and their family members do not use the words suggested by the APLL (very) much. In fact, 81% of the public and 76.2% of families use the APLL words (very) little; however, these two groups are said to be using the APLL new words moderately by 19% and 23.8%, respectively.

Table 6.4 The use of the APLL words by different groups of people

Attitude	Individuals										Mean	
	Newsreaders		Reporters		The public		Family members		Professors/Lecturers			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very little	0	0	0	0	8	38.1	9	42.9	2	9.5	4	19%
Little	0	0	0	0	9	42.9	7	33.3	5	23.8	4	19%
Fine	1	4.8	3	14.3	4	19	5	23.8	10	47.6	5	23.8%
Much	8	38.1	15	71.4	0	0	0	0	4	19	5	23.8%
Very much	12	57.1	3	14.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	14.4%
Total	21	100	21	100	21	100	21	100	21	100	21	100%

Concerning the university professors and lecturers, participants are of the opinion that only 19% of this group make use of the words promoted by the APLL. In effect, less than 33.5% of them use the new words (very) little; however, over 47.5% use the APLL words moderately.

To summarize, in the light of this argument, it could be claimed that only newsreaders and reporters seem to be using the new words created and promoted by the APLL by over 95% and 85%, respectively. These figures seem to be almost the reverse as for the public and the participants' families by 81% and 76.2%, respectively in that they use the APLL words (very) little. University members seem to be using the APLL words moderately not (very) much by less than 48%.

6.2.2.5 Participants' use of the APLL words

Table 6.5 reveals that over 48% and 9.5% of the participants use the APLL words very little and little, respectively. By contrast, only 4.8% make use of the new words while no one uses these words very much. Taken together, the results give the impression that the participants are not positive about the words promoted by the APLL.

Table 6.5 The use of the APLL words by participants

Attitude	Department			Total	
	Humanities	Science	Engineering	Number	Percentage
Very little	3	1	6	10	47.6%
Little	1	0	1	2	9.5%
Fine	5	2	1	8	38.1%
Much	1	0	0	1	4.8%
Very much	0	0	0	0	0
Total	10	3	8	21	100%

It can be noted from the data in Table 6.5 that 4 participants from Humanities, 1 from Science and 7 participants from Engineering adopted negative attitudes towards to the APLL words, accordingly, they use them (very) little by 57.1%. Examples 6.9-6.12 show the attitudes of participants from different Departments towards the APLL words.

Example 6.9:

P2: I use the words little because I prefer to use the English words.
 P10: I use the words little because they are partly not beautiful and even funny at times. Totally, I prefer short words.

Example 6.10:

P1: I personally use these words moderately. You know some of words created are so difficult to use.
 P19: I personally use them moderately.
 P15: Yes, I use them moderately because I'm interested in new words. I want to be up-to-date.
 P11: Yes, I use them moderately. Since I am an academic, I cannot accept some of the words. Instead, I use foreign words more.

Example 6.11:

P3: I use the words very little because I prefer foreign ones for improving my English.
 P14: I rarely use these words because the old versions seem to be more established. Meanwhile, the APLL words have little been publicized.
 P18: I use the words very little because they are not created timely. The foreign words are more common and we have become inured to them.
 P12: Presently, I use the words very little. We should create cultures because it is a process and takes time. For example, when I first heard the words *bâlgard* 'helicopter', I made fun of it but not now. Well, I might use it in the future.

Example 6.12:

P20: I never use them since they are neither beautiful nor simple and hard to use in the society.

P21: I don't use them because they are not common and hard to pronounce.

P4: No, I don't use the new words created by the APLL because they are not compatible with our everyday language. They seem to be alien to us.

6.2.3 Section Three: Culture, Media and Personal interests

6.2.3.1 Participants' feeling about the most important ways of promoting the APLL words

The responses are given in Table 6.6. The analysis shows that the participants' attitudes fall into 8 categories ranging from 'radio' to 'no response'. Concerning the first most important ways of word promotion, 6 out of 21 participants (28.6%) are of the opinion that both TV and newspapers are the most important ways of word promotion. By contrast, three people (14.3%) think that both radio and books are the most important ways of promoting new words. However, culture-creation is considered the most important by 9.5% (namely, 2 students) while only one participant (4.8%) believes that both the Internet university professors/ lecturers have the most important role when promoting new words.

Table 6.6 Participants' feeling about the most important ways of promoting APLL new words

No	Ways of promotion	First most important way		Second most important way		Third most important way	
		No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Radio	3	14.3	1	4.8	2	9.5
2	TV	6	28.6	5	23.8	0	0
3	Books	3	14.3	5	23.8	2	9.5
4	Newspaper	5	23.8	6	28.6	4	19
5	Culture-creation	2	9.5	0	0	0	0
6	The Internet	1	4.8	0	0	2	9.5
7	Professors/ Lecturers	1	4.8	1	4.8	0	0
8	No response	0	0	3	14.3	11	52.4
Total		21	100	21	100	21	100

In addition, 6 out of 21 participants (28.6%) feel that newspapers are the second most important ways of word promotion; however, five people (28.6%) think that both

TV and books are the second most important ways of promoting new words. By contrast, both radio and university professors/ lecturers are believed to be the second most important ways of word promotion. As seen in Table 6.6, three participants (14.3) have said nothing about the second most important ways of promotion.

As for the third important ways of promoting the APLL new words, 4 out of 21 participants (28.6%) are of the opinion that newspapers are the third most important ways of word promotion; however, two people (9.5%) believe that radio, books as well as the Internet are the third most important ways of promoting new words. By contrast, more than 52% (11 participants) have not said anything about the third most important ways of promotion.

Taken together, TV seems to be the most important means of promoting new words and newspaper the second most important one whereas radio, books and the Internet are believed to be the third. Examples 6.13-6.14 show attitudes of participants towards the different ways of promoting words suggested by the APLL.

Example 6.13:

P1: Media such as TV as well as Persian literature course in university are the most important ways of promotion.
P2: Mass media are important, particularly TV and newspapers.
P3: ... TV is the first priority. The Internet is ineffective. Meanwhile, university-educated individuals play a leading part in this connection.
P8: Using such media as TV, newspaper and radio are important...
P13: Prescriptivism is ineffective. The best means include mass media like TV, radio and the Internet.

Example 6.14:

P11: First, we should try to use new words together with their synonyms. Then the media should use the a lot. Of course, radio is prior to TV because we listen to the radio very attentively and more people have access to it.
P15: ...The Internet, newspapers and advertisement are the most important ways of promotion of new words.
P19: We should start from pre-school. Books and media are of great importance.
P14: ...TV, newspapers, the Internet and news agencies should be used.

6.2.3.2 Participants' feeling about the utilization of words used in the classic and modern Persian books in creating new words

As shown in Table 6.7, five out of 21 (23.8%) participants are of the opinion that classic books should be used to provide new words. This is exactly the case with modern books as well while 9 students (42.9%) are favourable about both classic and modern books when creating new words.

Table 6.7 Participants' feeling about the use of classic and modern books for creating new words

Books	Humanities	Science	Engineering	Total	
				No	Percentage
New	2	1	2	5	23.8
Old	2	2	1	5	23.8
Both	4	0	5	9	42.9
No idea	2	0	0	2	9.5
Total	10	3	8	21	100

However, two participants (9.5%) have no idea about using these books for making new lexical items. Altogether, the students are positive about the use of books whether classic or modern to make and suggest new words by more than 90%. Examples 6.15-6.17 show attitudes of participants towards the different ways of promoting words suggested by the APLL.

Example 6.15:

P1: Not old references (books), but new ones are suitable provided that we can read them with ease.
P4: No because the new words are to replace foreign words. The old literature is hardly ever helpful.
P11: I don't agree to use old words... Totally, we had better use words from old books moderately.
P: It is a hard task to re-convey the meaning of most old words. Language welcomes new items. It is a good idea to take roots and change the shapes of words. For example, suffixes should be attached to words from Shâhnâme. This is more acceptable.

Example 6.16:

P2: If we use old references, most people will accept them.

P3: Old references are very effective. Some of them are really good. I prefer to use old words than the APLL words.

P7: Old words are good if they are suitable equivalents.

Example 6.17:

P5: Both are very helpful since they are full of transparent and beautiful words. For example, works by Ashuri and Ghazi are great.

P9: Some of the old references such as Hâfîz and Sa'di are good but not Shâhnâme. As for new books, Abdollah Mostofi's works are good examples.

P19: Both are very effective.

6.2.3.3: Participants' knowledge of foreign language(s) and their accepting the APLL words

Table 6.8 below reveals that four out of 21 (23.8%) participants are of the opinion that the more foreign language knowledge they have, the more they accept the APLL new words. By contrast, 71.5% (15 students) believe that the more foreign language knowledge they have, the less they accept the APLL new words.

Table 6.8 The effect of Participants' foreign language knowledge on their accepting the APLL words

Condition	Humanities	Science	Engineering	Total	
				No	Percentage
The more knowledge, the more acceptance	2	1	1	4	19%
The more knowledge, the less acceptance	7	2	6	15	71.5%
No effect	1	0	1	2	9.5%
Total	10	3	8	21	100%

However, two people (9.5%) feel that foreign language knowledge has no effect on their accepting the new words suggested by the APLL. Examples 6.18-6.20 show attitudes of participants towards the different ways of promoting words suggested by the APLL.

Example 6.18:

P6: It is extremely effective. In fact, I prefer to use Persian words than English ones. I mean if they create suitable words (for example, *majlis* instead of parliament), I preferably use them. Using foreign words in spite of having Persian equivalent is but a pretention.

P15: Definitely...The more I have mastery of foreign language, the more I use Persian words.

P17, 19: It is highly effective.

Example 6.19:

P1: Mastery over foreign language is so effective and important when accepting new words in that the more knowledge, the less acceptance.

P5: Yes, it is highly effective because I may compare equivalents with original words to see whether or not they have made properly and beautifully. I can talk to my friends about it.

P9: Certainly. I can analyze them. I may or may not accept them.

P10: Yes, of course. Foreign language knowledge can help to analyze new words. In other words, it may arouse my curiosity to see if the new words made have carefully been chosen.

Example 20:

P4: No. Personally, I use foreign words themselves.

P7: Even if I have mastery over foreign languages, I prefer to use Persian words even though they are not exact equivalents.

6.2.4 Section Four: Words and their features

6.2.4.1: Participants' opinion about the importance of word features (brevity, euphony, eusemy, productivity and semantic transparency) when accepting the APLL words

As shown Table 6.9 below, the analysis reveals that the participants' attitudes fall into 5 categories ranging from 'brevity' to 'semantic transparency'. Concerning the first priority, 10 out of 21 participants (47.6%) are of the opinion that semantic transparency is their first priority when accepting the APLL new words while five people (23.8%) think that eusemy is their first priority. However, both brevity and

euphony are considered their first priority by 14.3% (each with 3 students). No participant favours productivity as their first priority when accepting new words.

Table 6.9 Participants' opinion about the importance of word features when accepting APLL new words

No	Word feature	1 st priority		2 nd priority		3 rd priority		4 th priority		5 th priority	
		No	%								
1	Brevity	3	14.3	1	4.8	4	19.1	8	38	5	23.8
2	Euphony	3	14.3	6	28.6	8	38	4	19.1	0	0
3	Eusemy	5	23.8	8	38	5	23.8	3	14.3	0	0
4	Productivity	0	0	0	0	1	4.8	5	23.8	15	71.4
5	Semantic Transparency	10	47.6	6	28.6	3	14.3	1	4.8	1	4.8
Total		21	100	21	100	21	100	21	100	21	100

In addition, 8 out of 21 participants (38%) feel that eusemy is their second priority for accepting new words; however, six people (28.6%) think that both euphony and productivity are the second priority. By contrast, brevity is believed to be the second priority by only one participant (4.8%).

As for the third priority, 8 out of 21 participants (38%) are of the opinion that euphony is their third priority when accepting new words; however, five people (23.8%) believe that eusemy is the third priority. However, four participants (19.1%) think that brevity is their third priority to accept new words have not said anything about the third most important ways of promotion. This figure is 14.3% (with 3 students) for semantic transparency as the third priority. Only one participant (4.8%) chooses productivity as his third priority.

Concerning the fourth priority, eight out of 21 participants (38%) feel that brevity is their fourth priority for accepting new words; however, five people (23.8%) think that productivity is the fourth priority. Meanwhile, euphony by 19.1% (with 4 students) and eusemy by 14.3% (with 3 students) are believed to be the participants' fourth priority, respectively. By contrast, semantic transparency is believed to be the fourth priority by only one participant (4.8%).

Regarding the fifth priority, 15 out of 21 participants (71.4%) are of the opinion that productivity is their fifth priority when accepting new words while five students (23.8%) believe that brevity is the fifth priority. However, nine participants (19%) think that brevity is their third priority to accept new words have not said anything about the third most important ways of promotion. Only one participant (4.8%) chooses semantic transparency as his/her fifth priority.

Overall, semantic transparency and eusemy are the participants' first and second priorities, respectively. Euphony and brevity are the third and fourth whereas productivity comes fifth when accepting new words suggested and promoted by the APLL.

6.3 Findings of the Interview with the APLL experts

In this part of the study, the APLL experts were interviewed to get ideas of some of the questions stated in the interview with the Iranian university students concerning the APLL and related issues. In order to address the interview questions (see Appendix I), the answers were subjected to content analysis. For the sake of simplification, the findings were broken into four major sections, namely:

1. Demographic details
2. The APLL and its activities
3. Culture, Media and Personal interests
4. Words and its feature

Every section corresponds to a number of questions of the interview.

6.3.1 Section One: Demographic details

The participants included 5 Iranian experts working at the APLL between the ages of 36 and 61, with an average age of 50.8. Four out of 5 experts (80%) were Ph.D

holders and one with Master degree. They were all graduates of linguistics except for one who was a vet but deeply interested in language and linguistics.

6.3.2. Section Two: The APLL and its activities

To begin with, the experts were asked about the importance of the involvement of linguists and men of letters in the APLL in connection with word-formation and word-selection. There was unanimous agreement that the interaction between linguists and men of letters is indispensable and highly significant due to the fact that men of letters possess mastery over the Persian corpus, on the one hand, and linguists are familiar with linguistic theories, on the other. Accordingly, this helps them provide suitable equivalents and neologisms. It is worth noting that the result of interview with the Iranian university students revealed that 71.4% of the participants are of the opinion that linguists and men of letters should interact with each other when creating and providing new lexical items. Example 6.21 below shows positive attitudes of the APLL experts towards the role of linguists and men of letters in WF and WS.

Example 6.21:

P1: Both are important but linguists play a more important part. In fact, some experts (who are neither linguists nor men of letters) have the most leading role. The head of the APLL is a good example in this regard. Of course, these individuals' standards are linguistic rather than literary.

P2: They can help to make real Persian words based on phonological and morphological structures in the language.

P3: Both of them have an important role. These two groups cooperate closely with each other in spite of having disagreements. Presently, the task is carried out technically mostly under linguists. Of course, there is a council of which the men of letters are member.

P4: Both are important. In fact, they complement each other well. The point is that men of letters have mastery of the Persian corpus and linguists are more familiar with linguistic theories.

P5: Both complement each other. In fact, linguists are well advanced theoretically speaking while men of letters are considered important from historical perspective. These two groups fill a vacuum to perform a better task.

In the next question, the experts were queried to express their opinion about the use of the APLL words by their family members, university professors or lecturers, newsreaders, reporters and the public. As shown in Table 6.13 below, no groups is believed to be using the APLL words very much and only 20% of the experts feel that newsreaders and university professors/ lecturers use the words much. However, 40% of newsreaders and reporters, 20% of the public and 60% of professors or lecturers are thought to be using the new words moderately.

Table 6.10 The experts' opinion about the use of the APLL words by different groups of people

Attitude	Individuals										
	Newsreaders		Reporters		The public		Family members		Professors/ Lecturers		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	%
Very little	0	0%	0	0%	2	40%	3	60%	0	0%	23.3%
Little	2	40%	3	60%	2	40%	2	40%	1	20%	40%
Fine	2	40%	2	40%	1	20%	0	0%	3	60%	30%
Much	1	20%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	20%	6.7%
Very much	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Total	5	100	5	100	5	100	5	100	5	100	100%

By contrast, 40% of newsreaders, the public and the experts' family are believed to be using the words little whereas this figure is 60% and 20% for reporters and professors, respectively. Only the public and the experts' family members are said to be using the APLL words very little by 40% and 60%, respectively.

Based on experts' opinion about the use of the APLL words by the aforementioned individuals, it could be said that on average more than 63% of them make use of the suggested words little and very little while 30% of these people use the words moderately. Contrary to expectations, only a little less than 7% use the new words much.

6.3.3 Section Three: Culture, Media and Personal interests

In the first part of this section, the experts were asked about the most important ways of promoting the APLL words. As shown in Table 6.11, two out of 5 experts

(40%) are of the opinion that TV and Ministry of Education are the most means of new word promotion whereas one of the experts believes that university professors and lecturers have the most important role in this connection.

Table 6.11 The experts' feeling about the most important ways of promoting APLL new words

No	Ways of promotion	Most important way		Second most important way		Third most important way	
		No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Radio	0	0%	2	40%	1	20%
2	TV	2	40%	2	40%	1	20%
3	Newspaper	0	0%	0	0%	2	40%
4	Education	2	40%	0	0%	0	0%
5	The Internet /Mobile/ Software	0	0%	1	20%	0	0%
6	Professors/ Lecturers	1	20%	0	0%	1	20%
Total		5	100	5	100	5	100

Furthermore, 40% of the experts feel that radio and TV are the second most important ways of promoting the words created by the APLL while 20% say that the Internet (mobile/ software) is the second most important means.

In addition to this, newspapers are believed to be the third most important way of word promotion by 40% while this figure is 20% for radio, TV and university professors or lecturers. Altogether, the most and the least important ways of promoting the words suggested by the APLL include TV (33.4%), radio (20%), newspapers/ Ministry of Education/ university professors or lecturers (each by 13.3%) and the Internet (mobile/ software) by 6.7%. Example 6.22 shows the experts' attitudes to the most important ways of promoting APLL new words.

Example 6.22:

P1: TV, radio and media (particularly visual ones) are highly important. Of course, the public should be informed properly.

P2: I have no particular idea.

P3: Public media such as TV and radio are of great importance. Written media like newspapers and magazines are important. Of course, we can use the suggested words when exchanging letters in governmental offices.

P4: First, words should be created promptly before foreign words become widespread. Secondly, educational institutions such as universities and schools should cooperate in this connection. Then, the media should help to promote the new words. In fact, they do not seem to be in harmony. This problem should be solved for better accepting words suggested by the APLL. Finally, university professors/ lecturers, authors and teachers are considered very important.

P5: First, Ministry of Education is highly significant. Also, providing software is very important. We can use mobile to publicize new words. Media (such as magazines, newspapers and different sites) are good ideas if brought under supervision.

In the second part of this section, the experts were queried about the utilization of words used in the classic and modern Persian books for creating new words. All five experts (100%) unanimously expressed that both resources are of prime significance when creating neologisms. Example 6.23 shows the experts' attitudes towards the use of classic and modern Persian books when creating neologisms.

Example 6.23:

P1: Both are important because the use of these resources is some part of the APLL principals.

P2: Yes, both are OK.

P3: Both are useful and there is no problem with that.

P4: Both are highly important. You can find really beautiful and transparent words in old books. In addition, if we find suitable words in new resources, we can use them in place of current foreign words. For instance, Ashuri has provided beautiful equivalents for words ending in the suffix '-ism'. Examples include *nistengâri* or *nistgarâyi* for nihilism.

P5: In my opinion, both are useful but I prefer new resources because they are more familiar to native speakers. However, we may use old ones if we fail to find good equivalents.

6.3.4 Section Four: Words and their features

In the last part of the interview questions, the experts opinions were sought about the importance of word features (brevity, euphony, eusemy, productivity and semantic transparency) when accepting the APLL words. As shown in Table 6.12 below, 4 out of 5 experts (80%) are of the opinion that semantic transparency is their first priority whereas only one of them (20%) believes that brevity is the first choice. In addition, 60% say that productivity is their second priority while brevity and euphony are said to be the second priority each by 20%.

Table 6.12 Experts' opinion about the importance of word features when accepting APLL words

No	Word feature	1 st priority		2 nd priority		3 rd priority		4 th priority		5 th priority	
		No	%								
1	Brevity	1	20%	1	20%	0	0%	1	20%	2	40%
2	Euphony	0	0%	1	20%	4	80%	0	0%	0	0%
3	Eusemy	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	3	60%	2	40%
4	Productivity	0	0%	3	60%			1	20%	1	20%
5	Semantic Transparency	4	80%	0	0%	1	20%	0	0%	0	0%
Total		5	100%	5	100%	5	100%	5	100%	5	100%

Meanwhile, four experts (80%) believe that euphony is their third choice and 20% considers semantic transparency as the third priority. However, eusemy by 60% and brevity and productivity (each by 20%) are said to be the fourth priority when accepting new words. Concerning the last priority, two experts (40%) feel that brevity and eusemy are their fifth choice. Productivity is considered as the fifth priority by one expert (20%). It is worth pointing out here that productivity has been considered as the fifth priority whereas it is the second priority of the APLL experts.

6.4 Summary

In the present chapter, the findings arising from the interview are reported. In other words, a major concern of this chapter was to describe the attitudes of the Iranian state university students towards the APLL and its activities. They were also asked

about media, personal interests, words and their features. In addition, a small number of APLL experts were interviewed about the APLL, its activities and different means of promoting new words created by the APLL.

In the next chapter, the results of questionnaire and interviews with the students as well as the APLL experts are compared. This is followed by conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The prime purpose of this study has been to investigate the attitudes of Iranian state university students towards the APLL approved equivalents. In fact, certain factors were considered from both (1) sociolinguistic perspective (including age, education, gender, place of residence and accents/ dialects) and (2) linguistic perspective (brevity, euphony, euphony, productivity, semantic transparency). Below are discussed the main contributions in detail from both perspectives. The methodology used in this study is mixed methods research which is based on a questionnaire as the main data-gathering tool and interviews with university students and the APLL experts. Meanwhile, the results of the study were analysed by means of the SPSS.

7.2 Comparisons

The participants were asked about the success of the APLL in the fulfilment of word-formation and word-selection. The data obtained revealed that 66.7% of the students interviewed believed that the APLL had not been that successful by choosing 'Little' and 'Very little'. This percentage fell to 59% by the students who responded the questionnaires. Meanwhile, in the eyes of the interviewees, the APLL had 'moderately' been successful in terms of word-creation by 23.3% but this figure rose to 28.6% by the participants of the questionnaires. In addition to this, only 9.5% of the interviewees believed the APLL to be 'much' successful. This percentage was very similar as to that obtained from the questionnaires. It should be noted that no interviewee felt that the APLL had been 'very much' successful; however, 2.3% of the responses obtained from the questionnaires was 'very much'. Totally, it could be said that a little less than 60%

of state university students are of the opinion that the APLL had failed to be successful by selecting 'Little' and 'Very little'.

Concerning the importance of WF and WS by the APLL and independent individuals, the results obtained from the students interviewed showed that independent people was chosen by 42.9%, both groups by 38.1% and the APLL experts by 19%. However, more than 39% of the participants of the questionnaires said that both the APLL experts and independent individuals equally play important role in word-creation. Meanwhile, over 37% felt that word-creation by these groups are not so important and more than 23% said that both groups' involvement is 'moderately' important.

Concerning the involvement of linguists and men of letters in creating new words, all APLL experts (100%) believed that it was necessary that both of these two groups involve in word-formation and word-selection. In fact, they felt that linguists and men of letters should interact with each other in this regard. In addition, about 72% of the students interviewed were of the opinion that both groups ought to cooperate with each other when deciding on new words. The data obtained from the questionnaires also showed that over 63% of the participants took the view that the interaction between linguists and men of letters is a MUST when making and selection new lexical items.

With regard to the extent to which reporters, newsreaders, the public, the participants' family and university professors' use of the new words created by the APLL, the results of the questionnaires and interviews with students showed that Iranian university students were more in agreement on the issue compared to the APLL experts.

As shown in Table 6.7, 38% of the interviewees believed that different individual make use of the APLL words by choosing 'Little' and 'Very little' whereas

this percentage is 47.7% and 63.3% by respondents of the questionnaires and the APLL experts, respectively.

Meanwhile, 23.8% of students interviewed felt that the individuals in question use the APLL 'Moderately' while this figure was 26.8% and 30% for questionnaire respondents and the APLL experts, respectively.

In addition, 38.2% of the interviewed students think that these individuals utilize the APLL new words 'very much' and 'much'. This percentage dropped to 26.3% by students who responded the questionnaires and 6.7% by experts, respectively.

What appears to be peculiar here is that to APLL experts, none of the aforementioned individuals make use of the APLL neologisms 'very much'; however, all three groups were unanimous in believing that reporters and newsreaders use the APLL words to a larger extent compared to other people. Furthermore, these three groups also accepted that the public and their family members utilize the APLL neologisms 'little' and 'very little'.

It needs to be pointed out that on the base of state circular letter, governmental offices, media and newspapers have to make use of APLL new words when writing and releasing news items (see Chapter Five, Objective Two, Research Question 1). This seems to be the major reason behind reporters and newsreaders' use of the new words suggested and promoted by the APLL.

Concerning the most important ways of promoting the APLL new words, the results obtained from the questionnaires revealed that TV is the most important means. Radio came second and then mass media. The interviewees' first choice was TV as well. Newspapers and radio were the second and third priorities. However, in the eyes of the APLL experts, TV and education were the first choices and then radio came next. Taken

together, all three groups jointly believe that TV and its programmes are highly significant for promoting the new words created and suggested by the APLL.

Another question asked of the three groups was to what extent it was important to utilize words used in the classic Persian books as well as modern ones for creating neologisms. As disclosed in Table 6.3, there was unanimous support for word-formation and word-selection using both resources by the APLL experts (100%). However, the students interviewed were of the opinion that both old (classic) and modern resources should be used for word creation by 43%. This figure was about 50% by respondents of the questionnaires. Taken together, all groups were in agreement that the APLL ought to make use of these two resources when creating neologisms.

Concerning the five features of word, the participants in three different groups were asked about their preference for accepting APLL new words. The first preference of all three groups was semantic transparency. However, the second preference was treated differently. In other words, the results obtained from the questionnaires and interviews with the university students revealed that eusemy was the second preference, but this was not the case with the experts' view. In fact, the experts' second preference was productivity.

Euphony was found to be the APLL experts as well as the interviewees' third preference whereas data obtained from the questionnaires showed brevity as the participants' third preference.

Interestingly, each of the three groups had a different fourth preference. In other words, the experts' fourth preference was eusemy and the interviewees' preference was brevity while the participants of the questionnaire chose euphony as their third preference.

As for the fifth preference, the data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews revealed the same feature; namely, productivity; however, the APLL experts selected brevity as their fifth preference.

The overall results suggest that the participants of the questionnaires and the interviewees agreed on three preferences: first (Semantic transparency), second (eusemy) and fifth (productivity).

Taken together, semantically transparent words with beautiful meanings seem to be more preferred by Iranian university students than productive words. Therefore, it is suggested that APLL experts should regard semantic transparency and eusemy as two serious features when creating neologisms.

7.3 Conclusions

With reference to the importance of sociolinguistic variables (gender, age, education, place of residence and the use of different accents or dialects), the findings of this research indicate that there seems to be no significant relationship between extra-linguistic variables such as level of education and place of residence on the one hand, and the acceptance or rejection of the APLL equivalents on the other. However, there is a significant relationship between the respondents' parents' education and the acceptance of the APLL words.

With regard to age and gender (although male respondents tend to be slightly more accepting of the words suggested by the APLL as compared to the females.), the present investigation does not confirm the findings of previous age-related and gender-related studies (Jahangiri, 1999; Modarresi 2012).

With reference to age, there seems to be no relationship between differences of age and the respondents' acceptance of the APLL words. This is true with the importance of '*different levels of education*' in accepting or rejecting the APLL general

words. In other words, Undergraduates, Masters and Ph.D students treated the issues almost similarly. However, what appears to be significant is that respondents with more educated parents treated the issue rather differently in that the more educated the parents, particularly mothers, there was less acceptance of the APLL words on the part of the respondents. In fact, the results obtained disclosed that there was a significant relationship between the respondents' parents' education and their acceptance and rejection of the APLL words.

As for the importance of *respondents' place of residence*, it is inferred that respondents living in Tehran as their hometown are a little less agreeable to the APLL suggested equivalents. It seems that the reason behind this negative attitude is the higher level of education in big cities. In other words, one can find more educated families and relatives in Tehran (see Chapter Five, section 5.4.5) and, accordingly, they are more exposed to exchange of ideas in different subject-matters including language issues. This helps them to treat the issue of accepting and rejecting the APLL words more meticulously and therefore not to easily accept them without good reasons. This is exactly the case with the APLL equivalents in Iran. However, this relationship (between place of residence and acceptance and rejection of the APLL words) does not seem to be significant.

With regard to the research question concerning the importance of *using other dialects/ accents* and the acceptance and rejection of the APLL words, it is clear that the respondents do not belong to a single speech community. In other words, a good number of them use other varieties; and as a result, this provides researchers with great opportunity to carry out further researches on the Persian language from a sociolinguistic perspective. Meanwhile, based on the results obtained there is no relationship between the use of other accents/ dialects other than Persian and the

acceptance and rejection of the equivalents suggested by the APLL. Less than 38% of the respondents believe that it is necessary to make use of other dialects/ accents other than Persian when making new words. This shows the importance of standard Persian in dealing with linguistic activities, particularly in academic atmosphere; at the same time, it seems that respondents are of the opinion that other non-standard varieties are not capable and prestigious enough to be included in word-formation by the APLL.

More than 34% of the respondents believe that the effect of the respondents' familiarity with foreign language(s) is significant when accepting and rejecting the words promoted by the APLL.

Concerning the first and second research questions from objective one as how known and successful the APLL and its activities are, about 32% of respondents seem to be familiar with the measures taken by the APLL for word-formation and word-selection. However, with reference to the respondents' interest in the APLL activities in terms of word-formation and word-selection activities, this study highlights the fact that Iranian state university students do not seem to find the APLL and its activities fascinating, even at academic level since less than half the respondents were interested in word-formation and word-selection.

As mentioned earlier (see Section 3.5.1), there is a difference between word-formation and word-selection. Word-selection is a process which aims at finding an equivalent for a foreign word through providing several equivalents among which a choice has to make whereas word-formation is one of the various approaches to word-selection. With reference to word-selection and word-formation by the APLL and individuals, 62% of the respondents believed that word-formation should be done by the APLL. These percentages seemed to be almost similar in terms of word-formation by individuals with 63% believing that word-formation should be done by individuals.

As for word-selection, 62.6% of the respondents showed agreement about APLL word-selection and 62.3% were positive about individual word-selection. On the whole, the respondents seemed to believe that word-formation should be done by the APLL whereas word-selection should be done by the APLL and individually.

As the majority of the APLL words do not seem to be accepted by respondents, it could also be inferred that the APLL had not been (that) successful in terms of word-formation and word-selection.

With regard to the conduct of a public opinion poll about new words suggested by the APLL, more than 77% of the respondents seem to have a favorable attitude towards this.

As for the importance of linguistic (morphological) elements and classic literary Persian books for word-formation, over 73% of the respondents still believe that the Persian language itself is a good source of providing new words, and that books whether classic or contemporary are of great importance to Iranians.

Concerning the inclusion of a section under the title of ‘word-formation and word-selection’ in the ‘Persian Literature Course’ taught in all academic disciplines in the Iranian universities, about 57% of the respondents seem to agree that there should be such a course. Moreover, as for the necessity of establishing a website for the categories of word-formation and word-selection, on average, more than 63% of the respondents are positive about creating a website for this purpose.

In connection with the importance of sharing experiences and knowledge of other countries in word-formation and word-selection, approximately 60% of respondents do not seem to be positive about this.

With regard to the sixth research question from Objective One concerning the importance of experts' involvement in the APLL's activities (word-formation and word-selection), the majority of the respondents believe that experts' involvement in the APLL was important (particularly men of letters and linguists). As for the works by contemporary poets, writers and translators for word-formation, more than half of the respondents still believe that the Persian language itself is a good source of providing new words.

Concerning the tenth research question from Objective One as to how important linguistic variables (such as brevity, euphony, eusemy, productivity and semantic transparency) are in accepting the APLL general words, more than 60% of the respondents considered semantic transparency (1) and eusemy (2) as their first two choices; and other priorities included euphony (3), brevity (4), and productivity (5), respectively. An interesting point is that also in the third research question from Objective One, (of five criteria in accepting and rejecting the APLL equivalents), approximately 96.5% of respondents chose semantic transparency and eusemy as their first two choices and the two most determining factors when accepting and rejecting new words.

With reference to 50 APLL approved equivalents, semantic transparency is the most determining factor and productivity (as the creative capacity of language users to produce large number of instances) is the least one when accepting new words.

In summary, clarity in meaning (transparency) and beautiful meaning (eusemy) are of great importance to Persian native speakers and short, one-part and euphonious words are considered significant.

Regarding the first research question from Objective Two concerning the respondents' opinion about the use of the APLL words by individuals like reporters,

newsreaders, university professors/ lecturers and respondent's families and the public, it could be concluded that newsreaders and reporters make much use of the words introduced by the APLL since they have to abide by the rules enforced by the IRIB. Regarding the respondents' families and the public, they do not seem to readily accept new words and habitually they use what they have already learnt. As for university professors/ lecturers, it is worth mentioning that compared to reporters and newsreaders, they seem to be making less use of the APLL words; but compared to the respondents' families and the public, professors/ lecturers make more use of the equivalents introduced by the APLL.

With reference to the second research question from Objective Two as to how important mass media is in spreading, popularizing, accepting and rejecting the words promoted by the APLL, the respondents believe that mass media and literary programmes on the radio and television are important in accepting and rejecting the words promoted by the APLL; and as for new technology and media (TV, radio, newspapers, satellites, cinema, the Internet, theatre, and SMS), TV and theatre are the first and last choices by the respondents regarding the spread and popularization of new words.

7.4 Concluding remarks

1. There is no relationship between participants' level of education and the acceptance of the words promoted by the APLL. However, there is a negative correlation between students' parents' education and their accepting APLL words. That is, the more educated the parents, the less acceptance of the new words on the part of the participants. The APLL is believed to have succeeded 'little' or 'very little' in terms of word-formation and word-selection.

2. Participants who live in cities or towns other than Tehran use the APLL new words to a larger degree.
3. The APLL is believed to have succeeded 'little' or 'very little' in terms of word-formation and word-selection.
4. When creating new words, we need to make use of both classic and modern resources.
5. The APLL words are used to a lesser extent (very little) by the public and the participants' families compared to reporters and newsreaders. This is because these last two groups are obliged to use the new words due to official notice and circular letters sent by governments.
6. The most important ways of promoting APLL new words seem to be using TV and radio programmes (public media). SMS and theatre are the least important ones in this connection.
7. More than 65% of participants are of the opinion that a public opinion poll should be conducted at regular interval concerning the APLL general words.
8. Respondents take the view that it is necessary we create a database for word-formation and word-selection in the Internet.
9. The results of this research revealed that there is a correlation between the use of Persian literary works and accepting new words. Therefore, it is recommended that we utilize Persian literary works for promoting the APLL words.
10. To share the experiences and knowledge of other countries for creating new words was not confirmed by respondents through employing the Spearman test.
11. The APLL experts should consider semantic transparency and eusemy as their first two priorities in spite of the fact that the APLL experts themselves stress the importance of productivity.

12. Respondents from Language Department seem to be more positive about the APLL words.
13. There is no significant relationship between using dialects other than Persian and the acceptance of the APLL words.
14. There is no significant relationship between gender and the acceptance of the APLL words.
15. There is no significant relationship between age and the acceptance of the APLL words.
16. There is a significant relationship between the percentage of acceptance of the APLL words and the respondents' familiarity with foreign language(s).

7.5 Practical suggestions

Based on the results obtained from this study, the respondents in state universities do not seem to have a favourable attitude towards word-formation and word-selection by the APLL. The following recommendations might help in contributing to the development of the Persian language:

It is suggested that different groups of people such as employers, teachers, doctors, reporters and newsreaders should be consulted about word-formation and word-selection since they make up a significant proportion of people in any speech community. Meanwhile, experts including great writers and famous poets and successful translators and selected individuals in different fields should be consulted about word-formation and word-selection; and good interaction between different groups of experts, particularly linguists and men of literature is highly recommended. Furthermore, the APLL should interact with Ministry of Education and Ministry of Science, Research and Technology for proliferation and enrichment of the Persian language.

Once a word is established in a speech community, it is better not to replace it with new equivalents because unnecessary word-formation and word-selection may lead to confusion and misunderstanding. In case there is no choice but to promote new equivalents, it is recommended that only one equivalent be introduced for any single foreign word to avoid confusion in language. What is more, officials involved should not be tempted to go to extremes in providing neologisms. This questions the APLL's principle objectives (see Principle 7, which says that for any foreign word, only one equivalent must be preferably selected.). In other words, blocking (see Chapter Three) should be triggered from a viewpoint of morphology.

It is suggested that APLL officials invite certain distinguished figures to provide sessions concerning word-selection in order to reach an agreement on several suggested equivalents for a single foreign word through voting to avoid chaos in language.

In creating new words, it is suggested that equivalents should be made through different morphological processes such as blending, shortening, analogy and acronyms. In other words, sticking only to compounding and derivation seems not to be sufficient (see chapter Three). In addition to this, widely used prefixes, suffixes and roots should be introduced for word-formation and word-selection.

Since IRIB and mass media play key roles in interacting with people on the one hand, and spreading neologisms on the other, it is strongly recommended that people should be provided with certain educational programmes or workshops on TV and the radio to promote the APLL words. Conducting such workshops on word-formation and word-selection in faculties, offices and other institutions seem to be a good idea.

Similar researches can be conducted with different Iranian groups including employees, teachers and doctors on the APLL general and technical words and terms.

It is recommended that the officials involved with the APLL use Google to learn about individuals' views of new equivalents through voting Yes/ No and offer rewards to individuals who suggest beautiful and precise equivalents. The potential suggested words may be chosen from *Bustân*, *Gulistân*, *Hâfiz*, *Shâhnâme* and other classic books. This gradually helps to provide a corpus of Persian language, like that of English, which ultimately enriches the Persian language.

It was assumed from the start that the results of this study would confirm earlier research (Labov, 1966; Trudgill, 1983) which indicated that sociolinguistic variables such as age, gender, education, place of residence, use of different dialects/ accents would be determining factors in the acceptance or rejection of APLL general words. This has not been borne out by the present study. On the contrary, the significant factor appears to be the education of the parents, especially the mothers, on the behaviour of their children. Mothers appear to be very influential in predisposing their children in the direction of rejecting rather than accepting the APLL recommendations.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire APLL and suggested equivalents (English: Modified version)

Code No:

Dear Respondent,

Over the last two decades, the Academy of Persian Language and Literature (APLL) has been co-operating with linguists and men of letters to help to enrich the Persian language. In fact, the Academy is planning to make words and phrases for the purpose of development, proliferation and modernization of the Persian language. Note that during this period a plethora of words have been introduced to the Persian speech community; however, only a few of them, such as *râyâne* 'computer', *hamâyeš* 'congress', *šomârgân* 'printing, tirage (Fr.)', etc., were more or less accepted in the common language A. A Sadeghi (2001 see p. 28).

Considering the issue, the researcher inclined to carry out this research for the purpose of studying and determining the extent of acceptance and rejection of these newly-formed words in Persian together with the reason(s) for including and/or excluding them.

Note also that the present questionnaire will be administered to 500 admitted Iranian students from the state universities in Tehran, the capital city of Iran.

Without doubt your viewpoints can have a noticeable effect on having new words accepted nationwide. In effect, your responses will be treated as confidential on the part of the researcher.

Warm regards,
Ehsan Barzegar

Part A: Personal details:

Gender: Female Male Age:
 Name of University: Programme: BA MA PhD
 Name of Faculty: Field of study:
 Mother's education: None Primary Secondary Tertiary
 Father's education: None Primary Secondary Tertiary

Hometown: Tehran another city/town (Name the city/town, please):
 Do you use any other dialect(s) apart from Persian? Yes No
 (If yes, name it/them):

Part B: Main questions:

Section One: The APLL and its activities

Below are some statements that may describe the APLL and its activities. Please tick in the appropriate box that best describe your feeling towards the APLL and its activities. (Low = Very little and Little; Fine = Neutral; High = Much and Very much)

NO	Statement	V. little 1	Little 2	Fine 3	Much 4	V. much 5
1	I am familiar with word-formation (the process of making new words not existing in a language previously) by the APLL.					
2	I am familiar with word-selection (the selection of words from a set of words or phrases already existing in a language) by the APLL.					
3	I am interested in word-formation.					
4	I am interested in word-selection.					
5	My knowledge of foreign language(s) helps me in accepting the APLL words.					
6	Word-formation by the APLL is important.					
7	Word-formation by individuals is important.					
8	Word-selection by the APLL is important.					
9	Word-selection by individuals is important.					
10	The APLL has been successful in fulfillment of word-formation.					
11	The APLL has been successful in the fulfillment word-selection.					
12	The involvement of linguists in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...					
13	The involvement of men of letters (experts in Persian language) in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...					
14	The involvement of famous writers in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...					
15	The involvement of famous poets in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...					
16	The involvement of distinguished translators in the APLL for word-formation and word-selection is ...					
17	It is necessary to conduct a public opinion poll at regular intervals (e.g. every six months) concerning suggested words by the APLL.					

NO	Statement	V. little 1	Little 2	Fine 3	Much 4	V. much 5
18	Reporters use the APLL words ...					
19	Newsreaders use the APLL words ...					
20	My friends use the APLL words ...					
21	My family members use the APLL words ...					
22	The professors/ lecturers in my university use the APLL words ...					

Section Two: Culture, Media and Personal interests

(a) Please tick in the appropriate box that best describe your feelings towards factors connected to language:

NO	Statement	V. little 1	Little 2	Fine 3	Much 4	V. much 5
1	It is important to use other prevailing accents/ dialects (such as <i>Isfahani, Kurdish, Turkish, etc.</i>) for the creation of words.					
2	It is important to use living elements (<i>prefixes, roots and suffixes</i>) in the Persian language in order to make new words.					
3	It is important to refer to works by contemporary famous poets in Persian in order to make new words.					
4	It is important to refer to works by contemporary famous writers in Persian in order to make new words.					
5	It is important to refer to works by distinguished translators in Persian in order to make new words.					
6	It is important to utilize words used in the classic Persian books (like <i>Bustan, Hafiz, Shahnameh</i>) in order to make new words.					
7	It is necessary that some parts of the Persian literature course at universities be allocated to word-formation.					
8	It is necessary that some parts of the Persian literature course at universities be allocated to word-selection.					
9	It is necessary to create a database for word-formation in the Internet.					
10	It is necessary to create a database for word-selection in the Internet.					
11	It is important to use the experiences and knowledge of other countries (like <i>France, India, etc.</i>) for creating new words.					

(b) How often do you use the following items? Please tick in the appropriate box:

NO	Statement	Always 5	Usually 4	Sometimes 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
1	I read newspapers.					
2	I read magazines.					
3	I listen to literary programmes on the radio.					
4	I watch literary programmes on the television.					
5	I study literary works.					

(c) Please write a number (from 1 to 8) in front of each of the following media in order of preference for promoting the APLL words:

NO	Media	Your preference	NO	Media	Your preference
1	Cinema		5	SMS	
2	Newspapers		6	Television	
3	Radio		7	Theatre	
4	Satellite		8	the Internet	

Section Three: Words and their features

(a) Below are some statements that may describe words and their features. Please tick in the appropriate box that best describe your feelings about words and their features:

NO	Statement	Strongly agree 5	Agree 4	Neutral 3	Disagree 2	Strongly disagree 1
1	Brevity ¹ is important when accepting new words.					
2	Productivity ² is important when accepting new words.					
3	Euphony ³ is important when accepting new words.					
4	Semantic transparency ⁴ is important when accepting new words.					
5	Eusemy ⁵ is important when accepting new words.					

(b) Please tick in the appropriate box in order of preference concerning the features of words:

¹ **Brevity** is the condition of making new words using the shortest possible syllables in a language as in *payâmgîr* 'answering machine', *majlis* 'parliament' and *goruh* 'department'.

² **Productivity** is the ability to create new words from the basic form as in *virâstan* 'to edit', *virâyeş* 'editing', *virâst* 'edition', *virâstâr* 'editor', *virâstâri* 'editing'.

³ **Euphony** is a pleasing or harmonious sequence of sounds as in *virâyeş* 'editing', *afşâne* 'spray' and *xoşâb* 'compote'.

⁴ **Semantic transparency** is a characteristic which refers to the clear understanding of a word through its components as in *kâlâbarg* 'voucher', *câpgar* 'printer' and *sardkon* 'chiller'.

⁵ **Eusemy** is the condition in which a word enjoys beautiful meaning.

NO	Feature of word	1st	2nd	3th	4th	5th
1	Brevity is my preference when accepting new words.					
2	Productivity is my preference when accepting new words.					
3	Euphony is my preference when accepting new words.					
4	Semantic transparency is my preference when accepting new words.					
5	Eusemy (beautiful meaning) is my preference when accepting new words.					

(c) Do you agree on the following APLL suggested equivalents or not? If so (+)/not (-), please choose one or more reasons for them.

No	Foreign word	APLL word	con (+)	Pro (-)	Reason(s) for acceptance/rejection				
					Brevity	Eusemy	Euphony	Semantic transparency	Productivity
1	<i>théâtre</i>	<i>namâyeš</i>							
2	<i>académique</i>	<i>âlemâne elmi</i>							
3	<i>technologie</i>	<i>fanâvari</i>							
4	<i>organisation</i>	<i>sâzemân</i>							
5	<i>technique</i>	<i>fan</i>							
6	<i>congrès</i>	<i>hamâyeš</i>							
7	<i>pourcentage</i>	<i>darsadâne darsad</i>							
8	<i>échantillon</i>	<i>nemune</i>							
9	<i>classe</i>	<i>tabaqe radif</i>							
10	<i>institut</i>	<i>mo'assese</i>							
11	<i>session</i>	<i>nešast</i>							
12	<i>subside</i>	<i>yârâne</i>							
13	<i>télécommunication</i>	<i>moxâberât</i>							
14	<i>parlement</i>	<i>majles</i>							
15	<i>sujet</i>	<i>mozu</i>							
16	<i>syndicat</i>	<i>Ettehâdiye</i>							
17	<i>code</i>	<i>ramz</i>							
18	<i>commission</i>	<i>goruh, hey'at, komisiyon</i>							
19	<i>département</i>	<i>baxš, goruh</i>							
20	<i>conférence , lecture</i>	<i>soxanrâni</i>							
21	<i>mobile phone</i>	<i>telefon-e hamrâh</i>							
No	Foreign word	APLL word	con (+)	Pro (-)	Reason(s) for acceptance/rejection				

					Brevity	Eusemy	Euphony	Semantic transparency	Productivity
22	<i>musée</i>	<i>muze ganjine</i>							
23	<i>symbole</i>	<i>nemâd/ ramz</i>							
24	<i>académique</i>	<i>dânešgâhi</i>							
25	<i>harmonique</i>	<i>hamâhang</i>							
26	<i>nân-e tost</i>	<i>nân-e berešti</i>							
27	<i>ef-ef</i>	<i>darbâzkon</i>							
28	<i>aquarium</i>	<i>âbzidân</i>							
29	<i>balcon</i>	<i>eyvângâh</i>							
30	<i>boulevard</i>	<i>čârbâq</i>							
31	<i>buffet</i>	<i>čini-jâ</i>							
32	<i>catalogue</i>	<i>kârnemâ</i>							
33	<i>conference, lecture</i>	<i>farâhamâyi</i>							
34	<i>décor</i>	<i>ârâye</i>							
35	<i>échelle</i>	<i>pâye</i>							
36	<i>estampe</i>	<i>johargin</i>							
37	<i>flash/ flashlig</i>	<i>deraxš</i>							
38	<i>forum</i>	<i>nazarâzmâyi</i>							
39	<i>handbook, manuel</i>	<i>dastine</i>							
40	<i>isolation</i>	<i>bâmpuš</i>							
41	<i>microfiche</i>	<i>rizbarge</i>							
42	<i>moquette</i>	<i>faršine</i>							
43	<i>page (kardan)</i>	<i>peyjuyi (kardan)</i>							
44	<i>parcomètre</i>	<i>tavaqqofhâg</i>							
45	<i>patio</i>	<i>nurxân</i>							
46	<i>portable</i>	<i>dasti</i>							
47	<i>retouche</i>	<i>pardâxt</i>							
48	<i>seminar</i>	<i>dars-e goruhi</i>							
49	<i>stereophonic</i>	<i>čandâvâyi</i>							
50	<i>tirage</i>	<i>šomâr</i>							

Part C: Comments and Suggestions

APPENDIX B:

Questionnaire APLL and suggested equivalents (Persian: Modified version)

به نام خدا
پرسشنامه

کد

پاسخگوی ارجمند
با سلام،

بیش از دو دهه است که فرهنگستان زبان و ادب فارسی با همکاری زبان‌شناسان و ادبا در راستای غنی سازی زبان فارسی در صد و واژه سازی و واژه گزینی بوده تا بواسطه آن بتواند به رشد و بالندگی زبان فارسی کمک نماید. شایان ذکر است که طی این مدت، واژه ها و لغات زیادی از سوی فرهنگستان زبان به جامعه فارسی زبان ارائه شده که صرفاً تعدادی از آنها (مانند *ریانه*، *همایش*، *شمارگان* و غیره) مورد توجه و قبول جامعه فارسی زبان ایرانی قرار گرفته است.

هدف از این تحقیق بررسی و تعیین میزان پذیرش واژه های نو ساخته وارد شده به زبان فارسی و همچنین علل پذیرش و یا عدم پذیرش آنها می باشد. جامعه آماری تحقیق حاضر پذیرفته شدگان مقاطع کارشناسی، کارشناسی ارشد و دکتری در سال تحصیلی 89-1388 دانشگاه های دولتی واقع در شهر تهران است. بدیهی است که ارائه نظرات و دیدگاه های شما می تواند تاثیر بسزایی در دستیابی به واژه های نوینی داشته باشد که مورد اقبال جمعی قرار گیرد. البته، پاسخ ها و نظرات صادقانه شما محرمانه تلقی شده و در نزد پژوهشگر محفوظ خواهد بود.

با

سپاس فراوان

احسان برزگر

الف: مشخصات فردی پاسخگو:

سن:

جنسیت: آن مرد

بخش دوم: فرهنگ، رسانه ها و علایق شخصی
الف- لطفاً دیدگاه خود را در مورد هر یک از سوالات زیر مشخص نمایید.

ردیف	موضوع	خیلی کم	کم	متوسط	زیاد	خیلی زیاد
1	بهره‌گیری از گویش‌ها و لهجه‌های ⁸ مختلف در واژه‌سازی توسط فرهنگستان را ضروری می‌دانید؟ (از قبیل ترکی، کردی، اصفهانی و ...)					
2	به نظر من واژه‌گزینی توسط فرهنگستان زبان با استفاده از عناصر زنده (موجود) در زبان (ریشه [تک/پاتک]، پیشوند[ناکارآمد] و پسوند [حسگر]) اهمیت دارد.					
3	به نظر من واژه‌گزینی توسط فرهنگستان زبان با استفاده از آثار شعرای معاصر زبان فارسی (اخوان، نیما، شاملو و ...) اهمیت دارد.					
4	به نظر من واژه‌گزینی توسط فرهنگستان زبان با استفاده از آثار نویسندگان معاصر زبان فارسی (خرمشاهی، آشوری و ...) اهمیت دارد.					
5	به نظر من واژه‌گزینی توسط فرهنگستان زبان با استفاده از آثار مترجمان موفق زبان فارسی (قاضی، حق شناس، نجفی و ...) اهمیت دارد.					
6	به نظر من واژه‌گزینی توسط فرهنگستان زبان با استفاده از واژه‌های بکار رفته در متون ادبی زبان فارسی (مانند بوستان، گلستان، حافظ، شاهنامه و ...) اهمیت دارد.					
7	به نظر من اختصاص بخشی از درس ادبیات فارسی دانشگاه‌ها به واژه‌سازی ضرورت دارد؟					
8	به نظر من اختصاص بخشی از درس ادبیات فارسی دانشگاه‌ها به واژه‌گزینی ضرورت دارد؟					
9	به نظر من ایجاد پایگاه اینترنتی برای واژه‌سازی اهمیت دارد.					
10	به نظر من ایجاد پایگاه اینترنتی برای واژه‌گزینی اهمیت دارد.					
11	فکر می‌کنم استفاده از تجربیات و دانش سایر کشورها (فرانسه، هندوستان و ...) در واژه‌سازی اهمیت دارد.					

ب- لطفاً الویت خود را در مورد هر یک از سوالات زیر مشخص نمایید.

ردیف	موضوع	همیشه 5	معمولا 4	گاهی 3	بندرت 2	هرگز 1
1	من در زندگی روزمره از جراید استفاده می‌کنید.					
2	من در زندگی روزمره از مجلات استفاده می‌کنید.					
3	من در زندگی روزمره از برنامه‌های رادیو استفاده می‌کنید.					
4	من در زندگی روزمره از برنامه‌های تلویزیون استفاده می‌کنید.					
5	من در زندگی روزمره از آثار ادبی زبان فارسی استفاده می‌کنید.					

ج- اولویت شما در انتخاب هر یک از رسانه‌ها و نهادهای زیر در اشاعه و ترویج واژه‌های نوساخته کدام است؟ (لطفاً به هر کدام از گزینه‌ها از یک تا هشت مطابق اولویت نمره بدهید)

ردیف	رسانه	اولویت شما	ردیف	رسانه	اولویت شما

3. اصطلاح "گویش" در مورد تفاوت‌های تلفظی، دستوری و واژگانی گونه‌های زبانی و اصطلاح "لهجه" در مورد تفاوت‌های تلفظی آنها به کار گرفته می‌شود. بنابراین تعریف، فارسی کابلی و فارسی تهرانی گویش‌های زبان فارسی و فارسی اصفهانی و شیرازی لهجه‌های زبان فارسی اند.

1	سینما	5	پیامک
2	جراید	6	تلویزیون
3	رادیو	7	تئاتر
4	ماهواره	8	اینترنت

بخش سوم: ویژگیهای واژه

الف- لطفاً دیدگاه خود را در مورد هر یک از سوالات زیر مشخص نمایید.

ردیف	موضوع	کاملاً موافق	موافق	بی نظر	مخالف	کاملاً مخالف
1	کوتاهی واژه (کوتاه بودن ساختار واژه. مانند واژه های " مجلس" و " گروه" به ترتیب به جای " پارلمان" و " دپارتمان") برای پذیرش واژه های جدید اهمیت دارد.					
2	زیبایی (قابلیت ساختن و بکارگیری واژه های جدید از واژه نوساخته. مانند واژه های " ویرایش"، " ویراست"، " ویراستار" و " ویراستاری" از واژه " ویراستن") برای پذیرش واژه های جدید اهمیت دارد.					
3	خوش آهنگی (ترتیب خوشایند و موزون صداها. مانند " ویرایش"، " افشانه" و "خوشاب") برای پذیرش واژه های جدید اهمیت دارد.					
4	شفافیت معنی (شرایطی که در آن بتوان از بخش های تشکیل دهنده یک واژه به معنای آن پی برد. مانند واژه های " کالبرگ"، " چاپگر" و " سردکن") برای پذیرش واژه های جدید اهمیت دارد.					
5	زیبایی معنی (زیبا بودن معنی واژه. مانند واژه های " گنجینه" و " هماهنگ" به ترتیب به جای " موزه" و " هارمونی") برای پذیرش واژه های جدید اهمیت دارد.					

ب- لطفاً الویت خود را در مورد هر یک از سوالات زیر مشخص نمایید.

ردیف	موضوع	اول	دوم	سوم	چهارم	پنجم
1	برای پذیرش واژه های جدید، کوتاهی واژه الویت من است.					
2	برای پذیرش واژه های جدید، زیبایی الویت من است.					
3	برای پذیرش واژه های جدید، خوش آهنگی الویت من است.					
4	برای پذیرش واژه های جدید، شفافیت معنی الویت من است.					
5	برای پذیرش واژه های جدید، زیبایی معنی الویت من است.					

ج- دلایل پذیرش یا رد هر یک از واژه های مصوب فرهنگستان در جدول زیر را با علامت × مشخص نمایید. (شما می توانید بیش از یک مورد انتخاب کنید)

واژه های عمومی مصوب فرهنگستان زبان و ادب فارسی							
ردیف	واژه سابق	واژه نوساخته	موافق	مخالف	دلایل پذیرش (دارا بودن یک یا چند ویژگی) / عدم پذیرش (فاقد یک یا چند ویژگی)		
					کوتاهی	زیبایی معنی	خوش آهنگی
1	تئاتر	نمایش			زیبایی معنی	شفافیت معنی	زیبایی
2	آکادمیک	علمی					
3	تکنولوژی	فناوری					

							سازمان	ارگانیزاسیون	4
							فن	تکنیک	5
							همایش	کنگره	6
							درصد	پورسانت (پورسانت (اژ)	7
							درصدان		
							نمونه	اشانتیون	8
							طبقه	کلاسه	9
							ردیف		
واژه‌های عمومی مصوب فرهنگستان زبان و ادب فارسی									
دلایل پذیرش (دارا بودن یک یا چند ویژگی) / عدم پذیرش (فاقد یک یا چند ویژگی)					مخال	مواف	واژه	واژه	ردیف
زیبایی	شفافیت	خوش	زیبایی	کوتاه					
	معنی	آهنگی	معنی	ی			مؤسسه	انستیتو	10
							نشست	شش	11
							پارانه	سوبسید	12
							مخابرات	تله‌کومونیکاسیون	13
							مجلس	پارلمان	14
							موضوع	سوژه	15
							اتحادیه	سندیکا	16
							رمز	کد	17
							گروه	کمیسیون	18
							هیئت		
							کمیسیون	دپارتمان	19
							بخش		
							گروه	کنفرانس	20
							سخنران		
							تلفن	(تلفن)	21
							همراه	موبایل	
							موزه	موزه	22
							گنجینه		
							نماد	سمبل	23
							رمز		
							دانشگاه	آکادمیک	24
							هماهنگ	هارمونیک	25
							نان‌برش	نان تست	26
							دربازک	افاف	27
							آبزی‌دان	آکواریوم	28
							ایوانگ	بالکن	29
							چارباغ	بلوار	30
							چینی‌جا	بوفه	31
							کارنما	کاتالوگ	32

							فراهما یی	کنفرانس	33
							آرایه	دکور	34
							پایه	اشل	35
							جوهرگید ن	استامپ	36
							درخش	فلاش/فلش	37
							نظرآزم ایی	فروم	38
							دستینه	هندبوك	39
							بامپوش	ایزولاسیو ن	40
							ریزبرگ ه	میکروفیش	41
							فرشینه	موکت	42
							پیجوی (کردن)	پیج (کردن)	43
							توقفسند ج	پارکومتر	44
							نورخان	پاسیو	45
							دستی	پرتابل	46

واژه‌های عمومی مصوب فرهنگستان زبان و ادب فارسی

دلایل پذیرش (دارا بودن یک یا چند ویژگی) / عدم پذیرش (فاقد یک یا چند ویژگی)					مخالف	موافق	واژه نوساخته	واژه سابق	ردیف
زیایایی	شفافیت معنی	خوش آهنگی	زیبایی معنی	کوتاه ی					
					رتوش	47	پرداخت	رتوش	47
					درس سمیناری	48	درس گروهی	درس سمیناری	48
					استریوف ونیک	49	چندآوا (یی)	استریو فونیک	49
					تیراژ	50	شمار	تیراژ	50

ج- نظرات و پیشنهادات

لطفا هر گونه نظرات و پیشنهادات خود را از طریق تلفن یا پست الکترونیکی زیر منعکس نمایید.

با تشکر فراوان
احسان برزگر

تلفن: 09122978739 (ایران - تهران) - 0060173576692 (مالزی - کوالالمپور)
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APPENDIX C:

Questionnaire APLL and suggested equivalents (English: First draft)

Questionnaire

Code No:

Dear Respondent,

Over the last two decades, the Academy of Persian Language and Literature (APLL) has been co-operating with linguists and men of letters to help to enrich the Persian language. In fact, the Academy is planning to make words and phrases for the purpose of development, proliferation and modernization of the Persian language. Note that during this period a plethora of words have been introduced to the Persian speech community; however, only a few of them, such as *râyâne* ‘computer’, *hamâyeš* ‘congress’, *šomârgân* ‘printing, tirage (Fr.)’, etc., were more or less accepted in the common language (Sadeghi, 2001:28).

Considering the issue, the researcher inclined to carry out this research for the purpose of studying and determining the extent of acceptance and rejection of these newly-formed words in Persian together with the reason(s) for including and/or excluding them.

Note also that the present questionnaire will be distributed to 500 admitted Iranian students from the state universities in Tehran, the capital city of Iran.

Without doubt, your viewpoints can have a noticeable effect on having new words accepted nationwide. In effect, your responses will be treated as confidential on the part of the researcher.

Warm regards,
Ehsan Barzegar

Part A: Personal details:

Gender: Female Male Age:

Name of University: Programme: BA MA PhD

Name of Faculty: Field of study:

Mother's education: None Primary Secondary Tertiary

Father's education: None Primary Secondary Tertiary

Hometown: Tehran another city/town (Name the city/town, please):

Do you use any other dialect(s) apart from Persian? Yes No

(If yes, name it/them):

B) Main questions:

(1= very little, 2= little, 3=much, 4= very much)

NO	Question	Response			
		1	2	3	4
Part One: The APLL					
1	To what extent are you:				
	a) familiar with measures taken by the APLL for				
	-word-formation (the process of making new words not existing in a language previously)?				
	-word-selection (the selection of words from a set of words or phrases already existing in a language)?				
	b) interested in				
	-word-formation?				
	-word-selection?				
	-do you use the APLL words?				
2	How important is the involvement of the following people in the APLL?				

-linguists					
-men of letters (experts in the Persian literature)					
-novelists					
-writers					
-poets					
-well-known translators					
3	How important				
-is word-formation by the APLL?					
-is word-selection by the APLL?					
-is word-formation by individuals?					
-is word-selection by individuals?					
4	How successful has the APLL been in the fulfilment of:				
-Word-selection?					
-Word-formation?					
Part Two: Word and its features					
5	How important are the following features of word?				
-shortness (the condition of making words using the shortest possible syllables in a language as in <i>payâmgir</i> ‘answering machine’, <i>majles</i> ‘parliament’ and <i>goruh</i> ‘department’)					
-productivity (ability to create more words from the basic form as in <i>virâstan</i> ‘to edit’, <i>virâyeš</i> ‘editing’, <i>virâst</i> ‘edition’, <i>virâstar</i> ‘editor’, <i>virâstari</i> ‘editing’)					
-euphony (a pleasing or harmonious sequence of sounds as in <i>virâyeš</i> ‘editing’, <i>afšâne</i> ‘spray’, and <i>xošâb</i> ‘compote’)					
semantic transparency (a characteristic which refers to the clear understanding of a word through its components as in <i>kâlâbarg</i> ‘voucher’, <i>čâpgar</i> ‘printer’, and <i>sardkon</i> ‘chiller’)					
NO	Question	Response			
		1	2	3	4
-metaphoric expansion ⁹ (as in <i>qerqi</i> ‘hawk’ for ‘nimble’ and <i>šir</i> ‘lion’ for ‘brave’)					
-acronym (the process of combining initial letters of a set of words as in <i>IRNA</i> ‘Iranian News Agency’, <i>HOMA</i> ‘Iranian Airline, and <i>NAJA</i> ‘Iranian Police Force’)					
-coinage ¹⁰ (as in <i>xafan</i> ‘perfect’, <i>yul</i> ‘crazy’, and <i>nočofsku</i> ‘kind of food’)					
-shortening ¹¹ (as in <i>dasti</i> ‘hand brake’ for <i>tormoz dasti</i> , <i>râdiyât</i> ‘radiator’ for <i>râdiâtor</i> , and <i>râhati</i> ‘sofa’ for <i>mobl-e-râhati</i>)					
6	To what extent do you think it is important for the APLL to:				

⁹ Semantic expansion is the expansion of the meaning(s) of the prevailing words due to the similarity of the intended concept with the meaning of current words in the language.

¹⁰ Coinage is the invention of absolutely parentless new words in language without using any word from other languages or our own language

¹¹ Shortening is the process of reduction of a word or phrase to a shorter form.

	-use living elements (<i>roots, suffixes and prefixes</i>) in the Persian language in order to make new words?				
	-refer to works by contemporary famous poets in Persian (like <i>Akhavan, Nima Shamloo</i> , etc) in order to make new words?				
	-refer to works by contemporary famous writers in Persian (like <i>Khorramshahi, Ashoori</i> , etc) in order to make new words?				
	-refer to works by contemporary famous novelists in Persian (like <i>Dolatabadi, Mahmood</i> , etc) in order to make new words?				
	-refer to works by distinguished translators in Persian (like <i>Ghazi, Haghshenas, Najafi</i> , etc) in order to make new words?				
	-utilize words used in the classic literary Persian books (like <i>Bustan, Gulistan, Hafiz, Shahnameh</i> , etc) in order to make new words?				
7	Please tick in front of a number (1, 2, 3 or 4) according to your preference for accepting new lexical items:				
	-euphony	(1 st <input type="checkbox"/> 2 nd <input type="checkbox"/> 3 rd <input type="checkbox"/> 4 th <input type="checkbox"/>)			
	-productivity	(1 st <input type="checkbox"/> 2 nd <input type="checkbox"/> 3 rd <input type="checkbox"/> 4 th <input type="checkbox"/>)			
	-semantic transparency	(1 st <input type="checkbox"/> 2 nd <input type="checkbox"/> 3 rd <input type="checkbox"/> 4 th <input type="checkbox"/>)			
	-shortness	(1 st <input type="checkbox"/> 2 nd <input type="checkbox"/> 3 rd <input type="checkbox"/> 4 th <input type="checkbox"/>)			
Part Three: Culture and Social status					
8	How important is it to use the experiences and knowledge of other countries (like France, India, etc.) in:				
	-word-formation?				
	-word-selection?				
9	Do you find it necessary to conduct a public opinion poll at regular intervals (for example, every six month) concerning the APLL words?				
10	To what extent do you think the following individuals use the APLL words?				
	-reporters				
	-newsreaders				
	-your friends				
	-your family				
	-university professors/lecturers				
11	How important is it to use other prevailing accents or dialects (such as <i>Turkish, Kurdish, Isfahani</i> , etc) for the creation of APLL words?				
No	Question	Response			
		1	2	3	4
Part Four: Personal interest and Media					

12	Is it necessary that some part of the Persian literature course at universities be allocated to:								
	-word-formation?								
	-word-selection?								
13	Is it necessary to create a database for:								
	-word-formation in the Internet?								
	-word-selection in the Internet?								
14	How often do you:								
	-read newspapers?								
	-read magazines?								
	-listen to literary programmes on the radio?								
	-watch literary programmes on the television?								
	-study literary works?								
15	To what extent may your knowledge of foreign language(s) help you in accepting the APLL words?								
16	Please tick the following means in order of your preference in spreading and popularizing newly-formed words:								
	Media	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	cinema								
	theatre								
	satellite								
	newspapers								
	radio								
	television								
	the Internet								
	SMS								

17. Choose

No	Foreign word	APLL word	For	against	Reasons for acceptance/rejection				
					Brevity	Eusemy	Euphony	Transparency	Productivity
1	théâtre	namâyeš							
2	académique	âlemâne elmi							
3	technologie	fanâvari							
4	organisation	sâzemân							
5	technique	fan							
6	congrès	hamâyeš							
7	pourcentage	darsadâne darsad							
8	échantillon	nemune							
9	classe	tabaqe radif							
10	institut	mo'assese							

11	session	nešast							
12	subside	yârâne							
13	télécommu- nication	moxâberât							
14	parlement	majles							
15	sujet	mozu							
16	syndicat	ettehâdiye							
17	code	ramz							
18	commission	goruh, hey'at, komisiyon							
19	département	baxš, goruh							
20	conference/ lecture	soxanrâni							
21	mobile phone	telefon-e hamrâh							
22	musée	muze ganjine							
23	symbole	nemâd ramz							
24	académique	dânešgâhi							
25	harmonique	hamâhangi							
26	nân-e tost	nân-e berešti							
27	ef-ef	darbâzkon							
28	aquarium	âbzidân							
29	balcon	eyvângâh							
30	boulevard	čârbâq							
31	buffet	čini-jâ							
32	catalogue	kârnemâ							
33	conference , lecture	farâhamâyi							
34	décor	ârâye							
35	échelle	pâye							
36	estampe	johargin							
37	flash/ flashlight	deraxš							
38	forum	nazarâzmâyi							
39	handbook, manuel	dastine							
40	isolation	bâmpuš							
41	microfiche	rizbarge							
42	moquette	fâršine							
43	page (kard an)	peyjuyi (kardan)							
44	parcomètre	tavaqqofhâg							
45	patio	nurxân							
46	portable	dasti							
47	retouche	pardâxt							
48	seminar	dars-e goruhi							
49	stereophonic	čandâvâyi							
50	tirage	šomâr							

C) Comments and Suggestions:

Thank you for your time and attention in responding to this questionnaire
Ehsan Barzegar
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Phone number: 017-3576692 (Kuala Lumpur-Malaysia)
Feedback/Information:
barzegar46@gmail.com
ehsanbarzegar@siswa.edu.my

APPENDIX D:

Questionnaire APLL and suggested equivalents (Persian: First version)

به نام خدا
پرسشنامه

کد

پاسخگوی ارجمند
با سلام،

بیش از دو دهه است که فرهنگستان زبان و ادب فارسی با همکاری زبانشناسان و ادبا در راستای غنی سازی زبان فارسی در صدد واژه سازی و واژه گزینی بوده تا بواسطه آن بتواند به رشد و بالندگی زبان فارسی کمک نماید. شایان ذکر است که طی این مدت، واژه ها و لغات زیادی از سوی فرهنگستان زبان به جامعه فارسی زبان ارائه شده که صرفاً تعدادی از آنها (مانند *ریانه*، *همایش*، *شمارگان* و غیره) مورد توجه و قبول جامعه فارسی زبان ایرانی قرار گرفته است.

هدف از این تحقیق بررسی و تعیین میزان پذیرش واژه های نو ساخته وارد شده به زبان فارسی و همچنین علل پذیرش و یا عدم پذیرش آنها می باشد. جامعه آماری تحقیق حاضر پذیرفته شدگان مقاطع کارشناسی، کارشناسی ارشد و دکتری در سال تحصیلی 1388-89 دانشگاه های دولتی واقع در شهر تهران است. بدیهی است که ارائه نظرات و دیدگاه های شما می تواند تاثیر بسزایی در دستیابی به واژه های نوینی داشته باشد که مورد اقبال جمعی قرار گیرد. البته، پاسخ ها و نظرات صادقانه شما محرمانه تلقی شده و در نزد پژوهشگر محفوظ خواهد بود.

با

سپاس فراوان

احسان برزگر

الف: مشخصات فردی پاسخگو:

جنسیت: زن مرد
 نام دانشگاه:
 کارشناسی ارشد دکتری
 نام دانشکده:
 تحصیلات مادر: بی سواد / ابتدایی / دیپلم / عالی
 تحصیلات پدر: بی سواد / ابتدایی / دیپلم / عالی
 محل سکونت دائمی: تهران شهرستان (در صورت تمایل نام شهرستان):
 از گویش (های) دیگری بجز زبان رسی استفاده میکنید؟ بلی خیر
 در صورت مثبت بودن پاسخ، از چه گویش(هایی) استفاده مینمایید؟

ب: پرسشهای اصلی

بخش اول: فرهنگستان زبان فارسی

لطفاً دیدگاه خود را در مورد هر یک از سوالات زیر مشخص نمایید.

ردیف	موضوع	هیچ	خیلی کم	کم	زیاد	خیلی زیاد
1	چقدر با فعالیتهای فرهنگستان در زمینه های ذیل آشنایی دارید؟					
	1-1- واژه سازی 12					
2	چقدر به فعالیتهای فرهنگستان در زمینه های روبرو علاقمند هستید؟					
	2-1- واژه سازی 2-2- واژه گزینی					
3	به نظر شما هر کدام از گویه های روبرو چقدر اهمیت دارد؟	3-1- واژه سازی توسط فرهنگستان زبان				
		3-2- واژه گزینی توسط فرهنگستان زبان				
		3-3- واژه سازی توسط مردم				
		3-4- واژه گزینی توسط مردم				

1. واژه سازی، روند ساختن واژه های جدید می باشد که سابقاً در زبان وجود نداشته اند.

2. واژه گزینی، روندی است که طی آن از بین واژه های موجود در زبان دست به انتخاب می زنیم.

					فرهنگستان زبان فارسی	4
				4-1- واژه سازی	را در موارد روبرو	
					چقدر موفق می‌دانید؟	
					4-2- واژه گزینی	

بخش دوم: فرهنگ، رسانه ها و علایق شخصی

ردیف	موضوع	هیچ	خیلی کم	کم	زیاد	خیلی زیاد
5	نظرسنجی از فارسی زبانان درباره واژه‌های نوساخته را چقدر ضروری می‌دانید؟					
6	بهره‌گیری از گویش‌ها و لهجه‌های 14 مختلف در واژه‌سازی توسط فرهنگستان را چقدر ضروری می‌دانید؟ (از قبیل ترکی، کردی، اصفهانی و ...)					
7	7-1- زبان شناسان					
	7-2- ادبا (کارشناسان ادبیات فارسی)					
	7-3- نویسندگان					
	7-4- شعرا					
	7-5- مترجمان صاحب نام					
8	8-1- عناصر زنده (موجود) در زبان (ریشه [تک/ پاتک]، پیشوند[ناکارآمد] و پسوند [حسگر])					
	8-2- آثار شعرای معاصر زبان فارسی (اخوان، نیما، شاملو و ...)					
	8-3- آثار نویسندگان معاصر زبان فارسی (خرمشاهی، آشوری و ...)					
	8-4- آثار مترجمان موفق زبان فارسی (قاضی، حق شناس، نجفی و ...)					
	8-5- واژه های بکار رفته در متون ادبی زبان فارسی (مانند بوستان، گلستان، حافظ، شاهنامه و ...)					

ردیف	موضوع	هیچ	خیلی کم	کم	زیاد	خیلی زیاد
9	9-1- خبرنگاران					
	9-2- گویندگان خبر					
	9-3- عامه مردم					
	9-4- خانواده					
	9-5- اساتید دانشگاه					
10	10-1- واژه سازی					
	10-2- واژه گزینی					
11	10-1- واژه سازی					
	10-2- واژه گزینی					
12	12-1- جراید					
	12-2- مجلات					
	12-3- برنامه های					

3. اصطلاح "گویش" در مورد تفاوت های تلفظی، دستوری و واژگانی گونه های زبانی و اصطلاح "لهجه" در مورد تفاوت های تلفظی آنها به کار گرفته می شود. بنابراین تعریف، فارسی کابلی و فارسی تهرانی گویش های زبان فارسی و فارسی اصفهانی و شیرازی لهجه های زبان فارسی اند.

					رادیو	
					12-4- برنامه های تلویزیون	
					12-5- آثار ادبی زبان فارسی	
					آشنایی شما به زبان (های) بیگانه، در پذیرش واژه های فرهنگستان زبان چقدر موثر بوده است؟	13
					14-1- واژه سازی	14
					14-2- واژه گزینی	

15- اولویت شما در انتخاب هر یک از رسانه ها و نهادهای زیر در اشاعه و ترویج واژه های نوساخته کدام است؟ (لطفاً به هر کدام از گزینه ها از یک تا هشت مطابق اولویت نمره بدهید)

- 1- سینما (.....) □
 2- تئاتر (.....) □
 3- ماهواره (.....) □
 4- جراید (.....) □
 5- رادیو (.....) □
 6- تلویزیون (.....) □
 7- اینترنت (.....) □
 8- پیامک (.....) □

بخش سوم: ویژگیهای واژه

16- برای پذیرش یک واژه، هر یک از ویژگی های زیر چقدر اهمیت دارد؟

ردیف	موضوع	هیچ	خیلی کم	کم	زیاد	خیلی زیاد
16-1	کوتاهی واژه (کوتاه بودن ساختار واژه. مانند واژه های "مجلس" و "گروه" به ترتیب به جای "پارلمان" و "دیپارتمان")					
16-2	زیبایی (قابلیت ساختن و بکارگیری واژه های جدید از واژه نوساخته. مانند واژه های "ویرایش"، "ویراست"، "ویراستار" و "ویراستاری" از واژه "ویراستن")					
16-3	خوش آهنگی (ترتیب خوشایند و موزون صداها. مانند "ویرایش"، "افشانه" و "خوشاب")					
16-4	شفافیت معنی (شرایطی که در آن بتوان از بخش های تشکیل دهنده یک واژه به معنای آن پی برد. مانند واژه های "کلابرگ"، "چاپگر" و "سردکن")					
16-5	گسترش استعاری ¹⁵					
16-6	سرواژه سازی (فرآیندی که در آن از کنار هم قرار گرفتن حروف اول واژه های مختلف واژه جدید ساخته می شود. مانند واژه های "ایرنا"، "هما" و "ناجا")					
16-7	ابداع ¹⁶					
16-8	کوتاه سازی ¹⁷					
16-9	زیبایی معنی (زیبا بودن معنی واژه. مانند واژه های "گنجینه" و "مهانگ" به ترتیب به جای "موزه" و "مارمونی")					

17- کدام یک از گزینه های زیر در پذیرش واژه های جدید برای شما از اولویت بیشتری برخوردار است؟ (اولویت اول تا پنجم را مشخص نمایید)

- 1- آهنگین بودن (....) □
 2- زیبایی (....) □
 3- شفافیت معنی (....) □
 4- کوتاهی واژه (....) □
 5- زیبایی معنی (.....) □

18- دلایل پذیرش یا رد هر یک از واژه های مصوب فرهنگستان در جدول زیر را با علامت × مشخص نمایید. (شما می توانید بیش از یک مورد انتخاب کنید)

واژه های عمومی مصوب فرهنگستان زبان و ادب فارسی

4. گسترش استعاری عبارت است از گسترش معنی یا معانی واژه های موجود در زبان به واسطه شباهت مفهوم مورد نظر با مصداق های واژه. مانند واژه های "قرقی" و "شیر" به ترتیب برای اشاره به آدمهای "چابک" و "شجاع".
 5. ابداع عبارت است از ساختن واژه ای جدید بدون استفاده از فرآیندهای رایج زبان، مانند واژه های "خفن" (عالی)، "بول" (احمق) و "نوجفسکو".
 6. کوتاه سازی عبارت است از حذف بخشهایی از آغاز، میان و یا پایان واژه یا عبارتی طولانی به منظور ساختن واژه ای نو. مانند واژه "دستی" به جای "ترمز دستی"، "رادیات" به جای "رادیاتور" و "راحتی" به جای "مبل راحتی".

دلایل پذیرش (دارا بودن یک یا چند ویژگی) / عدم پذیرش (فاقد یک یا چند ویژگی)						مخالف	موافق	واژه نوساخته	واژه سابق	ردیف
سایر دلایل	زیایایی	شفافیت معنی	خوش آهنگی	زیبایی معنی	کوتاهی					
								نمایش	تئاتر	1
								علمی	آکادمیک	2
								عالمانه		
								فناوری	تکنولوژی	3
								سازمان	ارگانیزاسیون	4
								فن	تکنیک	5
								همایش	کنگره	6
								درصد	پورسانت (پورسانت (اژ)	7
								درصدان		
								نمونه	اشانتیون	8
								طبقه	کلاسه	9
								ردیف		
								مؤسسه	انستیتو	10
								نشست	شش	11
								پارانه	سوبسید	12
								مخابرات	تله‌کوموند یکاسیون	13
								مجلس	پارلمان	14
								موضوع	سوژه	15
								اتحادیه	سندیکا	16
								رمز	کد	17
								گروه	کمیسیون	18
								هیئت کمیسیون		
								بخش	دپارتمان	19
								گروه		
								سخنرانی	کنفرانس	20
								تلفن همراه	(تلفن) موبایل	21
								موزه	موزه	22
								گنجینه		
								نماد	سمبل	23
								رمز		

واژه‌های عمومی مصوب فرهنگستان زبان و ادب فارسی										
دلایل پذیرش (دارا بودن یک یا چند ویژگی) / عدم پذیرش (فاقد یک یا چند ویژگی)						مخال ف	مواف ق	واژه نوساخته	واژه سابق	ردیف
سایر دلایل	زیای یی	شفافیت معنی	خوش آهنگی	زیبایی معنی	کوتاه ی					
								دانشگاهی	آکادمیک	24
								هماهنگ	هارمونیک	25
								نان‌برشتی	نان تست	26
								دربازکن	افاف	27
								آبزی‌دان	آکواریوم	28
								ایوانگاه	بالکن	29
								چارباغ	بلوار	30
								چینی‌جا	بوفه	31
								کارنما	کاتالوگ	32
								فراهمایی	کنفرانس	33
								آرایه	دکور	34
								پایه	اشل	35
								جوهرگین	استامپ	36
								درخش	فلاش/فلش	37
								نظرآزمایی	فروم	38
								دستینه	هندیوک	39
								بام‌پوش	ایزولاسیو ن	40
								ریزبرگه	میکروفیش	41
								فرشینه	موکت	42
								پی‌جویی (کردن)	پیج (کردن)	43
								توقف‌سنج	پارکومتر	44
								نورخان	پاسیو	45
								دستی	پرتابل	46
								پرداخت	رتوش	47
								درس گروهی	درس سمیناری	48
								چندآوا (پی)	استریوفو نیک	49
								شمار	تیراژ	50

ج- نظرات و پیشنهادات

لطفا هر گونه نظرات و پیشنهادات خود را از طریق تلفن یا پست الکترونیکی زیر منعکس نمایید.

با تشکر فراوان

احسان برزگر

تلفن: 09122978739 (ایران - تهران) - 0060173576692 (مالزی - کوالالمپور)

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APPENDIX E:

Iranian Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students in state universities in the city of Tehran for the academic year 2009-2010 (Non-medical)

Programme							
BA/BSc		MA/MSc		Ph.D and Professional doctor		Total	
Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
71928	136489	24454	20060	6271	3247	102653	159796
208417		44514		9518		262449	

APPENDIX F:

The Total Number of Iranian Students in State Universities for the Academic Year 2009-2010

No	Province	Number of state university students	Percentage
1	Eastern Azerbaijan	101789	4.87%
2	Western Azerbaijan	67007	3.21%
3	Ardabil	33822	1.62%
4	Isfahan	145899	6.99%
5	Ilam	27820	1.33%
6	Alborz	49854	2.39%
7	Bushehr	27099	1.30%
8	Tehran	390112	18.68%
9	Chahar-Mahal-e Bakhtiyari	32811	1.57%
10	Southern Khorasan	25433	1.22%
11	Khorasan-e Razavi	139848	6.70%
12	Northern Khorasan	19443	0.93%
13	Khuzestan	80847	3.87%
14	Zanjan	33115	1.59%
15	Semnan	44871	2.15%
16	Sistan-o-Baluchestan	56149	2.69%
17	Fars	114261	5.47%
18	Qazvin	38980	1.87%
19	Qom	26495	1.27%
20	Kurdistan	34883	1.67%
21	Kerman	90546	4.34%
22	Kermanshah	53033	2.54%
23	Kohkiluye-va-Boyerahmad	20852	1.00%
24	Gulistan	36574	1.75%
25	Gilan	59445	2.85%
26	Luristan	44160	2.11%
27	Mazandaran	97220	4.66%
28	Markazi	52466	2.51%
29	Hormozgan	35656	1.71%
30	Hamedan	57658	2.76%
31	Yazd	50139	2.40%
	Total	2088287	100%

APPENDIX G:

Guided Interview Questions with Students (English and Persian)

Section One: Demographic details

Gender: Female Male Age:
Name of University: Programme: BA MA PhD
Name of Faculty: Field of study:
Mother's education: None Primary Secondary Tertiary
Father's education: None Primary Secondary Tertiary
Hometown: Tehran another city/town (Name the city/town, please):
Do you use any other dialect(s) apart from Persian? Yes No
(If yes, name it/them):

Section Two: The APLL and its activities

Question 1: How do you feel about the APLL's success in fulfillment of word-formation and word-selection?

Question 2: Who do you think play more important role in the issues of word-formation and word-selection? The APLL members or non-APLL individuals? Why?

Question 3: Do you think that the involvement of linguists and men of letters in the APLL is important in connection with word-formation and word-selection?

Question 4: What is your opinion about the use of the APLL words by the following individuals?

(Your family members/ Friends/ University professors or lecturers/ Newsreaders/ Reporters/ The public)

Question 5: How often do you use the APLL words personally?

Section Three: Culture, Media and Personal interests

Question 1: What are the most important ways of promoting the APLL words?

Question 2: Do you feel that the utilization of words used in the classic Persian books (like *Bustân*, *Hâfiz*, *Shâhnâme*) as well as modern ones is important in making new words?

Question 3: Does your knowledge of foreign language(s) help you with accepting the APLL words?

Section Four: Words and its feature

Question 1: Which one(s) of the following features of words are more important when creating new words? (Brevity/ Euphony/ Eusemy/ Productivity/ Semantic transparency)

APPENDIX H:

Guided Interview Questions with Students (Persian)

سوالات مصاحبه (مخصوص دانشجویان)

بخش نخست: مشخصات عمومی:

- جنسیت: (1) زن (2) مرد سن: نام
 رشته تحصیلی: نام دانشگاه:
 دانشکده:
 مقطع: (1) کارشناسی (2) کارشناسی ارشد (3) دکتری
 تحصیلات مادر: (1) بی سواد (2) ابتدایی (3) دیپلم (4)
 تحصیلات دانشگاهی
 تحصیلات پدر: (1) بی سواد (2) ابتدایی (3) دیپلم (4)
 تحصیلات دانشگاهی
 محل سکونت دائمی: (1) تهران (2) شهرستان (در صورت تمایل نام
 بفرید:.....)
 آیا از گویش(هایی) بجز زبان فارسی استفاده می کنید؟ (1) بلی (2)
 خیر
 در صورت مثبت بودن پاسخ، از کدام گویش(هایی) زیر استفاده می کنید؟
 (آذری - کردی - لری - سایر)

بخش دوم: سوالات مربوط به فرهنگستان زبان و فعالیت های آن:

- 1- عملکرد فرهنگستان زبان را در زمینه واژه سازی و واژه گزینی چگونه ارزیابی می کنید؟
- 2- در زمینه واژه سازی و واژه گزینی چه افرادی می توانند نقش بهتر و مهمتری ایفا کنند؟ (کارشناسان فرهنگستان یا متخصصین مستقل)
- 3- به نظر شما زبان شناسان و ادبا در زمینه واژه سازی و واژه گزینی چه نقشی می توانند ایفا کنند؟
- 4- به نظر شما، افراد ذیل به چه میزان از واژه های نو ساخته فرهنگستان استفاده می کنند؟ (خانواده، دوستان، استادان دانشگاه، خبرنگاران، گویندگان خبر و عموم مردم)

افراد	خیلی کم	کم	متوسط	زیاد	خیلی زیاد
خانواده					
دوستان					
استادان دانشگاه					
خبرنگاران					
گویندگان خبر					
عموم مردم					

- 5- آیا شما شخصا از واژه های نوساخته فرهنگستان استفاده می نمایید؟ چرا استفاده می کنید (نمی کنید)؟

بخش سوم: سوالات مربوط به فرهنگ، رسانه ها و علائق شخصی:

- 1- مهمترین راه های اشاعه واژه های نوساخته فرهنگستان زبان کدام است؟
- 2- آیا استفاده از منابع قدیم (مانند شاهنامه، گلستان و...) و جدید فارسی در واژه سازی و واژه گزینی می تواند مفید واقع شود؟
- 3- آیا آشنایی شما به زبان(های) خارجی نقشی در پذیرش واژه های نو ساخته فرهنگستان دارد؟

بخش چهارم: سوالات مربوط به واژه و ویژگی های آن:

1- به نظر شما کدام یک از ویژگی های واژه (کوتاهی، زیبایی معنی، خوش آهنگی، شفافیت معنی و زیبایی) موجب پذیرش واژه های نوساخته فرهنگستان می شود؟ (لطفا از اعداد 1 تا 5 بر اساس الویت مرتب نمایید بدین صورت که عدد 1 به معنای بالاترین الویت و عدد 5 کمترین الویت می باشد.)

الویت	ویژگی واژه
	کوتاهی
	زیبایی معنی
	خوش آهنگی
	شفافیت معنی
	زیبایی

APPENDIX I:

Expert Interview with Expert (English)

Section One: Demographic details

Gender: Female Male Age:

Field of study:

Qualification: BA MA PhD

Section Two: The APLL and its activities

Question 1: Do you think that the involvement of linguists and men of letters in the APLL is important in connection with word-formation and word-selection? Please elaborate on that?

Question 2: What is your opinion about the use of the APLL words by the following individuals?

(Your family members/ Friends/ University professors or lecturers/ Newsreaders/ Reporters/ The public)

Individual	V. Little	Little	Fine	Much	V. much
family					
friends					
professors					
reporters					
newsreaders					
the public					

Section Three: Culture, Media and Personal interests

Question 1: What do you think are the most important ways of promoting the APLL words?

Question 2: Do you feel that the utilization of words used in the classic Persian books (like *Bustân*, *Hâfiz*, *Shâhnâme*) as well as modern ones is important in making new words?

Section Four: Words and their features

Question 1: Which one(s) of the following features of words are more important when creating new words? Please tick in the appropriate box in order of preference (1 is the most important feature and 5 is the least):

Word Feature	Your preference
Brevity	
Eusemy	
Euphony	
Semantic transparency	
Productivity	

APPENDIX J:

Expert Interview with Expert (Persian)

سوالات مصاحبه (مخصوص خبرگان)

بخش نخست: مشخصات عمومی:

جنسیت: زن مرد سن: _____
 رشته تحصیلی: _____

آخرین مدرک تحصیلی: کارشناسی کارشناسی ارشد دکتری

بخش دوم: سوالات مربوط به فرهنگستان زبان و فعالیت های آن:

- به نظر شما زبان شناسان و ادبا در زمینه واژه سازی و واژه گزینی چه نقشی می توانند ایفا کنند؟

- به نظر شما، افراد ذیل به چه میزان از واژه های نو ساخته فرهنگستان استفاده می کنند؟

افراد	خیلی کم	کم	متوسط	زیاد	خیلی زیاد
خانواده					
دوستان					
استادان دانشگاه					
خبرنگاران					
گویندگان خبر					
عموم مردم					

بخش سوم: سوالات مربوط به فرهنگ، رسانه ها و علائق شخصی:

- مهمترین راه های اشاعه واژه های نوساخته فرهنگستان زبان کدام است؟

- آیا استفاده از منابع قدیم (مانند شاهنامه، گلستان و...) و جدید فارسی در واژه سازی و واژه گزینی می تواند مفید واقع شود؟

بخش چهارم: سوالات مربوط به واژه و ویژگی های آن:

- به نظر شما کدام یک از ویژگی های واژه (کوتاهی، زیبایی معنی، خوش آهنگی، شفافیت معنی و زیبایی) موجب پذیرش واژه های نوساخته فرهنگستان می شود؟ (لطفا از اعداد تا بر اساس

الویت مرتب نماید بدین صورت که عدد  به معنای بالاترین الویت و عدد  کمترین الویت می باشد.)

الویت	ویژگی واژه
	کوتاهی
	زیبایی معنی
	خوش آهنگی
	شفافیت معنی
	زایایی

APPENDIX K:

The Principles of Terminology [Word-formation/-selection in the APLL]

(Taken from Zarnikhi 2009, pp: 6 and 8-9, with some modifications)

- 1) In selecting equivalents for foreign words, new words should be selected from the “modern standard Persian” used by educated people in speaking and writing.
- 2) In creating terms, Persian grammatical rules should be observed.
- 3) Persian phonetic rules should be observed. Loan words should be phonetically adapted.
- 4) It would be better to select an equivalent which goes through productive morphological processes such as derivation and compounding.
- 5) In selecting equivalents, the hierarchy is as follow:
 - 5-1 Common Persian words which have already been used
 - 5-2 Neologisms created on the basis of Persian morphological processes using Persian words
 - 5-3 Common Arabic words [used by great poets and writers]

5-4 Neologisms created on the basis of Persian morphological processes using Arabic words common in Persian

5-5 Words taken from different Persian Varieties and present Iranian dialects

5-6 Words taken from Middle and Ancient Iranian languages

6) In providing equivalents, transparency and intelligibility should be observed.

7) This principle states:

7-1 When a term designates some concepts [polysemy in the source language], each of them can be expressed by an individual equivalent; e.g. the equivalents of *deposit* in chemistry and banking are *rosub* and *sepordeh* respectively.

7-2 When a concept is expressed by some terms [synonymy in the source language], it is better to use only one equivalent, but, if it is required, it is permitted to find or create equivalents for each of them separately.

7-3 It is permitted to use an equivalent for different terms [polysemy in the target language], e.g. *rekhnegær* as an equivalent for both *hacker*, in computer sciences, and *penetrationaids*, in military sciences.

7-4 When a term designates a certain concept, it is suggested that one equivalent is used, except that it has different long-established equivalents in different disciplines [synonymy in the target language]; e.g. the equivalents of *observation* in meteorology and basic sciences are *didebani* and *moshahedeh* respectively.

7-5 When a term is used in a certain field, only one equivalent should be used, except that it designates different concepts in that field.

8) There is no need to find equivalents for universal and international words.

9) The Academy, if it is required, can use rare or unprecedented morphological processes.

APPENDIX L:

Foreign Words and the APLL's Approved Equivalent

No	Foreign words	Origin	APLL words	Pronunciation
1	[computer] + [-xân] کنتورخوان	[French-Persian]	شمارخو ان	[šomârxân]
2	[shift] + [-i] 2 شیفتی	[English-Persian]	نوبتکا ر	[nobat-kâr]
3	[nân] + [toast] نان تست	[Persian-English]	نان برش تی	[nân-e-berešti]
4	[shift] + [-i] 1 شیفتی	[English]	نوبتی	[nobati]
5	[pish-] + [facture] پیشفاکتور	[Persian-French]	پیشبرگ 1	[piš-barg]
6	[indicateur]+[-nevis] انديکاتورنویس	[French-Persian]	نمانوی س	[nomâ-nevis]
7	[test] + [-i][Persian] تستی	[Fre/Eng-Persian]	آزمونه ای	[âzmune-'i]
8	آیفون	?	آو ابر	[âvâ-bar]
9	فلاش تانک	?	آبشویه 2	[âb-šuye]
10	حق التحقیق	Arabic	پژوهان ه	[pažuhane]
11	افاف	?	دربازک ن	[dar-bâzkon]
12	لووردراپه	French	پرداوی ز	[pardâviz]
13	حق التدریس	Arabic	آموزان ه	[âmuzane]
14	abat-jour	French	نورتاپ	[nur-tâb]
15	abonné	French	مشترک	[moštarak]
16	abonnement	French	حق اشترک	[haqqe-ešterâk]
17	académie	French	فرهنگس تان	[farhangestân]

18	académique 1	French	دانشگاه هی	[dânešgahi]
19	académique 2	French	علمی، عالمان ه	[elmi/âlemâne]
20	album	French	آلبوم	[jong]
21	aluminium foil	English	پوش‌برگ	[puš-barg]
22	amateur	French	غیرحرفه ای	[qeyr-e-herfe'i]
23	animation	English	پویانم ایی	[puyânemâyi]
24	animator	English	پویانم ا	[puyânemâyi]
25	answering machine	English	پیام‌گیر ر	[payâm-gir]
26	antique	French	عتیقه	[atiqe]
27	appartement	French	کاشانه	[kâšâne]
28	application form	English	درخواست تنامه	[dar-xâst-nâme]
29	aquarium	French	آبزی‌دان ن	[âbzi-dân]
30	archives	French	بایگان ی	[bâygani]
31	armes	French	نشانه	[nešâne]
32	ascenseur 1	French	آسان‌بر	[âsân-bar]
33	ascenseur 2	French	بالابر	[bâlâ-bar]
34	assistant	French	دستیار	[dast-yâr]
35	atelier	French	کارگاه	[kâr-gah]
36	autobahn	German	بزرگراه ه	[bozorg-râh]
No	Foreign words	Origin	APLL words	Pronunciation
37	autobiographie	French	سرگذشت من، زندگی- نامه خود/من خودنوش ت	[sargozašt-e man], [zendegi-nâme-ye- xodnevešt]
38	automatique	French	خودکار ، خودبه- خود	[xod-kâr]/[xod-be- xod]
39	balcon 1	French	ایوانک	[eyvânak]
40	balcon 2	French	ایوانگ اه	[eyvângâh]
41	bandage	French	باندپد چی	[band-piči]
42	bande	French	باند، نوار 1	[bând/navâr]
43	banderole	French	سرچسب	[sar-časb]

44	bar code	English	رمزینه	[ram-zine]
45	barème	French	شمارك	[šomârak]
46	biennal	French	دو سالانه	[do-sâlâne]
47	bilan	French	ترازنامه	[tarâz-nâme]
48	biographie	French	سرگذشت ، شرح ، حال ، زندگی نامه	[sargozašt/zendegi-nâme/šarh-e hâl]
49	blender	English	مخلوطکن	[maxlut-kon]
50	bodyguard	English	جان پاس	[jân-pâs]
51	bon	French	بها برگ	[bahâ-barg]
52	boulevard	French	چارباغ	[čâr-bâq]
53	bourse 1	French	بها بازار	[bahâ-bâzâr]
54	bourse 2	French	راتبه	[râtebe]
55	boursier	French	راتبه گیر	[râtebe-gir]
56	boxe	French	مشتزنی	[mošt-zani]
57	boxeur	French	مشتزن	[mošt-zan]
58	brochure	French	دفترک	[daftarak]
59	buffet	French	چینی جا	[čini-jâ]
60	bulletin	French	خبرنامه	[xabar-nâme]
61	cabine	French	اتاقک	[otâqak]
62	câble	French	بافه	[bâfe]
63	cadre 1	French	پایوران	[pây-varân]
64	cadre 2	French	پیرابند	[pirâ-band]
65	capsule, cylindre 2	French	استوانک 2	[ostovânak]
66	cartable	French	کارپوشه	[kâr-puše]
67	cassette 1	French	نوار 2	[navâr]
68	catalogue 1	French	فهرست	[fehrest]
69	catalogue 2	French	کالانما	[kâlâ-nemâ]
70	catalogue 3	French	کارنما	[kâr-nemâ]
71	censure	French	سانسور ، بررسی	[sânsur/barresi]
72	charge	French	هزینه سرانه خدمات	[hazine/sarâne] [xadamât]
No	Foreign words	Origin	APLL words	Pronunciation
73	cheminée	French	هیمه سو ز	[hime-suz]
	chiller	English	سردکن	[sard-kon]

74				
75	classe	French	رده ، طبقه	[rade/tabagə]
76	classé	French	رده بند ي شده طبقه بند دي شده	[rade-bandi-šode] [tabagə-bandi-šode]
77	classification	French	رده بند ي ، طبقه بند دي	[rade-bandi] [tabagə-bandi]
78	code 1	French	رمز 1	[ramz]
79	code 2	French	شناسه	[šenâse]
80	comité	French	کارگروه	[kâr-goruh]
81	commission	French	گروه ، هیئت ، کمیسیون ن	[goruh/hei'at] [komisiyun]
82	compote	French	خوشاب	[xošâb]
83	compteur	French	شمارگر	[šomâr-gar]
84	concentré	French	افشرده	[afšorde]
85	conférence 1, lecture	French – English	سخنران ي	[soxan-râni]
86	conférence 2, lecture	French – English	فراهما پی	[farâ-hamâyi]
87	conférence 3, lecture	French – English	اجلاس 1	[ejlâs]
88	congrès	French	همایش	[hamâyeš]
89	contact lens	English	عدسک	[adasak]
90	copie	French	رونوشت ، روگرفت	[ru-nevešt][ru-gereft]
91	copyright	English	حق نشر	[haqq-e-našr]
92	coupon	French	کالبرگ	[kalâ-barg]
93	cover	English	پوشن	[pušan]
94	cristal	French	بلوره	[bolure]
95	cylindre 1	French	استوان ك 1	[ostovânak]
96	décor	French	آرایه 1	[ârâye]
97	décorateur	French	آرایه‌گر ر ؛ - آرا	[ârâye-gar], [ârâ]
98	décoratif	French	آرایشی ، تزیینی	[ârâyeši], [taz'ini]
99	décoration	French	آرایه‌گر ري ، آرایش - ، 2 آرایی	[ârâye-gari],[ârâyeš], [ârayi]
100	département	French	بخش ، گروه	[baxš], [goruh]

101	doping	English	زور افز ایی	[zur-afzâyi]
102	drawer	English	کشویی	[kešo-yi]
103	dumping	English	بازار ش کنی	[bâzâr-šekani]
No	Foreign words	Origin	APLL words	Pronunciation
104	e- mail	English	پیام نگ ار	[pâyâm-negâr]
105	échantillon	French	نمونه	[nemune]
106	échelle 1	French	پایه	[pâye]
107	échelle 2	French	مقیاس	[meqyâs]
108	écologie	French	بوم شنا سی، بوم شنا خت	[bum-šenâsi/šenâxt]
109	edit	English	ویرایش	[virâyeš]
110	editor	English	ویراست ار	[virâstâr]
111	équipe	French	گروه مجهز	[goruh-e mojahaz]
112	escorte	French	همزوان	[hamrovân]
113	escorter	French	همزوی کردن	[hamrovi kardan]
114	essence	French	عطر مای ه	[atr-mâye]
115	estampe	French	جوهر گید ن	[johargin]
116	etiquette	French	بھانما	[bahânemâ]
117	facture	French	برگ خرید، صورت حس اب	[barg-e xarid], [surat-hesâb]
118	fantaisie	French	تفنی	[tafannoni]
119	fax 1, facsimile	English	دورنگا ر 1	[dur-negâr]
120	fax 2	English	دورنگا ری	[dur-negâri]
121	fax 3	English	دورنگا ر 2	[dur-negâr]
122	fiche 1	French	برگه 1	[barghe]
123	fiche 2	French	برگه 3	[barghe]
124	fichier	French	برگه دا ن	[barghe-dân]
125	file	English	پرونجا	[parvanjâ]
126	filtre	French	پالایه	[pâlâye]
127	flash/flashlight	English	درخش	[deraxš]
128	flask	English	دما بان	[dama-bân]
129	flèche	French	پیکانه	[peykâne]

130	flower box	English	گلشته	[golešte]
131	folklore	French	فرهنگ مردم	[farhang-e mardom]
132	folklorique	French	مردمی	[mardomi]
133	food processor	English	چندکار ه	[čand-kare]
134	forme	French	برگه 2	[barghe]
135	forum	French	نظر آزم ایی	[nazar-âzmayi]
136	four	French	تاون	[tavân]
137	franchise	French	خودپرد اخت	[xod-pardâxt]
138	freeze	[English]	منجمد کردن	[monjamet kardan]
139	freezer	English	یخزن	[yax-zan]
140	frozen	English	یخ زده	[yax-zade]
No	Foreign words	Origin	APLL words	Pronunciation
141	garantie	French	تضمین، ضمانت	[tazmin/zemânat]
142	garde	French	پاسگان	[pâsgân]
143	hall	French – English	سرسرا	[sar-sarâ]
144	handbook, manuel	French – English	دستینه	[dastine]
145	harmonie	French	هما هنگ ي	[hamâhangi]
146	harmonique	French	هما هنگ	[hamâhang]
147	headphone, headphones	English	دوگوشي	[do-guši]
148	heater 1	English	اجاقک	[ojâqak]
149	heater 2	English	بخاري برقی	[boxâri-ye-barqi]
150	hélicoptère	French	بالگرد	[bâl-gard]
151	hood	English	هوا بر	[havâ-bar]
152	index	English	نمایه	[nomâye]
153	indicateur	French	نامه نم ا	[name-nemâ]
154	informatique	French	داده ور زي	[dâdevarzi]
155	institut	French	مؤسسه	[mo'assese]
156	isolation 1	French	بام پوش (فقط براي بام)	[bâmpuš]
157	isolation 2	French	عایقکا ري، عایق بند دي	[âyeq-kâri/-bandi]
158	jacuzzi	French	آبزن	[ab-zan]
159	jeton	French	بها مهر	[bahâ-mohr]
160	lens	English	عدسی	[adasi]

161	liste, list	French – English	فهرست 2، سیاهه، صورت	[fehrest/siyahе/surat]
162	loge	French	جایگاه	[jaygâh]
163	lustre	French	نور افش ان	[nurafšân]
164	luxe	French	تجملي	[tajammoli]
165	manifeste	French	بیانیه	[bayâniye]
166	maquette	French	نمونک	[nemunak]
167	margarine	French	کره نباتی	[kare-ye nabâti]
168	mécanisé	French	ماشینی	[mašini]
169	meeting	English	تجمع	[tajammo’]
170	microfiche	French	ریزبرگ ه	[riz-barge]
171	microfilm	French	ریزفیلد م	[riz-film]
172	microphone	French	صدابر	[sedâbar]
173	microwave oven	English	تندپز	[tondpaz]
174	mixer	English	همزن	[hamzan]
175	mobile phone	English	تلفن همراه	[telefon-e hamrâh]
176	moquette	French	فرشینه	[faršine]
177	musée	French	موزه، گنجینه	[muze]
No	Foreign words	Origin	APLL words	Pronunciation
178	nomenclature	French	نامگان	[nâme-gân]
179	on call	English	گوش به زنگ	[guš-be-zang]
180	open[kitchen]	English	آشپزخا نه باز	[âšpaz-xâne-ye bâz]
181	opérateur	French	کارور	[kâr-var]
182	opposition	French	گروه مخالف	[goruh-e moxâlef]
183	organe	French	ترجمان	[tarjomân]
184	organisation	French	سازمان	[sâzemân]
185	organisé	French	سازمند	[sâz-mand]
186	page	[English]	پیجویی (کردن)	[pey-ju-yi (kardan)]
187	pager	English	پیجو	[pey-ju]
188	panel	English	هیئترئ یسه	[hey’at rayise]
189	paragraphe	French	بند	[band]
190	paraphe	French	پیش امض ا	[piš-emzâ]
191	paravent	French	پردینه	[pardine]
192	parcomètre	French	توقفسن ج	[tavaqqof-sanj]

193	park	English	مانك	[mânak]
194	park and ride	English	پياده - سوار	[piyâde-savâr]
195	parking	English	توقفگا ه	[tavaqqof-gâh]
196	parlement	French	مجلس	[majles]
197	parquet	French	چوبفرش	[čub-farš]
198	partition	English	ديوارك	[divârak]
199	patio	French	نورخان	[nur-xân]
200	pavillon 1	French	سرايه	[sarâ-ye]
201	pavillon 2	French	كوشك	[kušk]
202	perforage	French	آژدار	[âždâr]
203	perforateur	French	آزه	[âže]
204	personnel	French	كاركنا ن	[kârkonân]
205	phase	French	گام	[gâm]
206	plomb	French	مهرومو م	[mohr-o-mum]
207	polycopie	French	دستگاه تکثیر	[dastgâh-e taksir]
208	pompage	French	پمپزنی ، تلمبه ز نی	[pomp-zani] [tolombe-zani]
209	portable	French	دستی	[dasti]
210	pourcentage	French	درصدان ، ه درصد (بنا به مورد)	[dar-sadâne][dar-sad]
211	press conference, news conference	English	مصاحبه مطبوعا تی	[mosâhebe-ye matbu'âti]
No	Foreign words	Origin	APLL words	Pronunciation
212	price list	English	بهانام ه	[bahâ-nâme]
213	pro forma	French	پیش‌برگ 2	[piš-barg]
214	projecteur 1	French	نور افك ن	[nur-afkan]
215	projecteur 2	French	فرا تاب	[farâ-tâb]
216	Pyrex	French	نسوز	[nasuz]
217	remote control	English	دور فرم ان	[dur-farmân]
218	résumé 1, curriculum vitae (cv)	French	كارنام ك	[kâr-nâmak]
219	résumé 2, abstract	French – English	چكیده	[čekide]
220	retouche	French	پرداخت	[pardâxt]

221	retoucheur	French	پرداخت کار	[pardâxt-kâr]
222	rewinder 1	English	برگردان	[bargardân]
223	rewinder 2	English	دکمه برگردان	[dogme-ye bargardân]
224	séance	French	نوبت 2	[nobat]
225	seminar 1	English	هم‌اندیشی	[ham-andiši]
226	seminar 2	English	درس گروهی	[dars-e goruhi]
227	sensor	English	حسگر	[hes-gar]
228	serial	English	زنجیره	[zanjire]
229	série	French	رشته ، سلسله ، مجموعه	[rešte][selsele] [majmu'e]
230	session 1	English	نشست	[nešast]
231	session 2	English	اجلاس 2	[ejlâs]
232	shift	English	نوبت 1	[nobat]
233	side by side	English	(یخچال - یخزن) هم‌ب‌ر	[(yax-čâl/yax-zan-e) hambar]
234	silver-plated	English	سیم‌اند ود	[sim-andud]
235	sink	English	ظرفشویی	[zarf-šu'i]
236	siphon	French	آبشویه 1	[âb-šu-ye]
237	spray	English	افشانه	[afšâne]
238	stencil	English	کاغذ مومی	[kâqaz-e mumi]
239	stereophonic	English	چند آوا ' چند آوا بی	[čand-âvâ]
240	subside	French	پارانه	[yârâne]
241	suite	French	سراچه	[sarâ-če]
242	sujet	French	موضوع	[mozu]
243	symbole	French	نماد ، رمز 2	[nemâd][ramz]
244	symbolique	French	نمادین ' ، رمزی	[nemâdin][ramzi]
245	symbolisme	French	نمادگان	[nemâdegân]
246	symposium	French	محلل می- هم‌نشست	[mahfel-e elmi] [ham-nešast]
No	Foreign words	Origin	APLL words	Pronunciation
247	syndicat	French	اتحادیه	[ettehâdi-ye]

			ه	
248	taxidermist	English	آکنده س از	[âkande-sâz]
249	taxidermy 1	English	آکنده	[âkande]
250	taxidermy 2	English	آکنده س ازي	[âkande-sâzi]
251	technicien	French	فن ورز	[fan-varz]
252	technique	French	فن	[fan]
253	technocrate	French	فن سالار	[fan-sâlâr]
254	technocratie	French	فن سالار ي	[fan-sâlâri]
255	technocratique	French	فن سالار انه	[fan-sâlârâne]
256	technologie	French	فناوري	[fan-âvari]
257	technologique	French	فناورا نه	[fan-âvarâne]
258	technologist	English	فناور	[fan-âvar]
259	télécommunication	French	مخابرات	[moxâberât]
260	téléconférence, vidéoconférence	French	دورسخد ي	[dur-soxani]
261	tele-text	English	پيامنم ا	[payâm-nemâ]
262	terminal	French	پايانه	[pâyâne]
263	terrasse	French	بهارخو اب، مهتابي	[bahâr-xâb]
264	test 1	English	آزمون	[âzmudan]
265	test 2	English	آزمون	[âzmun]
266	test 3	English	آزمونه	[âzmunne]
267	théâtre 1	French	نمایش	[nemâyeš]
268	théâtre 2	French	نمایشس را	[nemâyeš-sarâ]
269	théoricien	French	نظريه پ رداز	[nazari-ye pardâz]
270	théorie	French	نظريه	[nazari-ye]
271	théorique	French	نظري	[nazari]
272	thermocouple	French	بند آور	[band-âvar]
273	tirage	French	شمار	[šomâr]
274	toaster	English	برشته ک ن	[berešte kon]
275	toaster oven	English	برشتار	[bereštâr]
276	topical meeting	English	ويژه هم ايي	[viže-hamâyi]
277	ultimatum	French	اتمام حجت، زنهاره	[etmâm-e hojjat] [zenhâre]
278	uniforme	French	هم سانه	[ham-sâne]
280	walkman	English	پخش همراه	[paxš-e hamrâh]
281	warmer	English	چراغک	[čerâqak]

282	wheelchair	English	چرخك	[čarxak]
283	workshop	English	كارگاه آموزشي	[kârgâh-e âmuzeši]
284	Zonnecken	German	پروندا ن	[parvandân]

APPENDIX M:

More operational definitions

Analogy: Sometimes new complex words are derived without an existing word-formation rule, but formed on the basis of a single (or very few) model words. For example, ear witness ‘someone who has heard a crime being committed’ was coined on the basis of eyewitness, cheeseburger on the basis of hamburger, and air-sick on the basis of sea-sick. The process by which these words came into being is called analogy (Plag, 2002).

Endophoric word-formation: It is a process in which lexical items are made by individuals as an immediate necessity. In essence, endophoric word-formation can undoubtedly enrich a language like Persian and prepare it for future needs. Additionally, since endophoric word-formation is not dealt with exclusively by experts, the potential products can be used by more people in the speech community (Haghshenas, 2000). Persian examples include *sâze* ‘structure’, *tak-vâž* ‘morpheme’, *pirâpezeški* ‘paramedical’ and *gartebardâri* ‘calque’ (Haghshenas, 2000).

Exaphoric word-formation: It is a process in which borrowed words are replaced with newly made equivalents. For example, the Persian neologisms *dur-negâr* ‘fax’, *fanâvari* ‘technology’ and *razmâyeš* ‘manoeuvre’ are good examples in this respect; accordingly, the main reason behind the exophoric word-formation is to purify the Persian language from foreign words (Haghshenas, 2000, p. 492-93).

Markedness: It is an analytic principle in linguistics whereby pairs of linguistic features, seen as oppositions, are given different values of positive (**marked**) and neutral or negative (**unmarked**). In its most general sense, this distinction refers to the presence versus the absence of a particular linguistic feature (Crystal, 2003, p. 282). Examples include *?asb* ‘horse’ and *mâdiyân* ‘mare’ in Persian (Afrashi, 2000, p. 826), and *bitch* and *dog* in English for markedness and unmarkedness, respectively (Crystal, 1992, p. 245).

Mononymy: It is a condition in which one term only is assigned to a concept (Felber, 1985, p. 216) as opposed to polysemy in which identical terms are assigned to different concepts (Felber, 1985, p. 214). The term *flight*, for example, can mean: (i) the power of flying; (ii) an air journey; (iii) a series of steps; (iv) a digression; (iv) unit of the air force (Finch, 2000, p. 173).

Monosemy: It is a term which represents only one concept, as opposed to **polysemy** which refers to a lexical item with a range of different meanings (Crystal, 2003, p. 359). For example, the English word *plain* has three meanings: (a) clear, (b) unadorned and (c) obvious.

Partitive definition: It is a definition in which a concept is defined as a part of the particular whole or comprehensive concept. Partitive definitions are started with such phrases as ‘*a part of*’, ‘*a portion of*’, ‘*a period of*’, etc. and this is followed by a comprehensive concept and restricting characteristics (Felber, 1985, p. 152).

Superordinate: It is a term sometimes used in linguistics to refer to higher-order units, such as the more inclusive lexical item in hyponymy; for example, flower is the superordinate label for tulip, daffodil, etc. (Crystal, 2008, p. 465).

