

## EFFECT OF LISTENING STRATEGY USE ON EFL LISTENING ACHIEVEMENT OF CHINESE POSTGRADUATES—AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

**Shengli Wang**

*School of Foreign Languages, Shanghai University of Engineering Science, Shanghai, China*  
*wangvictoire@hotmail.com*

### ABSTRACT

*Listening comprehension is the base of communication of both the listener and speaker which concerns the knowledge inside and outside the listener's mind. Chinese postgraduates face a lot of challenges and experience a lot of frustrations in listening while learning English as a foreign language (EFL). In this study, 194 first-year postgraduate students at Shanghai University of Engineering Science were invited to report their EFL listening strategy use with the 5-Likert Indirect Foreign Language Listening Strategies Scale, and their listening achievements and their questionnaires were collected. The SPSS13.0 was used to analyze the descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, correlation analysis, Chi-square test and One-way ANOVA, which demonstrated the indirect listening strategy use of the postgraduates at SUES, which showed that the effect of indirect listening strategy use on students' listening achievement was great. The effect of metacognitive strategy use on listening achievement was great whereas that of social and affective strategy use on listening achievement was not as impressive. Thus, listening strategies should be taught in the classroom for the students to cope with the listening anxiety effectively with the focus on their affective state, which can make the listening class interesting and rewarding.*

**KEYWORDS:** Listening strategy use, listening achievement, effect, English teaching

### INTRODUCTION

Adults spend 40% to 50% of their communication time listening, 25% to 30% speaking, 11% to 16% reading, and 9% writing, according to Rivers (1981). For Chinese English as a foreign language (EFL) postgraduates, it is their earnest wish to listen effectively and successfully, for their primary purpose of learning English is to communicate with those who use it. And successful communication skills in academic or business areas or even in daily conversations are indispensable to them. However, Chinese postgraduates face a lot of challenges and experience a lot of frustrations in listening while learning EFL.

Listening has been given great attention to when the audiolingual method emerged and dominated the language teaching from 1950s to 1970s. After its decline, some instructors begin to focus on the psychological state of a learner; they emphasize the importance of the learner's autonomy in EFL learning. During this period, Total Physical Response Approach (TPR) came into being, which was developed by James Asher and enjoyed some popularity because of the support by those who emphasize the role of comprehensible input and reduction of stress as keys

to successful language acquisition. The concept of TPR is consistent with the recent change in the teaching methodology. The focus of EFL learning is shifted from the teacher to the learner. The learner's own characteristics, such as learning strategy used by the learner and affective state of the learner are paid more attention to than ever before. Research on the differences between effective learners and less effective learners is conducted, such as Vandergrift's research on successful and unsuccessful listeners in French in 1998. Therefore, to study the strategy use of the learners can help them to be more effective and successful in learning. It is also true to EFL listening comprehension. Through the study of the difference in EFL listening strategy use and listening achievement between the high, the intermediate, and the low, it will be easier for the researcher to explore the effect of EFL listening strategy use on listening achievement.

This is a case study at Shanghai University of Engineering Science (SUES) to explore the effect of EFL listening strategy use on listening achievement of Chinese postgraduate students of science and engineering in the EFL learning situation, and the difference in listening strategy use between the three groups of listening achievement: the high, the intermediate, and the low, which was designed to improve the teaching of listening and language learning, to help the instructors better understand the students' affective states and strategy competence, to offer some insights into the listening teaching and learning for teachers and students at other science and technology universities in China, and to produce some suggestions on how to employ strategies.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### *Research on Listening Strategies in EFL Learning*

"Listening was a process involving a continuum of active processes, which are under the control of the listener, and passive processes, which are not." (Rost, 2005) Listening comprehension is the base of communication of both the listener and speaker which concerns the knowledge inside and outside the listener's mind, and such a successful conversion must be confined to the contexts of listening.

As a disciplinary research of learning strategies, listening strategies draw a lot of interests of researchers. The researches on listening strategies mainly cover two aspects: research on listening comprehension strategy, which is theoretical, and research on listening comprehension strategy training, which is more practical (Huang, 1998). O' Malley et al (1989) list the listening strategies as follows: selective and self-monitoring in perceptual processing; grouping (listening for large chunks) and inferring from context in parsing; and elaboration from world knowledge, personal experiences, or self-questioning in utilization. They find that the task requirements and the strategy used can be seen to vary depending on the phase of listening process. Henner-Stanchina (1982) teaches techniques for listening comprehension to university-level ESL students (Cited from Oxford et al, 1989). Berne(2004) in her literature review of listening comprehension strategies lists the research as follows: research on types of cues used by listener done by Conrad (1981, 1985) and Harley (2000), research on the sequence of listening done by Martin (1982) and Young (1997); research on the difference between more- and less-proficient listeners done by De Philippic (1980), Murphy (1986, 1987), Fujita (1985), O'Malley et al (1989), Rost and Ross (1991), Moreira (1996), Chao (1997), and Vandergrift (1993, 1996, 1997b), research on

strategies versus tactics done by Gol (1998, 2002), research on identifying listening problems done by Vogely (1995), Gol (1997, 2000) and Hasan (2000), and research on listening strategy instruction done by Mendelsohn (1994, 1995), Vandergrift (1996, 1997a, 1999), Thompson and Rubin (1996), and Field (1998). Wen and Wang (2004) carry out a review of the empirical researches on the learning strategies in China during the past twenty years. In that paper they discuss many empirical researches on the learning strategies and the research on listening strategies is also one of the divisions of the strategies research. There are 7 researches on listening strategies listed in this study: four of them are on the correlation between the listening strategies and the listening testing marks; one on the effect of background knowledge on listening strategy use; and two on the effectiveness of the listening strategy training (Wang & Qi, 1992; Jiang, 1994; Zhou, 2000; Liu, 1996; Lu, 2001; Wang, 2002; and Su, 2003). Wen and Wang (2004) point out that research on the listening strategies is richer than other aspects of learning strategies. The result confirms that the listening is central to the EFL Learning. Most researchers in China (Yi, 2001; Yang, 2003; Su, 2003) focus on the training of listening strategies and the effectiveness of strategies; whereas researchers abroad such as O' Malley et al(1989), Laviosa (1991), Rost and Ross, (1991), DeFillipis (1980), Vandergrift (1992) and Bacon (1992) study a lot on the theoretical construction and the practice of listening strategies.

### ***Research on the Effect of Listening Strategy Use on EFL Listening Achievement***

“Learning strategies have learning facilitation as a goal and are intentional on the part of the learner.” (Weinstein and Mayer, 1986) The goal of strategy use is to “affect the learner’s motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge” (ibid). “Thus, strategies may have an affective or conceptual basis, and may influence the learning of simple tasks.” (O’Melly&Chamot, 2001). However, there is no specific study on the effect of strategy use on listening achievement in the western literature according to the researcher’s investigation although some research does touch the problem as a part of focus. Although they have given some explanations and examples, the two researchers have failed to explore the effect of listening achievement on listening strategies in depth. In our study, the use of metacognitive strategies and that of social-affective strategies both are adopted as factors which may have some positive effects on listening achievement of Chinese postgraduate students of science and engineering.

### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The present study focused on investigating the following research questions:

1. How frequently the Chinese postgraduate students of science and engineering use listening strategies in the language classroom?
2. How about the use of metacognitive strategies and that of social-affective strategies by the postgraduate students?
3. How about the effect of indirect listening strategy use on students' listening achievement?
4. What pedagogical implications can the teachers obtain from this research?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Indirect Foreign Language Listening Strategies Scale*

There are several versions of foreign language listening strategies scales. Su (2003) designs his strategies scale including before, during and after listening comprehension strategies, which focuses on listening strategy training. Vandergrift et al (2006) develop the metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire which is designed to “assess second language listener’s metacognitive awareness and perceived use of strategies while listening to oral texts.” Zhou (2003) comes up with her social and affective listening strategies scale on the basis of Oxford’s Strategy Inventory for Language Learning which is “the most powerful strategies scale” used in the research of language learning strategies and strategy training. According to Oxford (1990:135), indirect language learning strategies include metacognitive strategies and social-affective strategies. However, Oxford does not design a specific scale for listening strategies. For the sake of the research purpose, the Indirect Foreign Language Listening Strategies Scale (IFLLSS), which covers two main parts, metacognitive strategies and social-affective strategies, is an integration of the above Vandergrift et al’s and Zhou’s. The final version includes 44 items in which Items 5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 39, and 41 belong to the category of social-affective strategies and Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 12, 15, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40, and 42 to the category of metacognitive strategies. Items 15, 19, 25, 28, 30, and 40 are negatively worded. IFLLSS is a five point scale, which ranges from 1 (This statement is never or almost never true of me) to 5 (This statement is completely or almost completely true of me). The answer indicating highly frequent use of the strategy is 5, whereas the answer indicating lack of the strategy receives 1. Therefore, 1 to 5 stands for the frequency of indirect foreign language listening strategy use. The maximum range for the IFLLSS is 42 to 210, with lower scores indicating lower frequency of strategy use and higher scores indicating higher frequency.

### *Participants and Their Listening Achievement Groups*

The participants of this study were 194 first-year postgraduate students at SUES during the spring semester. The participants were from five classes. There were about 40 in each class and the gender ratio between male and female was about 3:1. All of them have learned English for at least 12 years before their postgraduate study (four years in the primary school, six years in the junior and senior high school, and at least two years in the undergraduate period). The participants were divided into three groups of the high, the intermediate, and the low on the basis of the National Postgraduate Entrance Examination (NPEE) score, the grade of the last semester’s final exam and two national College English Test Band Six (CET-6) listening tests which were used to check the participants’ English listening achievement. Of course, the first part of the questionnaire elicited the basic demographic information, including name and gender. The research purpose was explained and the privacy of the participants was ensured to be respected by the researcher.

### *Data Collection*

We first conducted the pilot study to measure the time required to do the questionnaires, to clarify the data collection procedures, to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaires and test the reliability and validity of the refined version of IFLLSS. The data of the final study

were collected at the end of the spring semester in 2015 at SUES. Some of the teachers of the same course helped the researcher finish the project. The instructions about how to fill in the questionnaires were explained carefully to them. First, the participants were told the purpose of the research. Second, the listening tests and instructions were broadcasted in class. The participants were informed to start with the CET-6 listening questions after putting down their names on the first page. They were also guaranteed that the results and personal information would not be publicized and had nothing to do with their final term scores. 30 minutes later the test papers were collected. After listening tests, questionnaires were given to each participant, and it took about 30 minutes to finish. Third, the data of each class were collected separately and given to the researcher. 194 copies of questionnaires and test papers were collected. 12 of them were not counted because they failed to follow the instructions.

### ***Data Analysis Procedure***

The quantitative analysis included descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, correlation analysis and One-way ANOVA which were provided by SPSS13.0. In order to summarize the participants' background information and responses to the questionnaires, descriptive statistics (mean, SD, maximum, minimum, frequency distribution of the variables) were computed for each item. The negative worded items were first recoded and the mean of the two CET-6 listening scores, the sum of indirect listening strategies scores, the sum of social-affective strategies scores, and the sum of metacognitive strategies scores for each participant were computed. The correlation of the three scores: the NPEE scores, the last semester scores, and the mean of the CET-6 listening comprehension and the effect of indirect listening strategies on listening achievement were tested by the correlation analysis. On the basis of the sum of indirect listening strategies scores, three groups were divided: the high, the intermediate and the low. According to Qin (2003)<sup>1</sup>, to divide the samples into high score and low score groups, the one quarter of the high scores should be selected as high score group and one quarter of the low scores as low score group. The valid participants were 182 and the range of strategy use scores was 118 to 184. Therefore, the score of the low level group of strategy use was below 130; the score of the group of high level strategy use was over 162. The rest was the intermediate level of strategy use group. Chi-square test was used to measure the linear association between the level of the indirect listening strategy use and the level of listening achievement. One-way ANOVA was adopted to test the null hypothesis that there was no significant difference in the listening anxiety level between the three groups of different strategy use levels.

## **RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS**

### ***Scale Analysis and Reliability of IFLLSS***

In our research, the IFLLSS was comprised of 44 items scored on a five-point scale with a theoretical range of 42 to 210. After the relatively few negatively worded items being recoded, a higher score indicates a higher level of strategy use or high frequency of strategy use and a lower score shows a lower level of strategy use or low frequency of strategy use. In this study, the total scores ranged from 118 to 184 with a mean of 151 and a standard deviation of 16.35. A mean scale score was also computed. On the basis of a 5-point format, the mean score was 4.9 indicating an intermediate level of strategy use. The two categories of IFLLSS:

metacognitive strategies and social-affective strategies received different scores. The metacognitive strategy use scores ranged from 84 to 135 with a mean of 109.50 and a standard deviation of 10.06. The mean scale score was 4.32, which was higher than the mean scale score of the overall strategy use. The social-affective strategy use scores ranged from 32 to 65 with a mean of 48.50 and a standard deviation of 7.16. The mean scale score was 3.47, which was lower than the mean scale score of the overall strategy use. The result showed the frequency of the strategy use was not very high, and it was especially true with the social and affective strategy use frequency.

As a result of SPSS analysis, Cronbach's alpha was .879 for the IFLSS and Cronbach's alpha of the two categories were .673 for the social and affective strategy use portion and .814 for the metacognitive strategy use portion. The results were acceptable because Cronbach's alpha of the overall scale was higher than .80 and that of the subcategories was higher than .60. Therefore, it was a scale with high reliability and the items in the scale were consistent.

### *Item Analysis of Metacognitive Strategy Use*

With regard to arranging and planning strategies, the means of Strategies 2, 3 and 4 except Strategy 1 were above 4.18, which, according to Oxford (1993), was a high level of strategy use. Before taking important tests, 67.9% of the participants reported that they usually or always listen to English a lot in order not to be afraid of listening tests. 81.8% reported pre-test exposure to the test item types usually or always helped them and none of the participants lacked this strategy. 81.7% admitted that they usually or always read the items before listening so as to predict what would be heard next. Extensive exposure to listening, pre-exposure to test items and pre-reading test items before listening were effective strategies which were used to arrange and plan listening. It was not unusual that most participants used these strategies frequently because firstly, that extensive exposure to listening before a test is generally helpful to most students; second, pre-exposure to test item types and pre-reading test items are the strategies taught and used frequently during the undergraduate period and certainly they will keep using these strategies.

With regard to arranging and planning strategies, the means of Strategies 7, 8, 22, 27, 28, 40 and 42 were below 3.7, with the minimum 2.82 and maximum 3.90, which somewhat showed a medium level of strategy use because means from 2.5 to 3.4 were regarded as the medium level. That is to say, these strategies are used sometimes but not frequently. With regard to Strategy 28, which is considered to be one of the weak strategies showed that these strategies were not recommended to be frequently used in listening since frequently using these strategies would impair listening and caused anxiety in listening; therefore, those who did not frequently use these strategies were more effective listeners. However, there were still 14.3% of the participants who usually or always translated word by word in listening. Translating word by word was not recommended in current listening stage, because translation would certainly cost time and exhaust the memory and it was likely to make the listener lag behind the listening task and felt at a loss and eventually caused unnecessary anxiety. With regard to Strategy 40, 25.4% of the participants usually or always did not have a practical plan to improve their listening and 36% of them only sometimes used this strategy. To strategy 42, the result was better with 61.8% of the participants reporting that they usually or always had an extra listening practice, yet about more than half of them only sometimes or rarely or even never have an extra listening practice. One

will never be a successful learner without a practical plan in learning and in listening for a learner is just like the one who does not know what should be done in advance. As an old saying goes, "Unless you prepare, you will not succeed." But there are often some students who are reluctant to make plans and some who do not know how to make plans. Since they have limited time for listening, the immediate result is failure in listening tasks and less improvement in listening achievement and as an indirect result they would suffer more anxiety in listening. As to Strategy 7, 45.8% of the participants had a vivid plan for how they were going to listen. Most participants preferred to listen without plans. As a result, they did not know how to listen. They often felt lost in listening task. Whether they did an intensive or extensive listening, whether the task required note taking or not, whether the task demanded an immediate response or whether the background knowledge was called for, these students tried desperately to keep pace with the speaker and caught every word the speaker said and eventually they lost the track of a message and ended in feeling so frustrated in the listening tasks. Strategy 8 and 27 are the strategies which concern about the schema in one's mind. How to form a schema and use it is very important to successful listening. Listeners "construct meaning during the comprehension process by segmenting and chunking input into ... meaningful units, actively matching the results, known as intake, with their existing linguistic and world knowledge, and filling the gaps with logical guesses" (Bowman, 1981). World knowledge is based on experiences which enables the listener to make inferences and form expectations and "is organized around scripts, also called frames or schemata, ... Scripts are helpful in understanding input relating to commonplace situations because they fill in missing information ... When applied to the process of comprehending a foreign language, the advantage of activating the learner's existing scripts in appropriate situations is obvious... Being able to instantiate an appropriate scripts can fit the bits and pieces that they have comprehended" (Long, 1989).

41.2% of the participants in this study reported they had never or usually had not thought of similar texts before listening and 25.4% of them only sometimes had done so. As they listened, 16.7% of the participants reported they had never or usually had not formed a picture in their minds to help them with comprehension and 23.2% of them only sometimes had done so. Most of them did not recognize the importance of the schemata in listening and it was perhaps because the teachers might have not taught it as a strategy; some of them might only use this strategy subconsciously. As for Strategy 22 which is about the practice after a listening task, 58.3% reported they would listen to the difficult parts again and again after class to understand it better. When the unclear bits were resolved, it was a progress in listening and those bits would be stored in long term memory due to the repetition of those segments.

With regard to attention controlling strategies, the means of Strategies 12, 23, 24, 26, 29, 34, 35, 36, 37 and 38 were higher than 3.5 but lower than 4.5, which showed that most of the participants often but did not always use these strategies. When they came across difficulties in listening, 74.6% of the participants reported that they skipped difficulties over and concentrated on what would follow and all of the participants used this strategy. 70.1% reported that they reminded themselves that they must concentrate on listening during listening. Over half focused harder on listening when they ran into problems in listening. When their minds wondered, 61.5% reported they could adjust their concentration. Strategy 29 is an alternate explanation of Strategy 26;

therefore, the picture was roughly the same as Strategy 26. Strategies 34, 35, 36, 37 and 38 were some practical strategies which could be used to direct attention in listening. Paying attention to the subject and verb, to the main idea, the first part of the sentence and the interrogative were the strategies which could direct listener's attention to the specific linguistic cues. These linguistic cues were critical to successful listening because as learners of foreign language, most of them could not catch every word of the speaker which was not necessary at this stage. Therefore, most of the participants reported they directed their attention to these linguistic cues and none of the participants ever used these strategies in listening.

Strategies 15, 25 and 30 were worded in the opposite way of attention controlling strategies. 20.4% of the participants felt worried when they could not catch some words. Most of the participants realized if they went on worrying, their attention would be distracted by their worries and more information could be missed. 21.1% reported that their minds often went blank while taking listening tests and 32.5% sometimes had this experience. Although listening tests are highly anxiety provoking and attention distracting, most of the test takers would not allow their attention wandering because failure in the test would definitely be dreadful to most of them. Therefore, attention is easily distracted by anxiety in listening tests but it is also easier to recover for most students in learning settings, like in listening class and interactive listening. Only 5.2% gave up and stopped listening when they had difficulty understanding what they had heard. The reason might be that most of them realized that perseverance in listening was very important to the improvement in listening achievement. Strategy 33 was the attention controlling strategy and was the only one which got below 3.5 points. 33.7% reported that they would worry sometimes if they could not catch every single detail and 21.3% always or usually worried. They might fear the missing information or details would destroy their listening comprehension severely. As a matter of fact, listening to every detail is impossible even to the native speakers. Unless they understand it and use it as a strategy can they survive the worry.

With regard to evaluation strategies in metacognitive strategies, the average of Strategy 21 was higher than 3.7, and 56.4% of the participants usually or always recalled the listening process to find their language problems and weakness; the means of Strategies 31 and 32 was below 3.5. 49.2% of them usually or always recalled on how they had done and what they might do differently next time and 36.7% of them periodically asked themselves if they were satisfied with their comprehension. To sum up, there were some who did not use the evaluation strategies frequently and some even had never used these strategies.

#### ***Item Analysis of Social-Affective Strategy Use***

With regard to social-affective strategies, Items 6, 9, 10, 11 and 13 aimed at testing the strategies of lowering your anxiety. According to Oxford (1990), a learner can lower his anxiety by using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation; using music; and using laughter. In this study, considering that the Chinese students would not like to show their feelings in the public, the strategy of using laughter was not included in this study. However, it was still not satisfying as to the result of the strategy use. Most averages of these strategies were below 3.5 and some even below 2.7, which showed a comparatively low level of strategy use. Most students, except

to Strategy 13, would not use these strategies to cope with listening anxiety. Other strategies were strange to most of them because these strategies had never been taught in listening classes.

As to the strategies of encouraging yourself, except Strategy 14 which was higher than 3.6, Strategy 5, 16, and 20 were lower than 3.5 but higher than 2.8. This showed a low-medium level of strategy use. 22% of the participants had never or usually had not encouraged themselves in listening by saying "I will do very well." 21.2% had never or usually had not encouraged themselves constantly in listening. After a good listening performance, 26% did not reward themselves either with words or with a treat. However, 73% reported that they usually or always told themselves it was fair to all students when the listening task was difficult. Competition is an indispensable part in the life so the postgraduates should have been taught to cope with the competition. Therefore, the postgraduates should be made aware that the others may experience the same feeling and encounter the same difficulty. That could be a way to lessen the pressure of competition and make them feel relaxed and perform better in listening.

As to the strategies of taking your emotional temperature, the mean of Strategy 17 was 3.47; the mean of Strategy 18 was 2.58, which showed a low level of strategy use. 46.4% of the participants had never or usually had not discussed with their friends about their emotional problems in listening to seek for help. As EFL postgraduates, the clash of cultures and the clash between the reality and expectation easily trigger anxiety and frustration. But most of them had not learned to cope with the internal problems with the external help from teachers and friends. It may be a wrong belief in their minds that revealing their weakness and problems to others would make them look delicate and vulnerable. Strategy 19 was negatively worded with 24.3% reporting that they had never or usually had not talked with their teachers about the listening problems and sought for their help and 41.1% usually or always talked with their teachers. As a matter of fact, the more you talk with your teacher, the more the teacher will understand you, and offer some suggestions to lessen your pressure so that you may feel better or more relaxed.

With regard to social strategies, there were three sets of strategies to be noted: asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others. In this scale only the strategy of asking questions was tested. Asking clarification or verification is very important in interactive listening. It may ensure the listener that they can get the correct information; it may also make the speaker to slow down or clarify what has been said. Lastly, it ensures the interaction goes swiftly and smoothly. Strategy 39 and 41 are two strategies of asking questions, for repetition and for slowdown in the speed of speaking. The mean of Strategy 39 was 3.95 and that of Strategy 41 was 3.87. 52.6% of the participants reported that they usually or always asked for repetition when they did not understand what the speaker had said and 42.1% reported that they usually or always asked the speaker to slow down when they could not follow. But there were still some who had never or had not often used this strategy. This might come from the wrong belief that it is impolite to ask for repetition or slowdown in a conversation. Or they are just too conscious and cautious to interrupt a speaker. As a result, they cannot keep up with the speaker's pace and thus they may "have more problems identifying key input and often just give up when the velocity of incoming speech is too rapid." (Long, 1989)

Generally speaking, the metacognitive strategy use of the participants was better than the social-affective strategy use, though each subcategory of metacognitive strategy use was not balanced. Moreover, most of the participants lacked some listening strategies.

### ***Results of the Relationship between Listening Strategy Use and Listening Achievement***

As a result of two-tailed correlation analyses, the CET-6 listening scores which represented the listening achievement was significantly and positively correlated with the NPEE scores indicating the overall English achievement of the postgraduates when entering this university and the last semester listening scores at the .00 level. This result meant the changing direction of the CET-6 listening mean scores was consistent with the changing directions of the NPEE scores and the last semester listening scores. That is to say, postgraduates who had higher scores in the NPEE and the semester listening tests usually scored high in the CET-6 listening tests. Therefore, the mean of the CET-6 listening scores could be accepted as a method to test the listening achievement of the participants, although it only represented the transactional listening and non-interactive listening achievement.

The indirect listening strategies, especially metacognitive strategies, were significantly and positively correlated with the mean of the CET-6 scores at the .00 level, which told if the level of strategy use went up, the mean of the CET-6 listening scores (namely listening achievement) went up; and vice versa. However, the effect of social and affective strategies and the mean of the CET-6 listening scores were not as impressive.

One-Way ANOVA indicated that the significance level was .008, far lower than .05, which told that the between group difference was significant. The significance of Homogeneity Variances test was .897, far higher than .05. This indicated the variances of the three level groups of strategy use were equal and “it fits the condition of one-way ANOVA, because homogeneity variances are the base of One-Way ANOVA” (Qin, 2003). We concluded from the Post Hoc tests that there was a significant difference at the .05 level between the three groups of indirect listening strategy use levels: the high, intermediate and low by a Scheffe test. The high level of indirect listening strategy use group’s listening anxiety was significantly different from the intermediate and low level groups, but the difference in the anxiety degree between the intermediate level group and the low level group was not significant. As a result of Means Plot, it gave us a clear picture that high level indirect listening strategy use group’s anxiety was significantly lower than the other groups and the low level use group’s anxiety degree was higher than the other two groups although it was a little bit higher than the intermediate level group.

### **CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

The quantitative research demonstrated the indirect listening strategy use of the first-year postgraduate students at SUES. The overall level of the indirect listening strategy use was an intermediate one, which means there was still plenty of room for improvement of indirect listening strategy use. Most students tended to use metacognitive strategies more frequently than social-affective ones and the overall average of attention controlling strategy use was the highest for the attention is the most important factor which influences listening. The integration of the

two categories of strategies for most students was not satisfactory in EFL listening and learning process. The reason might be that most participants were not aware of these strategies and lack systematic learning strategy training.

### ***Effect of Listening Strategy Use on Listening Achievement***

The result of analysis showed that the effect of indirect listening strategy use on students' listening achievement was great. The effect of metacognitive strategy use on listening achievement was great whereas that of social and affective strategy use on listening achievement was not as impressive. This result suggested that those who frequently use indirect listening strategies generally had high listening achievement while those who usually did not use strategies or lack some strategies enjoy low listening achievement. This is consistent with Moreira's (1996) study, in which he finds that the same strategies are reported by learners at the low, middle and high levels of listening achievement, as measured by scores on a recall task. However, those with high levels of listening achievement used strategies more frequently than learners at middle or low levels of listening achievement. Besides the frequency of indirect listening strategy use, the integration of strategy use was crucial to listening achievement. The use of social-affective strategies could not predict the listening achievement. The reason might be that these kinds of strategies were not familiar to most postgraduates. The effect of social-affective strategies on listening achievement was not as significant as the effect of metacognitive strategies on listening achievement. This result is consistent with the result of Li's (2002) empirical research on Chinese students' EFL learning strategy use, which shows that social and affective strategies are less frequently used than metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies in language learning process. Therefore, social and affective strategies should be taught in strategy training. However, the integration of metacognitive strategy use and social and affective strategy use can predict the achievement of a learner. From this aspect, indirect listening strategies indeed have a positive effect on students' listening performance or achievement. Researches so far, such as Wenden et al's (1987) research, and Chamot et al's (1989) research, seem to indicate that the integrated, explicit training of language learning strategies would be the most effective one. Oxbrow (1999) studied what kind of strategy was best in language learning, which dealt specifically in metacognitive and affective language learning strategies as they were applied to writing skills (Cited from Mele, 2001). The results indicated that explicit and integrated training in both metacognitive and affective language learning strategies supported the effectiveness of such strategy training and students demonstrated less anxiety with the formal writing procedures, as well as becoming more aware of their own strengths and weaknesses.

### ***Pedagogical Implications***

Pedagogical implications could be obtained from this research. First of all, teachers of EFL listening need to pay attention to the postgraduates' affective state in the classroom, especially the listening anxiety experienced in listening so as to help improve their listening achievement. Secondly, listening strategies should be taught for the students to cope with the listening anxiety effectively. Metacognitive strategies can be introduced to the students so that they can better plan and proceed with their listening task, to control their attention when feeling anxious in listening, such as directing attention and selecting attention since attention and short term memory have limited capacity, and to evaluate their performance objectively then they can have a more

practical and realistic expectation. Social-affective strategies should be emphasized as well because these strategies are quite effective in coping with listening anxiety. Listening diaries should be encouraged. Thus, students can put down their feelings they experience while listening as well as short term plans for extra-curriculum listening practice and long term plans for listening development. Cooperative activities can be included to encourage the students to learn to use social strategies. In listening classrooms, music, humorous stories and jokes, interesting narrative stories, deep breath training can be adopted as supplement to listening textbooks. Thirdly, instructors should get rid of the teaching model which is just to “play a record or cassette without giving any suggestions” as Wang (2005) says. Teachers should try to make their listening class interesting and rewarding so that students will not feel bored or tired about listening. Fourthly, teachers can carry out the strategy training according to learners’ listening achievement and listening anxiety degree. To those highly anxious students with low listening achievement, the mastery of a variety of strategies and frequently use these strategies to handle anxiety is helpful in listening. To those less anxious students with high listening achievement, using more strategies, integrating different strategies and raising the strategies awareness is helpful for them to make greater achievements.

### **Limitations**

There are some limitations in our research. We didn’t do the test-retest, so the test-retest reliability could not be guaranteed. The participants’ listening achievement was partly tested, so the reliability and validity are questionable. As for the effect of indirect listening strategies on listening achievement, more research needs to be carried out in the future research concerning the experiment of strategy training, the research on the indirect strategy use, the integration of instruments, the longitudinal study related to progress in EFL listening achievement and natural decrease of listening anxiety, and the interactive listening achievement test.

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## THE COMPARATIVE EFFECT OF PEER-ASSESSMENT AND SELF-ASSESSMENT ON IRANIAN EXTROVERT AND INTROVERT EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

**Hoda Mosavi**

*Islamic Azad University Rudehen University, Tehran, Iran*

**Amir Reza Nemat Tabriz, PhD**

*Islamic Azad University Rudehen University, Tehran, Iran*

*Email: arnemati@yahoo.com*

### ABSTRACT

*This study was an attempt to investigate the comparative impact of self-assessment and peer-assessment on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' vocabulary learning. For this purpose, 120 female EFL learners were selected from a group of 161 learners based on their performance on a sample NELSON in Pouyandegan Andisheh Saleh (GAP) Language Institute. Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) was administered to the participants to measure their degree of extroversion and introversion. They were randomly assigned into two experimental groups and a control group. Moreover, they were also given a Nelson vocabulary pretest to homogenize participants based on their vocabulary knowledge. The twelve sessions treatment which followed included teaching vocabulary using self-assessment in one experimental group and peer assessment in the other. The control group had their own traditional way of teaching without treatment. At the end of the treatment, a teacher-made vocabulary posttest was administered to three groups to see if there were any significance differences between three groups in terms of their achievement on the posttest. The analysis of the test scores using one way ANOVA and an independent samples t-test indicated self-assessment had significant positive effect on introvert learners' vocabulary development, and a significant positive effect on extrovert learners' vocabulary development. Moreover, peer-assessment had higher mean on the posttest of vocabulary than the control group and it can be concluded that peer-assessment had no significant effect on introvert learners' vocabulary development, but a significant positive effect on extrovert learners' vocabulary development.*

**KEYWORDS:** Extrovert, Introvert, Peer-Assessment, Self-Assessment, Vocabulary development

### INTRODUCTION

This was challenged by some researchers reporting that personality traits cause differences in what and how people learn (Mc Caulley & Natter, 1980). Similarly, Ackerman and Heggstad (1997) propose that personality dispositions are among the predictors of success in a particular

task. Among the studied personality types, the concepts of extroversion and introversion are perhaps the most popular ones (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996) both in theory and research. Recently, there have been some attempts to make a link between the two personality types and some skills and sub skills. Vocabulary learning is one of major concerns in language teaching and learning and occupies very important position in these areas. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that “the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, function, notions, or some other unit of planning and teaching but lexis, that is, word and word combination” (p. 132). Since 1980s, many eminent theorists and researchers have been the proponents of shifting from teaching to learning. In line with this reasoning, Huba and Freed (2000) defined assessment as the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and different sources are used to improve following learning in order to improve a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge by means of their educational experiences; the process when assessment results are used to improve subsequent learning. There are various ways to empower students including peer assessment, teacher-assessment, and self-assessment. Peer assessment, in which learners assess the work of their classmates, is a kind of learning that lets learners provide feedback on each other’s work. Moreover, Falchikov (2001) states that peer assessment is an assessment in which member of a class give feedback and grade the work or performance of their peers using relevant criteria. In self-assessment, marks may be awarded by students themselves. These assessments bring a closer relationship among teachers and students as well as help students develop useful skills in academic and professional areas.

Learning vocabulary is considered as a key factor in achieving a high level of proficiency in the target language (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). Nowadays researchers and teachers are paying attention to foreign language vocabulary acquisition. Having a large number of vocabularies is the indicator of communicative competence and it is one of the important aspects of language learning (McCrostie, 2007). Within the last few decades in this regard, the adoption of different ways of assessment in foreign language education has become of crucial importance. In recent years, as Farhady (2006) claims “assessment has perceived a paradigm shift from a discrete-point component-based perspective to a task-based, performance-oriented approach” (P. 28). Peer and self-assessment along with dynamic assessment have proved themselves as useful and mediating tools for teaching and learning in different skills and sub-skills including writing (Seyed Erfani & Agha Ebrahimiyan, 2013), speaking (Hill & Sabet, 2009), reading (Guterman, 2002), grammar (Kovacic, Bupas, & Coric, 2012), and vocabulary (Saeidi & Hosseinpour, 2013). However, the previous studies have not provided conclusive results and techniques for the integration of dynamic assessment in vocabulary learning. Moreover, although self-assessment and peer-assessment have been widely researched in the fields of psychology and education, vocabulary learning was not considered in these studies and personality types such as the concepts of extroversion and introversion (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996) both in theory and research were ignored. Therefore, this study is an attempt to investigate the effect of peer, and self-assessment on English language vocabulary development among Iranian EFL learners with two different personality types within the body of dynamic assessment.

## REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

### *Vocabulary*

According to Manser (1995) “vocabulary is the total number of words in a language, all words known by a person or used in a particular book, subject, or a list of words with their meanings” (p. 461). In addition, Merriam-Webster Learner’s Dictionary (2003) illustrates that vocabulary means the words that make up a language. Moreover, the term vocabulary refers to “a list or set of words for a particular language or a list or set of words that individual speakers of a language might use” (Hatch & Brown, 1995). In importance of vocabulary, Wilkins (1972) argued that “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p. 111).

### *Introvert Learners versus Extrovert Learners*

Many second language teachers believe that an outgoing learner is more likely to be successful as a second language learner than his less gregarious counterpart. Language teachers condemn that the extroverts will create more situations for themselves to engage in conversation in the target language (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Therefore, these opportunities to speak a new language will positively affect the development of the student's proficiency in it. Wilson, Fornasier, and White (2010) regarding the difference between introvert and extrovert language learners notify that extroverts are those who are oriented primarily towards the outer world. They are also sociable and impulsive learners who wish to share information as well as interact with others. In contrast, introverts are those who are oriented towards the inner world. Given that they are less sociable but more reserved, and tend to withdraw into themselves (Goby, 2006). However, they used to focus their energy on concepts, ideas, as well as internal experiences (Weibel, Wissmath, & Groner, 2010).

### *Dynamic Assessment*

Dynamic assessment has been developed as an alternative to ‘static’ types of assessment, namely, standardized tests. According to Haywood (1992) dynamic assessment is a subset of the more generic concept of interactive assessment. He further suggested that “It might be useful to characterize as interactive any approach to psychological or psycho-educational assessment in which the examiner is inserted into an active relationship with a subject and does more than give instructions, pose questions, and record responses. ‘Dynamic’ should probably be reserved for those approaches in which the interaction is richer, in which there is actual teaching (not of answers but of cognitive tools), within the interaction and in which there is conscious, purposeful, and deliberate effort to produce change in the subject” (Haywood, 1992, p. 233). Haywood and Tzuriel (2002) defined dynamic assessment as a “subset of interactive assessment that includes deliberate and planned mediational teaching and the assessment of the effects of that teaching on subsequent performance. The term dynamic assessment refers to an assessment of thinking, perception, learning, and problem solving by an active teaching process aimed at modifying cognitive functioning. Dynamic assessment differs from conventional static tests in regard to its goals, processes, instruments, test situation, and interpretation of results” (p. 40).

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following research questions are formulated:

- Q1. Does self-assessment have any effect on vocabulary development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?
- Q2: Does self-assessment have any effect on vocabulary development of Iranian intermediate EFL introvert learners?
- Q3. Does self-assessment have any effect on vocabulary development of Iranian intermediate EFL extrovert learners?
- Q4. In case of any effect of self-assessment, which of the introvert or extrovert learners benefit more?
- Q5. Does peer-assessment have any effect on vocabulary development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?
- Q6. Does peer-assessment have any effect on vocabulary development of Iranian intermediate EFL introvert learners?
- Q7. Does peer-assessment have any effect on vocabulary development of Iranian intermediate EFL extrovert learners?
- Q8. In case of any effect of peer-assessment, which of the introvert or extrovert learners benefit more?
- Q9. If the answers to research questions one and five are yes, does peer-assessment have more effect than self-assessment on vocabulary development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

The participants of the present study were 120 female intermediate English language learners, selected out of initial 161 participants as the result of homogenizing test, at Pouyandegan Andisheh Saleh (GAP) Language Institute. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 22. Following the administration of a Nelson test to 161 intermediate learners, 120 ones whose scores fell 1SD below and above the mean were selected. Eysenck's (1999) Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) was administered to the participants to measure their degree of extroversion and introversion.

### *Instruments*

The following instruments were used in this study:

#### *Test of Homogeneity (NELSON)*

In order to be assured of the homogeneity of the control and experimental groups in terms of English language proficiency, and being sure that they were at intermediate level, a test of NELSON, series 300B, was administered before the pretest. It consisted of four parts: cloze tests, structure, vocabulary, and pronunciation. All parts were in the form of Multiple-Choice questions. There were, in all, 50 items and the time allotted was 45minutes.

### *The Nelson Vocabulary Pretest*

To measure the knowledge of the participants in vocabulary, and to prove that they are homogeneous in terms of vocabulary, the participants in all the groups were asked to have the 30 multiple choice Nelson vocabulary test prior to treatment as a pretest.

### *Eysenck's (1999) Personality Questionnaire (EPQ)*

EPQ is used to measure the extroversion and introversion degree of the subjects. This questionnaire contains 57 questions regarding the way someone behaves, feels, and acts. After each question is a space for answering YES or NO. Participants tried to decide whether YES or NO represents usual way of acting or feeling. Also, those who fill out the EPQ received three kinds of scores: E, N, and Lie. The scores show the degree of extroversion, neuroticism, and social desirability of a given person. E and N scores were computed out of 24 each because each consists of 24 items and the lie score is calculated out of 9. It took only few moments to fill out the questionnaire and researcher used the Persian version provided and validated by Noor institute of Behavioral Science Research in Tallish, Iran (as mentioned in Haradasht & Baradaran, 2012)

### *Posttest of Vocabulary*

The participants in all the groups were asked to have the same 50 multiple choice teacher- made vocabulary test as a posttest in order to assess their development after treatment. It is worth mentioning that this test was piloted before treatment.

### *Procedure*

161 participants out of 250 female intermediate students at Pouyandegan Andisheh Saleh whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean were identified and given the Eysenck's (1999) Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) in order to measure their degree of extroversion and introversion. From among the 161 students who attended the Eysenck Personality Inventory, 120 were chosen based on their scores which were calculated by the test key. Then in order to make sure that there was no significant difference between these groups regarding this variable at the outset before the treatment, their performance on the vocabulary Nelson test was compared. After making sure that there was no significant difference between the three groups' performance on vocabulary section of Nelson test, the treatment was started.

Before focusing on what was presented in the classroom, a brief review of the dynamic assessment model (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005) which was followed in the study seems necessary. The participants were given the required instructions to work with the checklist they received as the means of assessment. Most growth in vocabulary knowledge must necessarily come through reading. At the outset of the each session, the students were asked to pose question whenever they encounter any problem with vocabularies in reading texts. In the self-assessment group, while each participant was performing a reading task, the teacher used to take notes and write down that participant's errors in vocabulary learning. After finishing of the task, the teacher was giving her notes to the participant and asked her to find the correct meaning of the mentioned words and learn their correct form. In the following session each participant had to make a sentence, but with the correct meaning of words. To foster the self-assessment process, the

teacher started to act as a participant who was assigned to assess themselves. She showed how the required errors must be checked to provide feedback. However, in peer assessment group, the peer provided feedback if there were some mistakes and they acted as a mediator while in the self-assessment group, the students practiced self-assessment and were asked to assess themselves at the end of each session of the classroom. The peer assessment group worked in a team frame which included two participants and they corrected each other's error in word meanings. In this group, while one of the pairs was performing the reading task, the other pair had to take notes and find her friend's errors in word meanings. She was also responsible for finding of the correct meaning of the mentioned words and sharing them with her pair. At the end of the term, after giving treatment to the experimental groups, all learners in control and the two experimental groups took the post-test of vocabulary test to test the research hypotheses.

### Research Design and Statistical Analysis

This study is a quasi- experimental one, accordingly, the study involved two independent variables and one dependent variable. The independent variables were peer, and self-assessments and the dependent variable was vocabulary learning. Extrovert and introvert personality types were two moderator variables of this study. After collecting the data, some descriptive and inferential data analysis procedures was carried out in order to analyze the data including the descriptive statistical analysis of vocabulary tests and estimating reliability through Cronbach's Alpha method before and after removing the malfunctioning items. Finally, comprehensive comparison of the means of three groups through one way ANOVA was calculated to test the null hypotheses of the study. Moreover, an independent sample *t*-test was run to probe any significant difference between the effect of self-assessment and peer-assessment on EFL learners' vocabulary development.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first step to reach a homogenous sample was to administer a proficiency test. The researcher used Nelson test to this end. The test contains 50 multiple-choice questions. On the whole, 250 students participated in the test administration. After the administration of the test, descriptive statistics were conducted just as was done in the piloting phase. Table 1 shows these statistics with the mean of 33.21 and the standard deviation of 4.74.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Nelson Test Administration

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Nelson	250	20.00	45.00	33.2160	4.74081	-.277	.154
Valid N (listwise)	250						

The next step was to identify extrovert and introvert participants from among the 161 homogenous participants. To do so, the participants were asked to fill in the Persian translation of Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI). In order to make sure that the participants were homogeneous in terms of their vocabulary knowledge at the outset a sample vocabulary test of Nelson was used. The results obtained from the Nelson vocabulary test were used to make sure that the students did not manifested significant difference in terms of their vocabulary

knowledge. Table 2 shows descriptive statistics of each group's performance on vocabulary knowledge test.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Groups' Vocabulary Knowledge at the Outset

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Introverts	40	13.8250	1.98569	.31396	13.1899	14.4601	11.00	18.00
Extroverts	40	13.8500	1.92886	.30498	13.2331	14.4669	11.00	17.00
Control	40	13.7250	1.98698	.31417	13.0895	14.3605	10.00	17.00
Total	120	13.8000	1.95151	.17815	13.4472	14.1528	10.00	18.00

As it is evident from table 4.3, the mean of three groups were almost the same. In order to make sure that there was no significant difference between the means, a one-way ANOVA procedure was used. Before running ANOVA, assumption of homogeneity of variance needed to be checked. Table 3 Shows the results of Levene's test of homogeneity of variance.

Table 3: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variance on the Scores of the Groups' Vocabulary Knowledge at the Outset

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.098	2	117	.906

As evident from table 3, ( $F_{(2,117)} = .098, p = .906 > .05$ ) the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met, running ANOVA was legitimized. Table 4 shows the results of ANOVA.

Table 4: ANOVA; the Scores of the Groups' Vocabulary Knowledge at the Outset  
Vocabulary Knowledge Pretest

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.350	2	.175	.045	.956
Within Groups	452.850	117	3.871		
Total	453.200	119			

As it is evident from Table 4 ( $F_{(2,117)} = .045, p = .8956 > .05$ ), there was no significant difference between the three groups' performance on vocabulary knowledge test, indicating that the participants of groups had no significant difference in terms of their vocabulary knowledge at the outset. After the treatment was done, the pre-piloted vocabulary test was administered to the participants of the four experimental groups and the control group. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics of the results obtained by each group in the posttest.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Vocabulary Test Administration

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Peer-Assessment Extroverts	20	28.00	47.00	37.3000	5.50693	.257	.512
Peer-Assessment Introverts	20	28.00	41.00	34.3500	3.70313	-.170	.512
Peer-Assessment posttest	40	28.00	47.00	35.8250	4.86688	.465	.374
Self-Assessment Extroverts	20	30.00	44.00	35.7500	4.17858	.378	.512
Self-Assessment Introverts	20	29.00	48.00	38.5500	6.23635	.026	.512
Self-Assessment posttest	40	29.00	48.00	37.1500	5.42808	.387	.374
Control Group Extroverts	20	27.00	37.00	32.1500	2.73909	-.021	.512
Control Group Introverts	20	29.00	39.00	33.1000	2.91818	.272	.512
Control Group Posttest	40	27.00	39.00	32.6250	2.83465	.161	.374
Valid N (listwise)	20						

The skewness ratio (skewness/std. error) of all the scores was fallen between plus minus 1.96; thus all data enjoyed normalcy of distribution.

For analyzing the first research question, an independent *t*-test was run to probe the significant effect of self-assessment on EFL learners' vocabulary development. Based on the results displayed in Table 6, it can be claimed that the self-assessment ( $M = 37.15$ ,  $SD = 5.42$ ) had a slightly higher mean on the posttest of vocabulary than the control group ( $M = 32.625$ ,  $SD = 2.83$ ).

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics; Posttest of Vocabulary by Self-Assessment

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vocabulary Posttest self-assessment	40	37.1500	5.42808	.85826
control	40	32.6250	2.83465	.44820

The results of the independent *t*-test ( $t(58.79) = 4.673$ ,  $p = .00$ ). Table 6 indicate that there was a significant difference between those who received self-assessment as their treatment and those who didn't. In other words, it was shown that self-assessment has significant effect on EFL learners' vocabulary development; thus the first null hypothesis was **rejected**.

Table 7: Independent Samples Test, Posttest of Vocabulary by Self-Assessment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Vocabulary Posttest	Equal variances assumed	23.475	.000	4.673	78	.000	4.52500	.96824	2.59739	6.45261
	Equal variances not assumed			4.673	58.799	.000	4.52500	.96824	2.58742	6.46258

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met (Levene's  $F = 23.475$ ,  $p = .00$ ). That is why the second row of Table 4.7, i.e. "Equal variances not assumed" was reported. For analyzing the second, third, and fourth research questions, a one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) was run to compare the effect of self-assessment on EFL learners' means on the posttest of vocabulary. Before discussing the results it should be mentioned that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated (Levene's  $F(3, 76) = 12.621$ ,  $p = .00$ ) as reported in Table 8.

Table 8: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances by Self-Assessment

Self-Assessment			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
12.621	3	76	.000

As the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, robust tests of equality of means, namely Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests, were run to determine if there is any significant difference between the vocabulary knowledge of experimental and control groups (Table 9).

Table 9: Robust Tests of Equality of Means by Self-Assessment

	Statistic <sup>a</sup>	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	7.776	3	40.970	.000
Brown-Forsythe	9.155	3	51.130	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

As it is displayed in Table 9, some differences were identifiable between the mean scores of the participants (Welch's  $F(3,40.97) = 7.776$ ,  $p = .000$ ). In order to see where the differences lies, a Dunnett T3 post hoc was run (Table 10).

Table 10: Multiple Comparisons; The effect of self-assessment

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
introvert experimental	extrovert experimental	2.80000	1.67858	.468	-1.8790	7.4790
	introvert control	5.45000*	1.53961	.009	1.0997	9.8003
	extrovert control	6.40000*	1.52307	.002	2.0861	10.7139
extrovert experimental	introvert experimental	-2.80000	1.67858	.468	-7.4790	1.8790
	introvert control	2.65000	1.13966	.142	-.5225	5.8225
	extrovert control	3.60000*	1.11721	.017	.4835	6.7165
introvert control	introvert experimental	-5.45000*	1.53961	.009	-9.8003	-1.0997
	extrovert experimental	-2.65000	1.13966	.142	-5.8225	.5225
	extrovert control	.95000	.89494	.866	-1.5268	3.4268
extrovert control	introvert experimental	-6.40000*	1.52307	.002	-10.7139	-2.0861
	extrovert experimental	-3.60000*	1.11721	.017	-6.7165	-.4835
	introvert control	-.95000	.89494	.866	-3.4268	1.5268

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Based on the results displayed in Table 4.13, it can be concluded that self-assessment had significant positive effect on introvert learners' vocabulary development ( $p = .009$ ); and a significant positive effect on extrovert learners' vocabulary development ( $p = .017$ ). Thus, both second and third null hypotheses were **rejected**. It can also be concluded that there was no significant difference between extrovert and introvert learners' performance on vocabulary development posttest ( $p = .486$ ), indicating that the fourth null hypothesis **was supported**.

For analyzing the fifth research question, an independent t-test was run to probe any significant effect of peer-assessment on EFL learners' vocabulary development. Based on the results displayed in Table 11, it can be claimed that the peer-assessment ( $M = 35.825$ ,  $SD = 4.867$ ) had higher mean on the posttest of vocabulary than the control group ( $M = 32.625$ ,  $SD = 2.83$ ).

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics; Posttest of Vocabulary by Peer-Assessment

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vocabulary Posttest peer-assessment	40	35.8250	4.86688	.76952
Control	40	32.6250	2.83465	.44820

The results of the independent  $t$ -test ( $t(62.729) = 3.593$ ,  $p = .001$ ) indicate that there was a significant difference between those who received peer-assessment as their treatment and those who didn't. In other words, it was shown that peer-assessment has significant effect on EFL learners' vocabulary development; thus the fifth null hypothesis was **rejected**.

Table 12: Independent Samples Test, Posttest of Vocabulary by Peer-Assessment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Vocabulary Posttest	Equal variances assumed	9.966	.002	3.593	78	.001	3.20000	.89053	1.42709	4.97291
	Equal variances not assumed			3.593	62.729	.001	3.20000	.89053	1.42027	4.97973

For analyzing the sixth, seventh and eighth research questions, a one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) was run to compare the effect of peer-assessment on EFL learners' means on the posttest of vocabulary. Before discussing the results it should be mentioned that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated (Levene's  $F(3, 76) = 4.928$ ,  $p = .004$ ) as reported in Table 13.

Table 13: Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances by Peer-Assessment

Peer-Assessment			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.928	3	76	.004

As the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, robust tests of equality of means, namely Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests were run to determine if there is any significant difference between the vocabulary knowledge of experimental and control groups .

Table 14: Robust Tests of Equality of Means by Peer-Assessment

	Statistic <sup>a</sup>	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	5.077	3	41.331	.004
Brown-Forsythe	6.679	3	55.422	.001

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

As it is displayed in Table 14, some differences were identifiable between the mean scores of the participants (Welch's  $F(3,41.331) = 5.077, p=.004$ ). In order to see where the differences lies, a Dunnett T3 post hoc was run.

Table 15: Multiple Comparisons; the Effect of Peer-Assessment

Dunnett T3

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
introvert experimental	extrovert experimental	-2.95000	1.48390	.278	-7.0858	1.1858
	introvert control	1.25000	1.05425	.798	-1.6753	4.1753
	extrovert control	2.20000	1.02995	.209	-.6623	5.0623
extrovert experimental	introvert experimental	2.95000	1.48390	.278	-1.1858	7.0858
	introvert control	4.20000*	1.39359	.031	.2814	8.1186
	extrovert control	5.15000*	1.37530	.005	1.2732	9.0268
introvert control	introvert experimental	-1.25000	1.05425	.798	-4.1753	1.6753
	extrovert experimental	-4.20000*	1.39359	.031	-8.1186	-.2814
	extrovert control	.95000	.89494	.866	-1.5268	3.4268
extrovert control	introvert experimental	-2.20000	1.02995	.209	-5.0623	.6623
	extrovert experimental	-5.15000*	1.37530	.005	-9.0268	-1.2732
	introvert control	-.95000	.89494	.866	-3.4268	1.5268

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Based on the results displayed in Table 15, it can be concluded that peer-assessment had no significant effect on introvert learners' vocabulary development ( $p = .798$ ); and a significant positive effect on extrovert learners vocabulary development ( $p = .005$ ). Thus, the sixth null hypothesis **supported** and the seventh null hypothesis was **rejected**. It can also be concluded that there was no significant difference between the performance of extrovert and introvert learners,

who received peer-assessment, on vocabulary development posttest ( $p = .278$ ), indicating that the eighth null hypothesis **was supported**.

For analyzing the ninth research question, an independent  $t$ -test was run to probe any significant difference between the effect of self-assessment and peer-assessment on EFL learners' vocabulary development. Based on the results displayed in Table 16, it can be claimed that the self-assessment group ( $M = 37.15$ ,  $SD = 5.428$ ) had a slightly higher mean on the posttest of vocabulary than the peer-assessment ( $M = 35.825$ ,  $SD = 4.867$ ).

Table 16: Descriptive Statistics; Posttest of Vocabulary by Types of Assessment

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vocabulary Posttest self-assessment	40	37.1500	5.42808	.85826
peer-assessment	40	35.8250	4.86688	.76952

The results of the independent  $t$ -test ( $t(78) = 1.149$ ,  $p = .254$ ) indicates that there was no significant difference between the effect of self-assessment and peer-assessment on subjects' performance on the posttest of vocabulary. Thus, the ninth null-hypothesis **was supported**.

Table 17: Independent Samples Test, Posttest of Vocabulary by Types of Assessment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Vocabulary Posttest	Equal variances assumed	1.532	.220	1.149	78	.254	1.32500	1.15272	-96989	3.6198
	Equal variances not assumed			1.149	77.089	.254	1.32500	1.15272	-97032	3.6203

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's  $F = 1.532$ ,  $p = .22$ ).

## CONCLUSION

The result of the present study which concluded that self-assessment had significant effect on EFL learners' vocabulary development, is also consistent with the findings of Abbasszadeh (2012) who found that self-assessment significantly improves speaking and writing performance. Moreover, the findings of this study which proved that self-assessment had significant effect on EFL learners' vocabulary development, is in agreement with the results reported by Baniabdelrahman (2010) in which he concluded that student self-assessment had positive effect on students' reading comprehension and he concluded that the self-assessment method was more effective than the traditional method of assessment in improving students' reading

comprehension and it had positive effects on their performance. In addition, this result is in line with the findings of Shahrakipour (2014) who found that self-assessment had a significant effect on EFL learners' reading. Furthermore, the results of study are in line with the finding of the study of Birjandi, and Siyyari (2010) who came to conclusion in their study that it is the equal positive effect of self-assessment and peer-assessment on improving the rating accuracy of the participants on writing performance and rating accuracy. Moreover, the results of study are in line Sadeghi and Khanahmadi (2011) assessed the effect of dynamic assessment on the development of Iranian EFL learners' grammar and the results of their study proved that dynamic assessment-oriented instruction significantly improved the learning of L2 grammar.

The findings of the present study can also have implications for theorist, teachers, learners, and syllabus designers. According to the findings of this study, using peer assessment is as effective as using self-assessment on vocabulary learning, which simply means teachers should try to make use of both these kinds of assessments so as to help the learners improve their ability to learn vocabulary as well as learning English. One of the fundamental elements of language learning is the opportunity given to learners to assess their own progress and thus help them to focus their own learning (Harris, 1997). It is widely accepted that self-assessment is a key learning strategy for autonomous language learning, enabling students to monitor their progress and relate learning to individual needs (Harris, 1997). The procedure of self-assessment involves students in judging their own learning achievements and process, which would help students actively, assess their own learning performance. Students should receive explanations about the benefits of using peer assessment and self-assessment to be encouraged to become good learners. This can be done and supported by referring to the results of research. Giving more explanations to the learners would make them have a better understanding of the procedures involved in these kinds of assessment. In addition, curriculum developers, by designing and including peer and self-assessment in English textbooks, can accelerate the process of language learning in vocabulary learning. Similarly, in English textbooks, materials developers can include some sections on how peer assessment operates and what its benefits are. In addition, the implication of the findings of this study for teacher educators and teacher trainers is to familiarize teachers with the issue of personality types of the learners and the fact that different personality types have different needs and thus different instructions.

### ***Limitations of the Study***

Since the participants of the study are female, the finding of this study may not be generalizable to male learners. Moreover, not every student could catch up with the tone of the class, even their unbalanced level of insight is also a contributing factor to deteriorate the performance of mediation learning of vocabulary. The other limitation contributed to this procedure is the level of learners where the researcher was bound to work just with the intermediates and it deprives the researcher from having the test generalized.

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## THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE AND CRITICAL THINKING

**Sahar Riahi**

*Department of English Language, University of Zanjan, Zanjan, Iran*

**Fariba Mobini**

*Department of English Language, University of Zanjan, Zanjan, Iran*

**Hesamodin Aliasin**

*Department of English Language, University of Zanjan, Zanjan, Iran*

### ABSTRACT

*Willingness to communicate in second language (L2) has become an essential concept in second language learning and communication due to the growing emphasis of modern language pedagogy on meaningful communication. The present study aims to investigate the relationship between willingness to communicate (WTC) and critical thinking (CT) of intermediate and advanced EFL learners. 246 intermediate and advanced English students were selected from four different universities in Zanjan, Iran. From the total participants, 109 were males and 137 were females. Three types of instrument were employed to collect the necessary data, a test on CT, a questionnaire on WTC, and a proficiency test for determining the proficiency level of students. The findings of the study indicated that there is no significant correlation between CT and WTC of intermediate students. However, a moderate positive correlation was found between CT and WTC of advanced students. Further interpretations of the results revealed that some other extraneous factors might directly or indirectly shed some light on WTC. The practitioners, active in increasing WTC, can benefit more from the current study.*

**KEYWORDS:** critical thinking, willingness to communicate, intermediate students, advanced students

### INTRODUCTION

The use of the target language is one of the dominant goals in learning a second language (L2) for many L2 learners, and it has mostly been assumed that successful L2 acquisition (SLA) occurs within a context of the use of target language. Researchers have identified that the application of the target language plays an important role in SLA (Seliger, 1977; Swain, 1998).

Long before the advent of communicative language teaching, the primary goal of language learning was to master the structure of the language and to develop linguistic competence. However, in recent years, the goal of teaching English has changed the way from the mastery of structure to the ability to use language for communicative purposes. Therefore, in recent decades, many attentions have been paid to the communication aspect of teaching English.

According to Swain (2000), language use and language learning co-occur, and it is the language use that mediates the language learning. Thus, it is crucial to determine the factors which both constrain and promote language learners' opportunities to use language to communicate and to acquire language through meaningful interaction and communication. According to MacIntyre and Charos (1996) communication is an important goal in itself which focuses on the authentic use of L2 as an essential part of L2 learning. This authentic use of language has led to a growing amount of research into the willingness to communicate (WTC) which is an important construct in the field of L2 learning.

On the other hand, thinking is a process that we use all the time to make sense of our lives and of the world we live in. Successful thinking makes it possible for us to solve the problems, to make intelligent decisions, and to achieve the goals that give our lives purpose. Thus, critical thinking (CT) is an activity that is crucial for acquiring qualitative education and being successful in developing L2. Lipman (2003) indicated that it was the responsibility of teachers to develop CT in their students other than pushing them from one educational level to the next. Brown (2004) proposed that the objectives of a curriculum in an ideal academic English program ought to go beyond linguistic factors and to develop the art of CT.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### *Willingness to communicate*

Studies of WTC in L1 have established investigation on WTC in L2. Moreover, most of the models of WTC that were applied to measure WTC in L1 are used in measuring WTC in L2 as well. However, there are some differences between WTC in L1 and L2. In L1, WTC was seen as trait variable which was heavily influenced by Socio-Educational model (Gardner, 1985). MacIntyre et al. (2001) defined WTC in L2 as "the intention to initiate communication, given a choice" (p. 375). The choice of speaking or not speaking occurs in specific moments in time and particular situations during communication in L2 among individuals from differing language groups.

Furthermore, the conditions in various contexts have different impact on the individuals' WTC. In the social context in which L2 communication is conducted, psychological (such as individuals' thoughts, feelings, and perspective toward related language) and sociopolitical process will effect on the creation of individuals' WTC. The social context has an essential role in WTC of L2 speakers, such as determining the locally spoken languages, individuals' orientation towards those languages, the demographic and power relationships among groups, and the ethno linguistic vitality of the L1 and L2 (Bourhis, el-Geledi & Sachdev, 2007; Allard & Landry, 1994). Moreover, the extension of WTC to situations of L2 communication indicates that WTC is not just limited to trait-like variable because the application of L2 potentially takes place in an environment with significant situational differences based on wide variations in competence and inter-group relations (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998).

According to Yashima, Nishide, and Shimizu (2004) WTC was a conceptual model in which L2 proficiency was not a goal to be achieved through L2 learning rather it was a means to gain

interpersonal/intercultural goals. Léger and Storch (2009) acknowledged that perceived communication and communicative anxiety was two early models of WTC. This model indicated high levels of perceived competence with low levels of anxiety resulted in higher WTC and a higher probability of communicative interactions in L2. On the other hand, many factors such as social and individual contexts, affective and cognitive factors, motivational propensities, situated antecedents, and behavioral intention were interrelated to influence WTC in L2 and in L2 use (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

Some researchers (e.g., McCroskey & Richmond, 1990) denoted that WTC depended on specific situations; therefore, in order to measure WTC both the personality variables as well as situational variables should be considered.

A recent study by L. McCroskey, Fayer, J. McCroskey, and Richmond (2007) investigated communication traits of learners in Spanish and English in Puerto Rico. It included a discussion about relationship between communication traits in Spanish and English as well as the differences and similarities of these traits in Spanish and English.

Furthermore, Zarrinabadi and Addi (2011) investigated on the relation of the Iranian EFL learners' WTC inside and outside the classroom and their language orientation. The result of their study indicated that language orientations correlated more closely with WTC outside rather than inside the classroom.

Many researchers who have worked on WTC made an attempt to identify effective factors on WTC. Among those researchers was Riasati (2012) who conducted a study on Iranian EFL learners' perception of factors that influenced their willingness to speak English in language classrooms. He found out that factors such as topic of discussion, interlocutor, teacher, class atmosphere, personality and self-perceived speaking ability effected on the WTC of the Iranian EFL learners.

In another study by House (2004), it was revealed that factors such as the role of physical locality, perceived politeness, presence of opposite sex, learners' mood, and topic of discussion influenced the WTC of learners in the environment of classroom.

Cao and Philp (2006) found out four major factors that had effect on WTC of the learners: self-confidence, group size, familiarity with interlocutors, and interlocutor participation in the conversation. In another study, Cao (2009) demonstrated that other factors such as topic, task type (pair, group and team work), interlocutor and teacher also had influence on learners' WTC in classrooms. Baker and MacIntyre (2000) explored the effect of the context on learners' WTC. His study revealed that the context of the study had impact on learners' WTC to a great deal. Along with MacIntyre et al. (1998), many L2 researchers, such as Wen and Clément (2003) have employed more situated variables.

### *Critical thinking*

Thinking plays a crucial role in human life. CT is one of the many ways of thinking. According to Paul and Elder (2008), the concept of CT has its root in Greek: "kriticos" which means

meticulous judgment and "kriterion" which means criteria. Therefore, etymologically, the word refers to the development of "meticulous judgment based on criteria". On the other hand, according to the Webster's New World Dictionary (2003) the concept of CT is defined as "careful analysis and judgment". It is also noted that "critical in its strictest sense implies an attempt at objective judgment so as to determine both merits and faults".

One of the central goals of education is learning to think. Dewey (1910) noted that habits of reflective thoughts were 'not a gift of nature' but could and should be 'cultivated' by education (Dewey, 1910). Dewey's (1910) concept of habits of reflective thoughts was closely related to current concepts of CT, which was defined as "purposeful, self-regulatory judgment, which result in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based". (Facione, 1990, p. 2). The CT of students should foster during education (Bok, 2006; Facione, 1990; Halpern, 1998; Siegel, 1989). However, the CT of the undergraduate students do not seem to improve during their college years (Arum & Roksa, 2011), and subsequently graduate with poor thinking skills (Flores, Matkin, Burbach, Quinn, & Harding, 2012). This is quite problematic, because the development of CT is closely related to being successful in the intricate 21st century world (Pellegrino & Hilton, 2012). CT enables learners to make sound, logical, and unbiased decisions (Facione, 1990; Paul, 1990), facilitates learning during life (Halpern, 1998), cultivates responsibility and competencies for good democratic citizenship (Nussbaum, 2006), and leads to better learning and transfer (e.g., Helsdingen, Van Gog, & Van Merriënboer, 2010).

However, despite the educators' attempts to foster CT skills in students, most of the higher education graduates demonstrate unsatisfactory improvement in CT. One of the reasons of this phenomenon is inexplicit teaching of CT (Davies, 2013; Paul, 2004). Research has demonstrated that CT skills would not develop as a by-product of education (e.g., Abrami et al., 2008; Arum & Roksa, 2011; Bangert-Drowns & Bankert, 1990; Marin & Halpern, 2011). However, it is still unclear how CT skills can be best taught (e.g., Niu, Behar-Horenstein, & Garvan, 2013). Furthermore, engaging in unbiased reasoning which is one the crucial aspect of CT has received little attention in educational research (West, Toplak, & Stanovich., 2008).

Various studies have demonstrated that CT can be affected by many factors. Moon (2008) investigated the effect of emotion, language, and curiosity on CT. She argued that CT might be affected by emotion which in turn can be affected by the way students work with the materials of learning. Furthermore, she pointed to the crucial role of curiosity in CT. As a matter of fact, curious individuals tried to ask more questions in order to find out about issues. They could not easily accept various ideas. On the other hand, King, Wood, and Mines (1990) demonstrated in their studies that gender was an essential factor in the rate of CT development. They argued that educational experiences led to high motivation in men to develop their CT. Also, educational level was another factor in increasing the CT ability.

According to the investigation of Keeley, Browne, and Kreutzer (1982), it was revealed that the level of college students impact on their CT ability. In another word, seniors performed better

than fresher in CT. Thus, studying in college was one way of developing CT. The other way to improve CT was the use of meta-cognitive strategies (Ku & Ho, 2010). It was claimed that meta-cognitive strategies assisted the individuals to have control on their behaviors involving CT. Planning, monitoring, and evaluating were three different categories of meta-cognitive strategies. It was also claimed that meta-cognitive skills had positive influence on CT (Magno, 2010).

Many investigations were carried out to discover the relationship between CT and different scope of language. For instance, Mirzai (2008) tried to find out the relationship between CT and lexical inferencing of Iranian EFL learners. The results of this study revealed that students with high CT ability outperformed the students with low CT ability in lexical inferencing.

Additionally, Kamali and Fahim (2011) studied about the relationship between CT ability, resilience, and reading comprehension of texts containing new words. It was concluded that different levels of CT ability impacted on the scores of the participants on the resilience scale and on the participants' comprehension of texts with new words significantly. It also revealed that the levels of resilience had great impact on the participants' comprehension of texts with new words. Also, Myers and Dyer (2006) conducted a study on the impact of learning style of students on CT. To this end, 135 students of agriculture and life sciences leadership courses were chosen from the University of Florida. The Gregorc Style Delineator as well as Cornell Critical Thinking test were administered to assess the preferred learning style of each student and to determine the CT of students respectively. No clear difference of CT was found between men and women. However, students with deeply embedded abstract sequential learning style preferences demonstrated significant high scores in CT. There was no difference in CT ability between students of other learning styles. To date, as of writing this article, no published work has addressed the correlation of WTC and CT.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1) Is there any significance relationship between CT and WTC of intermediate EFL learners?
- 2) Is there any significant relationship between CT and WTC of advanced EFL learners?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

In order to gather the required data and meet the goal of the present study, 246 EFL learners ranging in age from 18 to 30 were selected from among males and females studying English as a foreign language at different universities in Zanzan, Iran. These participants were selected through Nelson proficiency test. Concerning the obtained results from the proficiency test, they were divided in to two groups. 123 of the participants were intermediate and the other 123 of them were advanced students. The participants' mother tongues were Turkish and Persian language.

### ***Instruments***

In this study one questionnaire named willingness to communicate was applied which has 27 Likert Scale items. The participants express their belief about their desire to communicate through reading, speaking, and writing. They also indicate the degree of their comprehension. The Likert Scale items will use a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This questionnaire had an index reliability of Cronbach's Alpha = .79

Moreover, a test called California Critical Thinking Test (CCTST) is applied in order to measure the CT of the participants. This test is a standardized, norm-referenced test that assesses CT skills in authentic problem solving situations (Facione, 1998). The skills that are examined in this test are based on an interdisciplinary definition of CT by the Delphi research project (Facione, 1990). These skills are inferences, deduction, interpretation, evaluation of argument. The reliability of the test was established with a Kuder Richardson value of 0.75.

Moreover, Nelson Test is applied in order to estimate the language proficiency of the participants. This test includes 50 items which is a widely used standardized instrument. The language proficiency of the participants in vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension are examined through multiple choice questions which have four options each. The reliability of the test was established with a Kuder Richardson value of 0.79.

### ***Procedure***

A group of university students were selected by Nelson proficiency test in order to participate in the current study. Then, participants were asked to answer 27 items of MacIntyre's two parts WTC questionnaire carefully. The items were ranging from 1 to 5 (almost never willing- almost always willing). Participants indicated that how much they were willing to communicate in class tasks concerning all four language skills. At last, California Critical thinking test was conducted among participants in order to collect the required data on critical thinking.

Moreover, the participants were asked to fill out the questionnaires with great care. Before administering the questionnaires, the participants were provided with some general information about the aim and importance of the research. Additionally, the researcher provided the participants with descriptions about the unclear or difficult items in order to prevent the probable misunderstandings.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The present research had two main hypotheses:

H01. There is no significance relationship between CT and WTC among intermediate EFL learners.

H03. There is no significant relationship between CT and WTC among advanced EFL learners.

In order to confirm or reject each of these hypotheses, they are attempted separately.

### Testing the First Research Question

The first question of the current thesis tackle the issue that if there is any relationship between CT and WTC among intermediate EFL learners. In order to answer this question, the Pearson product-moment correlation is run to detect the kind and degree of the relationship between the CT and WTC among the intermediate students.

Table 1: Two-Tailed Pearson Correlation between Scores of WTC and CT

		Intermediate CT	Intermediate WTC
Intermediate CT	Pearson correlation	1	.052
	Sig.(2-tailed)		.789
	N	123	123
Intermediate WTC	Pearson correlation	.052	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.789	
	N	123	123

As the output illustrated, the significance was (0.789) which is more than (0.05) ( $p$  value  $> 0.05$ ). Therefore, there was no significant relationship between these two variables. In other words, there was no association between CT and WTC among intermediate participants. Accordingly, the first null hypothesis was confirmed.

### Testing the second Research Question

The second question is that if there is any significant relationship between CT and WTC among advanced EFL learners.

Table 2: Two-Tailed Pearson Correlation between Scores of WTC and CT

		Advanced CT	Advanced WTC
Advanced CT	Pearson Correlation	1	.403
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.033
	N	123	123
Advanced WTC	Pearson Correlation	.403	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.033	
	N	123	123

Table 2 illustrated that there was a moderate relationship between CT and WTC among advanced participants because the significant level was 0.033 which is less than 0.05 ( $p$  value  $< 0.05$ ). Moreover, as the correlation coefficient equaled to 0.403 ( $r=0.403$ ,  $n=123$ ,  $p=0.033$ ), there was a moderate positive correlation between CT and WTC advanced participants. Accordingly, the third null-hypothesis tackling the relationship between CT and WTC among the advanced participants was rejected.

## CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The main concern of the current study was to investigate the strength and direction of the relationship between CT and WTC among intermediate and advanced EFL learners. The outcomes indicated that there was no significant relationship between CT and WTC among intermediate EFL learners. Moreover, the results indicated that there was a moderate positive

relationship between CT and WTC in advanced group of participants. Using the results of this study, EFL teachers will be able to apply the capability of their learners in CT in order to increase the learners' WTC. Learners' WTC is an essential factor in initiating and maintaining communication. Additionally, in learning a foreign language, the need to increase WTC in learners becomes more apparent. Thus, CT can be employed as a tool to achieve this goal. However, teachers should be aware of the begging time of teaching CT. According to the findings of this study, it became clear that advanced learners employed their CT in a way that their WTC increased. Therefore, CT instruction in advanced level will enhance the capability of language learners in initiating communication.

Moreover, the findings of this study can be applied in designing curriculum, syllabus, and materials of education in a way that make them more effective. Also educational plans as well as teaching-learning activities can be altered to enhance their quality.

Also, the findings can be extended not only in oral communication but also in written form communication. Teachers can also increase the skills of the learners through communication. Teachers can make the language learners think critically about the sentences, grammars, vocabularies, spelling, and meanings while they tend to initiate a communication. When the learners feel that their face is secure during communication, they will more eager to initiate a communication. The finding of this study can be very motivated for those adult people who think that they cannot learn a language anymore or it is very difficult to learn a foreign language in their age. They can advantage CT in learning the rules and employ it in communication.

Finally, this study might yield a new insight about nature of CT as well as WTC for the researchers. Employing the results of this study and similar studies in this field, researchers can develop the body of knowledge in this domain and produce new ideas. In a nut shell, findings of this research can act as background information for those who desire to do innovative investigations in this realm.

Moereover, in most of survey studies, the participants of studies required sufficient time to respond the offered questions. Applying CCTST along with WTC questionnaire as data collection tools in this study forced the researcher to specify adequate time for the participants to answer the questions. However, it was quite a challenge for researchers to ask the professors of universities to give full-time of their classes to administer the tests and the questionnaire. Their professor did not accept to ignore a session of their classes because they claimed that they did not have enough time to cover the syllabuses. When the professors permitted the EFL learners to participate in the study, some of them gave back the questionnaire and test papers to the researcher immediately because they were not in mood of responding to them. Therefore, these questionnaires were put aside because they could not to be the representative of CT and WTC of the participants.

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## TEACHER'S CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY AND EFL LEARNERS' DISCOURSE COMPETENCE, ANY INTERACTION?

**Neda Rousta**

*Islamic Azad University, Kish International Branch*

**Farzaneh Haratyan**

*Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch  
haratyan@gmail.com*

**Zahra MofazaliFard**

<sup>3</sup>*Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch  
z.mofazali@gmail.com*

### ABSTRACT

*In the process of learning, one of the initial aims of education is to foster important skills such as critical thinking (CT) to achieve a reasonable understanding. Studies have shown that critical thinking ability is emphasized in English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' education. In doing so, the crux of the matter of this study was to explore interaction between teacher's critical thinking ability and EFL learners' discourse competence. For this purpose, two questionnaires for measuring teacher's critical thinking ability (CTQ) and discourse competence (DCQ) were respectively given to 30 EFL teachers and 120 learners. To fulfill the objective of the study, independent samples t-test and Spearman correlation co-efficient were applied to study any significant relationship between the variables. Results revealed that there was significant correlation between the ability of teacher's critical thinking and EFL learners' discourse competence. This study can be utilized with other language skills such as listening and writing proficiencies. The results and findings of this study could be beneficial for the teachers, learners, and material designers in EFL context and contribute to the wider range of studies in this realm.*

**KEYWORDS:** Critical Thinking, Discourse Competence, EFL Learners, Education, Teacher

### INTRODUCTION

People need to consider new ways of problems solving with the new methods of knowledge and technology, they need to connect the new knowledge to their background information, and apply their achieved information in new positions. In the world today, a critical thinker inquires relevant questions, collect data, and can reach to the proper results. Critical thinking plays an essential role in the construction of basic principles and concepts of learning. Education and learning have undergone dramatic changes for the plenty of information in the last decades.

As many have noted, critical thinking concepts are significant in the process of learning, whereby those concepts or principles are implemented effectively throughout the learning process. Some researchers have carried out some inquiries about critical thinking, and also how this ability in education has upgraded or even indicated its shortcomings. For example, Zivkovic (2016) expressed that, it is needed to prepare students to be creative, and to think critically and analytically in order to be able to solve real world problems.

Critical thinking has been couched in different terms in education. Terms are expressed by some important skills. These skills will help teachers to understand reliability and validity the sources of information. The central point of critical thinking is to focus on deciding what to do or what to believe in.

Some researchers have carried out some investigations in the field of critical thinking. For instance, Dewey (1910) quoted that “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conditions to which it tends” (p. 6). Critical thinking (CT) practice can result in productive, ethical, satisfying, successful, and fulfilling life (Ellis, 2003).

Huang et al. (Huang, Lindell, Jaffe, & Sullivan, 2016) defined it “as the ability to apply higher cognitive skills like analysis, synthesis, and reflection in deliberate or inadvertent actions”. John Dewey (1933) alluded to critical thinking as reflective thinking; and recommended that it would be one of the points of education. Moore (2004) stated that critical thinking is more than simply “a loose category in diverse modes of thought”.

Facione (2011) mentioned that critical thinking is one of the main objectives of the contemporary curricula. According to Cottrell (2011), Reasoning is the integral part of critical thinking process. He added that, people start reasoning which include: having reasons for what we believe and do, assessing our beliefs and actions critically and having ability to present the reasons of our beliefs and actions to others.

This multiplicity of meanings was thought to have important implications for university teaching and learning. In spite of various views, most scholars seemed to agree that critical thinking is about using thinking ability. It is also thought to embody the dispositions or formed habits. “Critical Thinking involves recognizing and researching assumption that undergird thoughts and actions” (S. D. Brookfield, 1991; p. 17). Paul (2012) defined that developing critical thinking ability is essential in all education setting. Therefore, critical thinking can be considered as an open-minded process of finding out, understanding and analysis of higher-orders thinking skills. Regarding the importance of critical thinking in the routine life of each person, it is needed to find whether there is any relationship between teacher’s critical thinking ability and EFL learners discourse competence which is regarded as a significant part of this study.

Communication depends on realizing the meaning of the words, but distinguishes what speakers mean. Discourse competence should be an aim for all those who want to teach English as a second language. Learners need to have the knowledge of invisible meaning. According to Yule

(2010), discourse competence is defined as “language beyond the sentence”. Discourse competence is one of the essential components of communicative competence, and it consists of conventional rules of language which are manifested in the production and interpretation of utterances.

In particular, it helps the speakers analyze the conditions that make the utterances acceptable in some situations. To arrive at the telling our messages, people rely on what they know about the form and structure of the language. Yet there are so many forms of how to communicate for EFL learners, these forms are based on the function of language rather than correct grammatical structure. Levinson (1983) said that discourse competence (DC) deals with the study of relationship holding between linguistic forms and the human beings who use these forms. All negotiation of speech acts is related to the context, whatever we have done or thought.

As it was mentioned above, discourse competence involves a science which considers between the utterance and the utterer. Thus, discourse competence is concerned with listener and speaker who attempt to convey their idea to one another. Therefore, it is assumed that communication can be successful between the speaker and the hearer.

The analysis of discourse competence can be based on communicative competence. H.G. Widdowson (1989) described communicative competence as the matter of adaptation and knowing formulaic languages refer to the rules which are regulative and integrated. It is a sort of tool to use for communication. By applying discourse competence, the learner will be able to communicate more fluently, and accurately.

### ***Significance of CT in Education***

Critical thinking remained exceptionally valued in all fields of study. Social orders for the most part, yet particularly those in the West, would like their instructive organizations to create people with critical thinking capacities. Most instructors saw critical thinking as an essential point of training. In higher education, teachers attempt to apply the new methods of teaching in the classroom. Currently, these methods refer to the use of different devices. According to Dewey (1910), learning should involve reflective thought. Reflective thought might be related to any human activity, behavior, and belief which arises from psychological areas.

Beliefs might be derived from some personal experience, and technical viewpoint, (p.6). Dewey (1910) mentioned that the element of reflective thinking as: “i) a state of perplexity, hesitation, doubt, ii) an act of search or investigation directed toward brings to light future facts which serve to corroborate or to nullify the suggested belief” (p.9). Instructive practices are tied to higher-order learning to become a critical thinker. Previous studies have identified control, critical, reflection, and responsibility as three important dimensions of self-direction, (S. Brookfield, 1985; Candy, 1991; Garrison, 1993; Mezirow, 1985). Dewey’s collaborative constructive approach to education and learning through reflective thought is discernible in his view that the individual and society cannot exist separately, that learning takes place in both our social, and personal world (Dewey, 1933).

Nonetheless, an examination of parts of critical thinking in language learning began sooner than that, in the late 1970s when the open methodology was acquainted with the field of English language teaching. Critical thinking in the ELT literature may have emerged, at any rate incompletely, from the way that there were presently extensive quantities of universal understudies examining in English talking nations. With more linguistic and rhetorical convention to consider, the utilization of EFL learner to convey can be extremely trying for students. English instructors frequently hear international students complained that they comprehended what to say yet can't place it into English. Although pupils may have a wide knowledge of vocabulary, and a vast amount of information in different fields, they might not be able to apply in a sentence. To discriminate critical thinking in EFL learner might oblige that one modifies one's methods for saying things. In short, it required both lexicon-syntactic skill and socio-psychological ability.

### ***CT in EFL***

Critical thinking has been couched in different field of education. However, it seems to be overwhelming consensus that critical thinking has a role to play. In particular, the function of language is seen to be more influential creating the conception of critical thinking. Thus, what critical thinking might be needed to develop the role of language is to determine discourse analysis as the subject matter. Devin et al. (Devin, Ghahramanlou, Fooladian, & Zohoorian, 2012) in their study titled as "Critical Thinking: Frameworks and Models for Teaching", made an effort to represent a comprehensive model of CT for educators drawn on the contemporary literature in order to indicate a uniform delineation of the construct and to offer a comprehensive model of CT for the intention of boosting learners' capability of CT possible.

Learners usually feel that classes are too separated from the real world. Therefore, the question of how to help learners acquire effectively the technical, and subject-specific knowledge of critical thinking again is remained. Birjandi and Rezaei (2010) expressed that "there is relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking ability and their Professional Success". Birjajandi and Rezaei (2010) aimed at substantiating the relationship between EFL teachers' critical thinking ability and their student-evaluated professional success. Teachers often perceived that critical thinking skills needed to be taught; however, research has shown that they may not know how to do this effectively. Therefore, critical thinking as an important part of education should be taken into consideration. Barnett (2015) argued that critical thinking is not just a way of thinking: it is a way of being and acting. Luke (2004) explained:

"we can think of the critical thinking, then, in at least two ways as an intellectual, deconstructive, textual, and cognitive analysis task and as a form of embodied political anger, alienation, and alterity". (p.26)

To answer the pertinent question about "how to teach these abilities to the learners?" significantly, critical thinking can be inculcated in the process of learning at any phases of education from primary school to the higher position. Gibbs (2013) reported that the most attempts to each learning skills out of context have met with very little success. Learning of content will happen when a learner fabricates in his/her mind the basic concepts, and then

attempts to use these concepts. Floyd (2011) examined how critical thinking in a second language can be affect performance specially in a critical thinking tests. Some researchers (Floyd, 2011; Lun, Fischer, & Ward, 2010; Paton 2005) claimed that some of the shortcomings in critical thinking ability manifested by international learners can be attributed to their having to us and EFL learners in which they may not be as proficient compared to their native counterparts. Besides, the core concepts critical thinking is fixed in the content of each theme.

Critical thinking belongs to the higher level of understanding. The most important part of education is “what needs to be taught, but first and foremost who should teach it”. Finally, when students receive knowledge based on the fact that they learn “how to think”, and “what to think”, they can apply these abilities to solve their problems. Therefore, all negotiation of speech acts relates to the context, which means, all speech acts should occur across a wide range of texts in different forms in order to communicate.

### *Teachers' CT*

Critical thinking skills, that is to say higher-order thinking skills applied for teaching students to make better logical decision, and so forth. Thought is intertwined with the domain of knowledge, and without background knowledge, people are not able to achieve their goals. Alhasan Allamnakhrah (2013) examined students' perception of learning critical thinking in secondary pre-service teacher education programs in Saudi Arabia. The initial aim was to compare the effects of problem-based learning and traditional teaching methods on the critical thinking dispositions and perceptions of problem-solving ability of pre-service teachers, when implemented in the process of teaching.

When the ability to think critically is an important purpose of education, teachers attempt to teach students to think critically by developing their curriculums. Nonetheless, these curriculums do encourage students better understand what can be thought. Unfortunately, people engage in this ability (CT) without any training. Willingham (2008) stated that the ability of critical thinking should be taught in the context of subject matter. The question is what kind of pedagogical can be effective to develop critical thinking ability? Teachers should acquire advanced subject-matters for teaching this ability, then they might help learners to identify the problem which may manifest in the process of education. Actually, critical thinking ability should take into account by the teachers to establish a link between students and their ability in the classroom. Finally, when students receive knowledge based on the fact that they learn “how to think”, and “what to think”, they can apply these abilities to solve their problems.

### **RESEARCH QUESTION**

In order to fulfill the purpose of this study the following research questions is proposed as is follows.

Is there any interaction between the teachers' critical thinking ability and EFL learners' discourse competence?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

In this research, to provide a reasonable and data-based answer to research questions, 30 EFL learners and 120 EFL learners studying at IAU, Kish and Tehran branches participated. All the participants would be homogenized by TOEFL. After administration of the TOEFL, those learners whose score fall within -1 SD and +1 SD of the mean score were selected as the main participants of the study.

### *Instrumentation*

For the purpose of this study and in order to investigate the hypotheses, one Oxford Placement Test (OPT), and one questionnaire for teacher's critical thinking ability was designed, and also one questionnaire for EFL learners discourse competence was implemented to determine the level of their proficiency. The instruments were explained as follow: Oxford placement test (OPT), Critical thinking questionnaire (CTQ), discourse competence test (DCT).

The oxford placement test (OPT) consisted of 60 multiple-choice items and quickly measured at the level of the student's general language ability so the researcher could place him or her into the appropriate level class for a language course. Oxford placement test (OPT) was given to 147 participants to select homogeneity upper intermediate ones.

The reliability index for the oxford placement test (OPT) was assessed in a pilot study with 30 upper intermediate EFL learners who shared the same features with the main sample of the current study and it turned out to be 0.91 using KR-21 method which is an acceptable value of reliability. In Table 1: the content validity of the oxford placement test (OPT) was accredited by three experienced EFL teachers.

*Table 1: Results of Reliability for OPT*

No. of items	Reliability Method	Reliability Index
60	KR-21	0.90

Besides, as represented in Table 1, the reliability of the critical thinking questionnaire (CTQ) was assessed 0.90 via KR-21 in the pilot phase of the study done on 30 upper intermediate EFL learners who shared the same characteristics with the main population of the study.

### *Teachers' critical thinking ability questionnaire*

The second instrument in this study was Peter Honey's (2005) critical thinking questionnaire. This instrument was applied to investigate the mentioned English teachers' critical thinking abilities (CTA). It contained 30 multiple choice items exploring what a person might or might not do when critically thinking about a subject. Critical thinking questionnaire includes 5-point continuum ranging from 1 'Never' to 5 'Always'.

Table 2: Results of Reliability for Critical Thinking Questionnaire

No. of items	Reliability Method	Reliability Index
30	Cronbach's Alpha	0.81

In addition, three experts in TEFL approved the face and content validity of the critical thinking questionnaire (CTQ). As appeared in Table 2, the Cronbach's Alpha reliability of the critical thinking questionnaire (CTQ) was assessed 0.81 in the pilot study.

### ***Discourse competence test (DCT)***

A multiple choice discourse completion test (DCT) developed by Birjandi and Rezaei (2010), measured learners' discourse competence and checked their use of speech acts. Twenty situations were explained and learners' use of speech acts and type of discourse reflect their discourse competence. Three knowledgeable EFL university teachers accepted the face and content validity of the discourse competence test (DCT).

Table 3: Results of Reliability for Discourse Competence Test

No. of items	Reliability Method	Reliability Index
20	Cronbach's Alpha	0.80

Table 3: This table indicates that the reliability index of the discourse competence test (DCT) was measured 0.80 in the pilot study conducted with 30 upper intermediate EFL learners who had almost the same characteristics with the main sample of this study.

### ***Design***

The design of this study was ex-pose facto a non-experimental research technique in which preexisting groups were compared on some dependent variable because there was no treatment and the main aim was to explore relationship between variables. It can masquerade as a genuine experiment. The assignment of participants to the levels of the independent variable was based on events that occurred in the past, this was where the name is derived from.

This non-experimental research was similar to many studies that illustrated descriptive research as an investigation attempts to describe accurately and truly of the phenomenon. In so doing, case studies are examples of descriptive research, and correlational research as a research which is examined the relationship between two variables. This study was run based on quantitative analysis. The responses of the questionnaires of critical thinking ability, discourse competence were analyzed by using the 20th version of SPSS and found out the answer of the research questions of the study. The three assumptions about interval scale, test performance, and normal distribution were checked (Mackey & Gass, 2015).

The first stage was concerned the selection of the participants. The researcher selected the teachers with high and low levels of critical thinking based on the critical thinking ability. Before administering the required instruments for this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study with 30 upper intermediate EFL learners who had similar characteristics with the main sample of the present study and the reliability indices were computed.

The first and foremost fact which should be observed, was the condition of homogeneity of the students participating in this study. The researcher decided to use the oxford placement test (OPT) and administrates it in all the classes considered for this study. Based on the result of the test, those students ( $N = 100$ ) whose score were one standard deviation plus and minus the mean score were chosen from among 147 learners for carrying out this research. The learners with the teachers of high critical thinking ability were considered in high critical thinking group and the learners with the teachers of low critical thinking ability were assigned in high critical thinking group.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After analysis of the data, these results were found: as figure 1 showed, in order to illustrate the results graphically, a box plot (Figure 1), was drawn. The box plot shows that the mean score for the high critical thinking group was largely greater than that of the low critical thinking group concerning discourse competence.

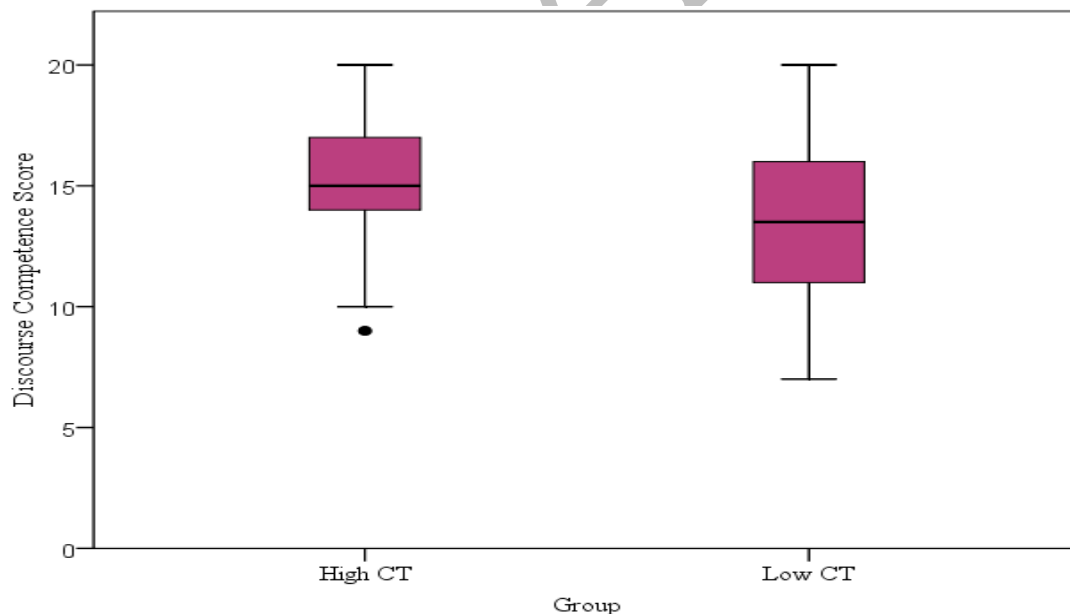


Figure 1: High & Low critical thinking groups' discourse competence scores

OPT was given to 147 participants to select homogeneity upper intermediate ones. The descriptive statistics, as manifested in Table 1, showed that the mean, median, and mode of the (OPT) scores were 43.37, 43, and 43 respectively. The central parameters were almost the same indicating that the scores

were normally dispersed around the mean. Based on the results of the oxford placement test (OPT), represented in Table 4, those 100 students whose scores were one standard deviation plus and minus the mean were chosen as homogeneous upper intermediate participants for the present study.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for OPT

N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Skewness Ratio	Kurtosis Ratio
147	43.37	43.00	43	4.108	.150	-.423

Based on the results of the oxford placement test (OPT), represented in Table 4, those 120 students whose scores were one standard deviation plus and minus the mean were chosen as homogeneous upper intermediate participants for the present study. Moreover, according to Table 4, the oxford placement test (OPT) scores have normal distribution because the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors are not beyond the ranges of +/- 1.96. The normal distributions of the oxford placement test (OPT) results were shown in Figure 2.

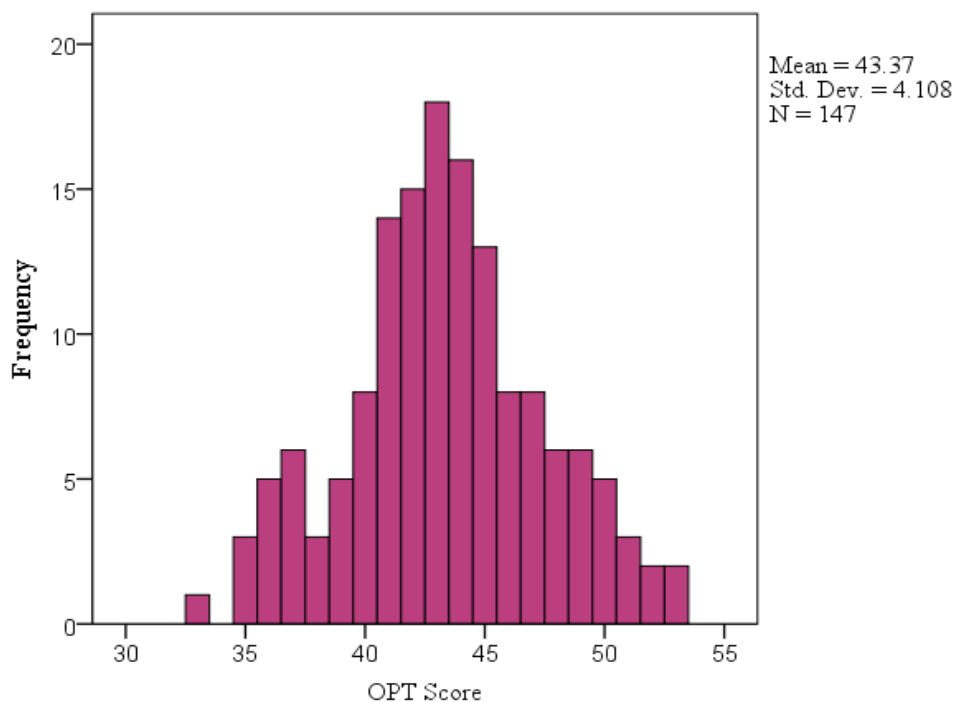


Figure 2: Distributions of (OPT) results

The purpose of this study was to find out whether there is an interaction between the teachers' critical thinking ability and EFL learners' discourse competence. With the intention of examining this research question, independent samples *t*-test and Spearman correlation

coefficient were applied. The related descriptive statistics in Table 5 were presented before explaining the results of independent *t*-test and Spearman correlation. Table 5, was a display of the mean, standard deviation, and number of students with teachers of high critical thinking (CT) ability ( $\bar{x} = 15.00$ ,  $SD = 2.87$ ,  $n = 50$ ) and low critical thinking ability ( $\bar{x} = 13.40$ ,  $SD = 3.34$ ,  $n = 50$ ) on the discourse competence test (DCT).

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for Discourse Competence of Learners' with Teachers' of High and Low Critical Thinking Ability (Scores out of 20)

Group	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
High CT	50	15.00	2.871	.406
Low CT	50	13.40	3.338	.472

Before applying parametric independent samples *t*-test, four assumptions (i.e., interval data, independence of subjects, normality and homogeneity of variances) should be observed (Field, 2009). Moreover, as Bachman (2005, p. 236) mentioned, the assumption of independence of subjects is met when "the performance of any given individual is independent of the performance of other individuals". Besides, the third assumption is about the normality of the data which was checked using one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 6).

Table 6: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality for Discourse Competence Scores in the Two Groups

Group	N	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Sig. (2-tailed)
High CT	50	.990	.281
Low CT	50	.607	.855

As it is observable in Table 6, the discourse competence scores for both high critical thinking group ( $p = .28$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and low critical thinking group ( $p = .85$ ,  $p > .05$ ) meet the normality assumption. Therefore, the researcher of the current study was justified to perform independent samples *t*-test, which is a parametric statistical test instead of Mann Whitney *U* test.

Independent *t*-test (Table 7), revealed a statistically significant difference ( $t(98) = 2.57$ ,  $p = .01$ ,  $p < .05$ ) in discourse competence measures for the high critical thinking group ( $\bar{x} = 15.00$ ) and low critical thinking group ( $\bar{x} = 13.40$ ), in which the *t*-observed (2.57) was more than the *t*-critical of 1.98. likewise, Spearman correlation (Table 7 below) detected a significant positive relationship ( $r(100) = .25$ ,  $n = 100$ ) between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking ability and learners' discourse competence at the significance level of  $.01 < .05$ , with high levels of teachers' critical thinking ability correlated with high levels of learners' discourse competence.

Table 7: Correlation between Teachers' Critical Thinking Ability and Learners' Discourse Competence

		Discourse Competence
Critical Thinking Group	Correlation Coefficient	.247*
Spearman's rho	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013
	<i>N</i>	100

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

As a result, the null hypothesis of the present study stated that “There is no significant relationship between teachers’ critical thinking ability and EFL learners’ discourse competence” was rejected and it was claimed that there was a significant positive relationship between teachers’ critical thinking ability and EFL learners’ discourse competence.

This study focused on the interaction of teachers’ critical thinking with some learners’ features. Critical thinking is one of the most important issues in language learning and teaching. Recently proper attention has been given to the ways that learners and teachers think and now teaching is more characterized as a thinking activity. This study made an effort to probe the interaction of teachers’ critical thinking with some characteristics in learners.

## CONCLUSION

This current study dealt with investigating the interaction of teachers’ critical thinking with some learners’ features. As it mentioned, the ability of thinking critically is one of the most important issues in the process of language learning and teaching. This study made an effort to probe the interaction of teachers’ critical thinking ability with in learners. The ability of critical thinking consists of some skills such as being able to having a focused view on the problems, identifying the assumptions which underlie the problem, giving some reason and judge the validity and reliability of assumption and source of information. It is the ability to apply higher cognitive skills like analysis, synthesis, and reflection in deliberate and in deliberate actions. As an active, purposeful, and organized efforts to make EFL learners’ sense of the world and clarify and improve understanding, it consisted of some important factors such as analysis, evaluation, inference, interpretation, explanation and self-regulation. This ability of critical thinking can combine different activities such as conversation, and has a role to play in the foreign language. Teachers should be aware of the participants’ individual differences learners’ diversity in their language. Findings proposed that activities such as pair work, project work, group problem solving, and linguistic intelligence through activities like note taking and debate can help learners process more efficiently the pragma-linguistic and sociolinguistic input from the implicit and explicit tasks presented in language classes.

The present study, like any other studies, suffers from some limitations and confronts some delimitation. Limitations are those conditions beyond the control of the researcher that may place restrictions on the conclusion of the study. Because the university is co-educational system, the learner's sex is not considered as a variable, so both males and females participate in the study. The researcher had to narrow down the scope of study to only one location (EFL teachers and learners at Kish Language Center). It can be added that there is not a complete control over the selection and manipulation of this study. Language institutes are usually the place where learners of different ages participate in classes, therefore, the age of the subjects ranged from 14 to 30. Another limitation was that all the participants are Iranian EFL teachers and students, so obtained results cannot be overgeneralized to all EFL contexts. Communication received an important role in this world. Teaching English language; as an international language, tends more toward communicative approach and scholars pay more attention to language use. Although, there was no treatment in the current study, effective factors in improving EFL learners' discourse competence, and learners can communicate more.

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## A TEACHERS' SURVEY ON LINGUISTIC SEXISM IN IRANIAN EFL SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

Shapour Vahdatinejad \*(PhD Candidate)

Department of English & Literature, College of Applied Sciences- Rustaq, Oman  
s\_vahdati@yahoo.com

Bahiyah Abdul Hamid (PhD)

School of Language Studies and Linguistics, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities  
University Kebangsaan Malaysia  
bahiyah@ukm.edu.my

### ABSTRACT

*The present study was an attempt to investigate the Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' opinion on linguistic sexism in Iranian EFL school textbooks. Therefore, in order to achieve these objectives, the number of 40 English language teachers from junior high and high schools in Tehran participated in this study. The data were gathered using a questionnaire which was previously piloted. Findings indicate that all of the teachers are aware of linguistic sexism in the current EFL school textbooks and also believe that the books do not represent both genders equally. The findings also show that the teachers detest linguistic sexism and would like to eradicate sexism from textbooks. In addition, they think textbooks need to be revised to represent both genders equally. According to the results of the current study, teachers are aware of what actually happens in the educational contexts. This awareness of reality in the textbooks makes them frame and reframe new attitudes towards teaching which needs to be publicly announced. The principle implications of the study are for the EFL policy makers and textbook writers in general and the realm of teacher education in particular.*

**KEYWORDS:** Linguistic Sexism, EFL Textbooks, Gender Equality

### INTRODUCTION

Textbooks and learning materials have the power to transmit knowledge, build skills, and shape the way learners interact with the world. From basic mathematics to physics, in classrooms, libraries and other learning centres around the world, textbooks and learning materials not only form an authoritative source of information, but also function as primary tools for shaping attitudes and behaviors. These attitudes and behaviors accompany the students throughout their lives and form their personality and stereotype character. "At any level, in every subject area, textbooks can be important vehicles for promoting human rights, including the principles and practices of non-violence, gender equity and non-distinguishing characters." (UNESCO 2005).

Sexism as defined by Holmes (1986: 336) is: "the ways in which language conveys negative attitudes to women". In this study, by sexism the researcher means: giving priority to one gender and making it the main focus. Despite efforts to eliminate all forms of discrimination, there are

occurrences of sexism, i.e., prejudice or discrimination based on gender (Bahiyah, 2002; Bahiyah, 2003) in school textbooks. Also, both genders are treated and represented unequally through language which can be termed “linguistic sexism” (Bahiyah, 2002; Bahiyah, 2003 as cited in Bahiyah et al. 2008). Linguistic sexism has been a prominent issue in gender studies because when “one gender is favored over the other makes the classroom context disharmonious” Recently, Iran has a high percentage of young generation compared to other countries, i.e. more than 60% of the population is below 30 years of age. Meanwhile, the number of females compared to males is increasing which necessitates gender studies. With the popularity of feminism and increasing public awareness of gender inequality in Iran, some scholars and intellectuals have started investigating the gender status. One of the main areas of gender studies is linguistic sexism in textbooks which has drawn the attention of a number of researchers in Iran. (Amerian, 1987; Feiz Mohammadpour, 1999; Kheibari, 1999; Shahedi, 2001; Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Yarmohammadi, 2002; Ansary, & Babaii, 2003; Amalsaleh, 2004; Razmjoo, 2007; Atashpanjeh & Keshavarz, 2009; Ghorbani, 2009; Bahman & Rahimi, 2010; Alemi & Jafari, 2012; Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012a; Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012b; Amini & Birjandi, 2012; Kazemi, Asadi Aidinlu, & Hasannejad, 2013; Tahriri & Moradpour, 2014; Hall, 2014; Vahdatinejad, 2016) All of the above mentioned studies have found the EFL school textbooks sexist which do not represent both genders equally. However, in the research area there has been no study to investigate the teachers’ opinion about existence or impacts of sexism in the textbooks on students.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As it was mentioned earlier, there has been no survey on teachers’ opinion regarding sexism in EFL textbooks. However, here are some of the studies confirming that linguistic sexism exists in the textbooks. Feiz Mohammadpour (1999) examined the old version of the Iranian English language school textbooks in sexism. She found the Iranian textbooks sexist and masculine. Her findings showed that in terms of occupation, men dominated 80% of the jobs compared to 20% for females. With regards to the adjectives men received 78% and women 22%, and for positive characteristics men received 93% and women 7%, number of use of men names to women names is 2.6 times more. Ansary and Babaii (2003) examined the manifestation of sexist attitudes and values in two textbooks (Right Path to English I & II) that are locally designed to cater for and respond to the English language needs of Iranian students at secondary schools. They found the books sexist which do not represent both genders fairly.

Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012a) examined Iranian EFL high school English textbooks, which are currently being taught in the Iran, to find out whether they are sexist or not. The linguistic analysis revealed that males had dominated the communicative positions of the clauses in the textbooks. Also the frequencies of males for different participant’s roles were more than that of females. Thirty males played the role of actors whereas only twenty females were in the position of actor throughout the text of these textbooks.

Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012b) examined four English textbooks currently taught in the Iranian high schools. They analyzed the content and then calculated the frequency of each category to

compare with one another. Also as a qualitative analysis, the inferences underlying messages of text based on the presence or absence of some evidence in the text were put forward. Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012b) qualitative analysis consisted of chi-square test indicated that there is a significant difference between the frequencies of male and female for different categories of their study. Women were less visible than males both in texts and pictures. Males work in more diverse occupational roles than females as represented by the textbooks. Women tend to be stereotyped in a limited series of roles: mothers, housewives, tailors and nurses.

Amini and Birjandi (2012) examined the extent and types of gender bias in two of the Iranian EFL textbooks at the high school level (grades II and III). The findings reinforce the assumption that women are underrepresented in terms of visibility in number in Iranian high school EFL textbooks in a way that does by no way reflect the reality. And in Book III, the ratio of appearance of females to males in both texts and illustrations was 3 to 13.

Hall (2014) investigated gender representation in current EFL junior school textbooks (Right Path to English I and II) that are designed locally and taught as an obligatory subject in Iranian secondary schools. The findings revealed the degree of imbalance in gender representation in these textbooks.

Vahdatinejad (2016) examined all junior high and high school EFL textbooks which are currently being taught in the Iranian public schools. His findings proved manifestation of sexism in all aspects (visibility, firstness, generic masculine constructions, sex-linked occupations and activities) mentioned in Bahiyah et al. (2008) and the textbooks do not represent the genders equally.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to achieve the objective of the study, the researchers have represented the following research questions:

- 1- Have the Iranian EFL teachers noticed linguistics sexism in the EFL textbooks?
- 2- Does linguistic sexism in the textbooks contexts have any effect on students' social life or their future?
- 3- Do the Iranian EFL teachers feel necessary to conduct research on gender equality?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants and Setting*

The sample population is an Iranian EFL school teachers. This sample consists of 40 school teachers who were teaching at public junior high or high schools in Iran at the time of survey. The sample population consists of 20 male and 20 female teachers for each cycle. 10 people (50%) were teaching at junior high school level and the other half (50%) were teaching at high school level. These teachers were selected as that teaching experience exceeded 5 years and had used the series of school textbooks under study.

### ***Instrument***

The survey questionnaire (Appendix A) was designed by the researcher, checked by a reviewer and then piloted. Further, there is more elaboration on testing the reliability and validity of the questionnaires and piloting procedure (Figure 1). The internal consistency reliability estimates of the test were checked by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient and it was found that the scale received the Cronbach's alpha of 0.8579.

The objective of the study is to identify teachers' perceptions toward linguistic sexism and sexism in the images of the EFL school textbooks which is being conducted in Iran for the first time. The survey questionnaire consists of 15 questions. In order to keep up with the uniformity, the researcher decided to use a printed form of questionnaire as one of the research tools to gather data. The questionnaire sought quantitative data. There are two sections in the used questionnaire: Section A: Personal Details, Section B: Survey on linguistic sexism in the EFL school textbooks. The first part (section A) of the questionnaire aimed to collect individual information like: gender, age; this is to find out whether age is a distinguishing factor for identifying sexism. In other words, sexism is a new issue which is mostly highlighted by the new generations or even the older teachers, who have been teaching the textbooks at school for a long time, have noticed the problem or not.

Question number 3 in section A asked whether the respondents have a computer at work or not and if yes it is connected to the Internet or not. In question number 4, participants were asked whether they have a personal computer/laptop at home or not and if yes, do they have access to the Internet or not. This is to investigate whether teachers have a computer and the Internet at home and could have been exposed to bias free textbooks and articles.

Question 5 of section A asks the number of years that the participants have taught English at school. It was to distinguish between those who have taught the current books more than the others and those who have taught the previous old type of textbooks. In question number 6 of Section A in the teachers' questionnaire, the participants were asked about the number of hours they teach English at school per week.

In question number 7 of Section A the participants were asked about the grades (in junior high school there are 3 grades and in high schools there are 4 grades) that they taught English at school. This is to investigate whether they have been exposed to one book only or to more school English language textbooks and also to classify the teachers whether they teach at junior high school or high school.

In section B there are 15 questions which sought agreement on four-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'disagree', to 'strongly disagree'. In section B, there are fifteen questions which are sub-categorized into 3 different groups. This is the first time that a study investigates EFL teachers' opinion toward linguistics sexism in the EFL textbooks and the negative effects of it on students' future and their life. The first five questions (questions 1 – 5) seek the participants' opinion about linguistic sexism presence awareness in the contexts of their EFL schools textbooks. This is to find out whether participants have noticed such a problem or

they have just taken it for granted as a social norm (Table 2). The second group of questions (questions 6 – 11) investigates whether sexism in the textbooks contexts has any effect on their social life or their future (Table 3). And the third group of questions (12 – 15) highlights the participants' desire to conduct research on gender equality (Table 4).

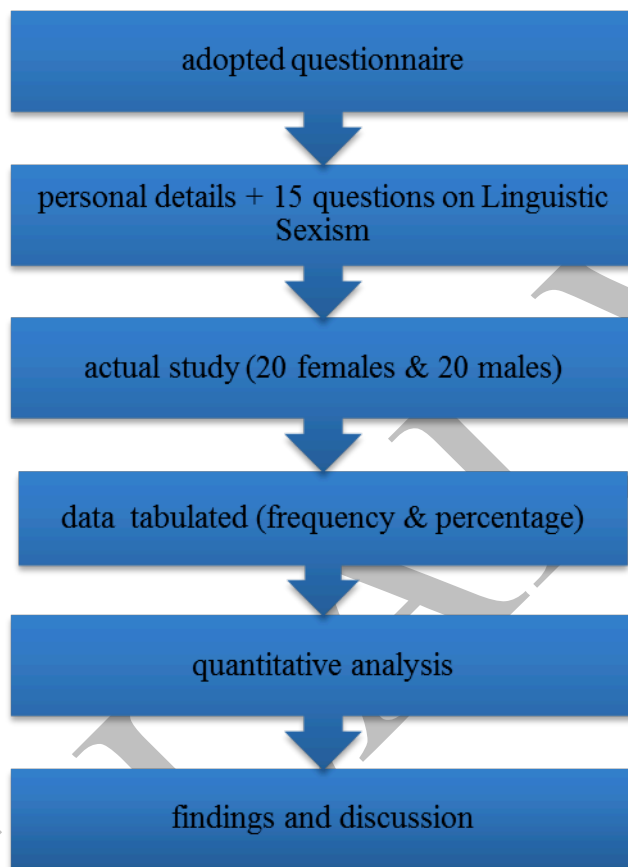


Figure 1: Procedure to achieve the research objective

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This is the first time in sexism literature that a study investigates EFL teachers' opinion toward sexism in EFL textbooks and its effects on their life and their future. For this reason a group of experienced English language teachers were selected who are teaching at schools in Iran at the time of the study. Their teaching experience must exceed 5 years as they must have taught the current series of school textbooks long enough to have a bright view toward the issue.

### *Personal Details*

The first part (section A), which has 7 questions, is aimed at collecting individual information like: age. As Figure 2 indicates majority of the teachers (82.5%) are more than 25 years old which was a good opportunity for the researcher to find out whether age is a factor in identifying sexism in textbooks or not. On the other hand, the findings can show whether the two teaching generations share the same opinion toward sexism in the Iranian EFL school textbooks or not.

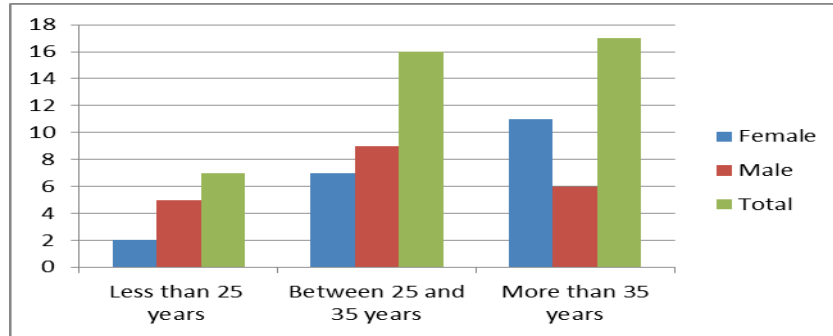


Figure 2: Respondents' Age

In the 3<sup>rd</sup> question of section A teachers were also asked whether they have a computer at work and whether it was connected to the Internet or not. Regretfully, almost none of the teachers had a computer at work or have access to the Internet. They replied no to both part of the question 3 as it is indicated in Figure 3. This may be due to several cultural or financial reasons that is out of the objectives of the current study.

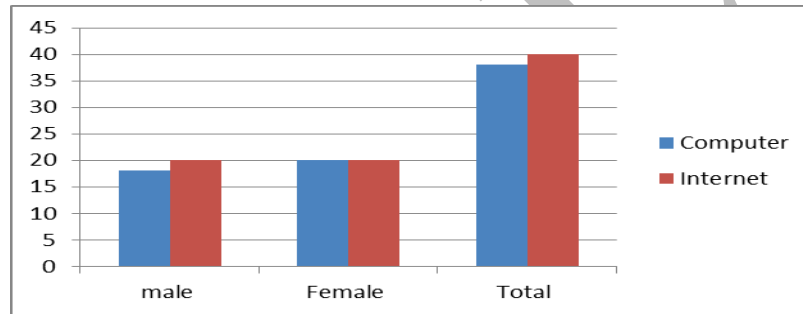


Figure 3: Not having a computer and access to the internet at work

In the fourth question, participants were also asked whether they have a personal computer/laptop at home or not and if yes, whether they have access to the Internet or not (Figure 4). As it was expected by the researcher, they all own a personal computer and have high-speed access to the Internet at home. The only 10% (2 of the male participants) who do not own a personal computer use their childrens computers at home. Therefore, as highlighted by Figure 3 as compared to Figure 4, all the participants had access to a computer and the Internet at home and could have been exposed to bias free textbooks and articles. This would enable them to have a rough idea of how a non-sexist textbook would look like and what criteria it could have.

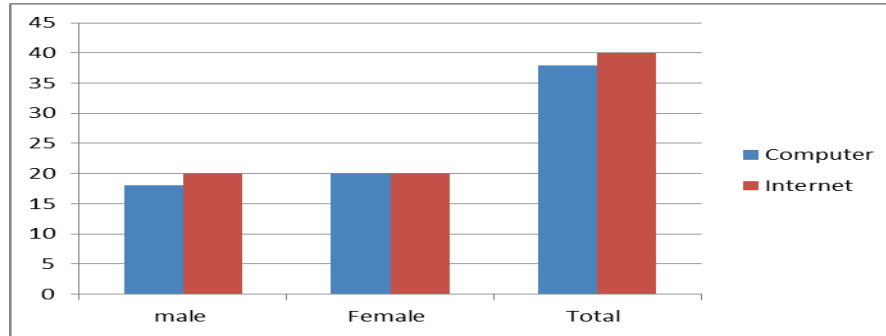


Figure 4: Having a computer and access to the internet at home

Question 5 of section A asks the number of years that the participants have taught English at school. It was to distinguish between those who have taught the current books more than the others and those who have taught the previous old type of textbooks. As highlighted in Figure 5, the distribution was even among the gender of the participants whereas the number of years they had taught was different among them. As indicated in Figure 5, most of the participants (31 people, 87.5%) were highly experienced teachers.

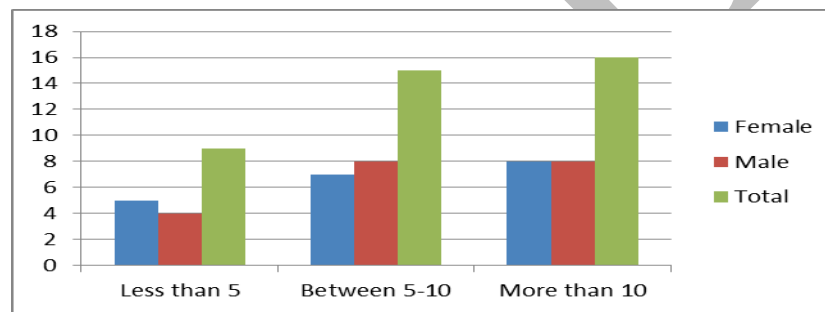


Figure 5: Years of Teaching English at school

In the 6<sup>th</sup> question of Section A of the teachers' questionnaire, the participants were asked about the number of hours they teach English at school per week. All of the participants (100% regardless of their gender) have highlighted that they teach English between 12 and 20 hours at school weekly. The other component is the grades (i.e. in junior high school there are 3 grades and in high schools there are 3 to 4 grades) that they teach English (Table 1) at school. This is to investigate whether they have taught one book only or more school English language textbooks and also to classify the teachers whether they teach at junior high school or high school. In the next item the teachers are asked is the number of years they have taught English at school (to highlight the importance of the sexism problem through these many years of direct contact with English language textbooks), and number of hours they English per week at school (to underpin how much they were exposed to the material per week to draw a conclusion on its effects on their opinion on sexism norms).

In Iran English teachers usually teach all the grades in school. For instance a junior high school teacher teaches all 3 grades during a semester and it is the same for the high school teachers. Therefore, the researcher requested the participants to focus on one of the school textbooks which

they would prefer and wish. Then they were asked to complete this section of the questionnaire. Table 1 highlights that there is a normal percentage of distribution among their preference. As mentioned earlier there were 40 teachers (20 female and 20 male). Among the 20 same sex participants, the researcher tried to have equal number of teachers who were teaching in junior high school (10) and high school (10). Therefore, for high school, there are 20 teachers (10 male and 10 female) and the other 20 for junior high school. That is the reason that the percentage for each group (junior and high school) is measured as 100%. It is necessary to mention that in high school section majority of the teachers preferred to focus on the last year textbook which is called pre-university (*Pish-Daneshgahi* in Iran).

Table 1: Grades They Teach

Grades	Junior High			High School			
	Grade1	Grade2	Grade3	Grade1	Grade2	Grade3	Grade4
Female	3 (30%)	3 (30%)	4 (40%)	2 (20%)	1 (10%)	2 (20%)	5 (50%)
Male	2 (20%)	4 (40%)	4 (40%)	2 (20%)	3 (30%)	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
Total	5 (25%)	7(35%)	8(40%)	4(20%)	4(20%)	4(20%)	8(40%)

### Survey on Linguistic Sexism in the EFL School Textbooks

As indicated in Table 2, all the teacher participants (100%) have noticed more males than females in the contexts (q1). As it is shown in the Table (2), all of the participants have strongly agreed with the statement. This can highlight that the sexism phenomena is so obvious and clear that all of the answers are the same.

Table 1: Participants Awareness of Linguistic Sexism in the EFL Textbooks

No	Statement	Gender	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I have noticed more males than females in the contexts.	Female	20 (100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	18 (90%)	2(10%)	0%	0%
		Total	95%	5%	0%	0%
2	I have noticed that there are fewer active females than males in the contexts.	Female	18 (90%)	2(10%)	0%	0%
		Male	16 (80%)	3(15%)	1 (5%)	0%
		Total	85%	12.5%	2.5%	0%
3	I have noticed that females are less important (focused) in the contexts.	Female	18 (90%)	1(5%)	1(5%)	0%
		Male	15 (75%)	3(15%)	2 (10%)	0%
		Total	82.5%	10%	7.5%	0%
4	I have noticed that males outnumbered females in the contexts.	Female	20 (100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	18 (90%)	1(5%)	1(5%)	0%
		Total	95%	2.5%	2.5%	0%
5	I have noticed that even in written exercises males are more than females.	Female	17 (85%)	2(10%)	1 (5%)	0%
		Male	15 (75%)	3(15%)	2 (10%)	0%
		Total	80%	12.5%	7.5%	0%

Table 2 also shows that all the participants (97.5%) have noticed that there are fewer active females than males in the contexts (q2). Only 1 male participant (2.5%) disagrees with the statement while the rest have strongly highlighted their positive view. Following this question, surprisingly participants' range of variety of replies to the next question is so different.

As indicated by Table 2, most of the participants (92.5%) have noticed that females are less important (focused) in the contexts (q3) whereas 7.5% (1 male and 2 female) participants have not noticed that females are less important in the contexts. Comparing to the answers of question 2 of the questionnaire, interestingly they have noticed that there are fewer active females than males in the contexts but they do not believe that females are less focused. As shown by Table 2, all of the participants (97.5%) have noticed that males outnumbered females in the contexts (q4) and only 1 male (2.5%) disagreed with the statement. He is the one who has not noticed that there are fewer active females than males in the contexts. As indicated by Table 2, vast majority of the participants (92.5%) have noticed that even in written exercises males are more than females (q5). Meanwhile, 3 (1 female and 2 males) of the participants (7.5%) disagree with the statement and have not noticed that even in written exercises males are more than females. Overall, as highlighted in Table 2, all the teacher participants are aware of the existence of sexism in EFL school textbooks and have noticed that during the years that they have been teaching English at school. In the second sub-category the researcher would like to investigate the participants' opinion about the effects of sexism on social life and their future plans (Table 3). As shown by Table 3, all of the participants (100% regardless of their gender) think that having a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) opinion toward equal abilities of both genders (q6). None of the participants disagrees with the statement. The same result goes for question 7 of the questionnaire. All of the teacher participants (100%) think that a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) personality toward abilities of both genders.

Table 3: Effects of Linguistic Sexism on Social Life & Future

No	Statement	Gender	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6	I think having a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) opinion toward equal abilities of both genders.	Female	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	19 (95%)	1 (5%)	0%	0%
		Total	97.5%	2.5%	0%	0%
7	I think a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) personality toward abilities of both genders.	Female	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	18 (90%)	2(10%)	0%	0%
		Total	95%	5%	0%	0%
8	I think a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) social behavior toward females.	Female	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	17 (85%)	1(5%)	2 (10%)	0%
		Total	92.5%	2.5%	5%	0%
9	I think a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) view toward life. (E.g. males are more useful).	Female	11(55%)	5 (25%)	0%	4(20%)
		Male	14 (70%)	3 (15%)	2 (10%)	1 (5%)
		Total	62.5%	20%	5%	12.5%
10	I think a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) self-confidence.	Female	15 (75%)	3 (15%)	2 (10%)	0%
		Male	17 (85%)	1(5%)	1 (5%)	1 (5%)
		Total	80%	10%	7.5%	2.5 %
11	I think having a lot of males with specific jobs can influence students (people) in selecting their future job.	Female	18 (90%)	2(10%)	0%	0%
		Male	19 (95%)	1 (5%)	0%	0%
		Total	92.5%	7.5%	0%	0%

Table 3 shows, 95% of the participants think that a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) social behavior toward females (q8). Only 5% of the teacher participants (2 male participants) do not agree with statement and do not think that lot of males in the contexts can influence students' social behavior toward females.

Regarding question 9, as shown in Table 3, 82.5% of the participants think that a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) view toward life. (E.g. males are more useful). Meanwhile Table 3 indicates that 17.5% of the participants (4 female and 3 male respondents) do not think that a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' view toward life. It is also indicated in Table 3 that 90% of the participants think that a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' self-confidence (q10). On the other hand, 10% (2 male and 2 female participants) of the respondents disagree with the statement. Table 3 also shows that all of the participants (100%) think that having a lot of males with specific jobs can influence students in selecting their future job (q11). It is important to notice that even those who disagreed with the influence of sexism on students' self-confidence and their view toward life, all (100%) believe that having a lot of males with specific jobs can influence students in selecting their future job.

The respondent teachers, all believe that linguistic sexism has a direct effect on the future of students and their life. Portrayal of limited jobs for females in the textbooks can have a negative effect on the students' job and study field selection. Since the females are mostly portrayed doing house chore (Vahdatinejad 2016), the students' mind can be set to frame it as a norm in their society and life. This is one of the reasons that Linguistic Sexism must be banned and textbooks must portray both genders equally and bias free. In the third sub-categorization of section B of the questionnaire, the researcher is to find out whether the respondents believe in the importance of conducting research on sexism or not. Interestingly, all the participants want and desire to encourage studies on sexism. Table 4 shows, all of the participants (100% regardless of the gender) strongly agree with the statement that they would like to have an equal number of both genders in the texts (q12). The same percentage (100% regardless of the gender) goes for question number 13 of the questionnaire that they think this kind of research on gender equality in the contexts can be helpful in the future. Table 4 also indicates that all of the participants (100%) would like to have an equal number of both genders in written exercises (q14) and they think it is important to know the reason(s) (q15). Table 4 shows that all of the participants (100%) know the importance of the importance of conducting research on sexism or not. All the participants want and have the desire to encourage studies on sexism.

Table 4: Importance and Desire to Have Gender Equality

No	Statement	Gender	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
12	I would like to have an equal number of both genders in the texts.	Female	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Total	100%	0%	0%	0%
13	I think this kind of research on gender equality in the contexts can be helpful in the future.	Female	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Total	100%	0%	0%	0%
14	I would like to have an equal number of both genders in written exercises.	Female	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Total	100%	0%	0%	0%
15	I think it is important to know the reason(s).	Female	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Male	20(100%)	0%	0%	0%
		Total	100%	0%	0%	0%

## CONCLUSION

Therefore, the findings from this questionnaire indicate that all of the teacher; are aware of semiotic sexism in their books; believe that it can have negative effects on their students' mindset and treatment of the other gender in future; and would like to ban linguistic sexism, and have equality in all the aspects of a textbook. Since the number of male and female students who are studying at schools in Iran is almost equal, teachers would like the textbooks to represent this equality in the context of the textbooks.

Having an equal society should be one of the biggest goals for any government. Gender discrimination prevents a society from being fair. In order to avoid gender discrimination, EFL policy makers must start with our education system because it essentially constructs the mind and mentality of the people who are going to be the future of our society (i.e. students). To do so, we need to rethink about the school textbooks that we use which are a major source of information for students by eradicating linguistic sexism.

Textbooks writers need to note that textbooks linguistically need to be gender bias free. In order to show a clear and fair view of the society, in which they are eventually going to step out into, textbook writers have a huge responsibility. This responsibility includes displaying a society that will provide equal opportunity for both of them. This would not happen unless they experience an equality in the textbooks that unfortunately does not exist in the current textbooks. Therefore, the negative effects of linguistic sexism and gender-biased textbooks can influence students' lives and mindsets forever.

Riazi (2003) highlights that the teacher is the first in the class, and in control of everything. Despite the fact that the current Iranian EFL textbooks are sexist (Vahdatinejad 2016), teachers have a more important role and need to euphemize the textbooks in the class in a way that students would not realize the negative effects of gender bias textbooks.

There are several variables and factors which were not regarded in the present study and required further studies. Based on the title, only EFL teachers were involved in the survey and other subjects such as Literature, Physics etc. need to be investigated as well. Considering the participants of this study, further research on different participants may yield different results. Also the participants of the study were limited to EFL teachers not learners. This requires further studies on EFL students's opinion toward sexism in their school textbooks. One of the most problematic parts of this study was to contact and to physically enter female schools in the research area. As it is forbidden for men to enter the female school premises, data collection for the female EFL teachers seemed extremely difficult. Based on the limitations of the study and the problems that the researchers encountered future studies are needed.

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## APPENDIX A

### Survey Questionnaire on Sexism

Dear Teachers,

This survey questionnaire is designed to identify your opinions on sexism in the English Language School Textbooks. Thank you for your cooperation.

Signature .....

#### Section A: Personal Details

Kindly, tick the answer which best suits your personal details.

1. Gender:       Male      Female
2. Age:
- Less than 25
- Between 25 - 35
- More than 35
3. Do you have a computer at work? If yes, do you have access to the Internet at work?
- Yes       No       Yes       No
4. Do you have a computer at home? If yes, do you have access to the Internet?
- Yes       No       Yes       No
5. State the number of years you have taught English at school
- Less than 5 years
- Between 5 and 10 years
- More than 10 years
6. State the number of hours you teach English language per week at school
- Less than 12 hours
- Between 12 - 20 hours

- More than 20 hours  
7. State the Grades that you teach English language at school  
 Junior High school..... Highhool .....

**Section B: Survey on Linguistic Sexism in EFL Textbooks**

Please select the responses from *Strongly Agree*, *Agree*, *Disagree*, and *Strongly Disagree* that best describe your feeling toward the sentences by putting a tick (✓) in the appropriate boxes. Please choose only one answer for each question.

No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I have noticed more males than females in the contexts.				
2	I have noticed that there are fewer active females than males in the contexts.				
3	I have noticed that females are less important (focused) in the contexts.				
4	I have noticed that males outnumbered females in the contexts.				
5	I have noticed that even in written exercises males are more than females.				
6	I think having a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) opinion toward equal abilities of both genders.				
7	I think a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) personality toward abilities of both genders.				
8	I think a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) social behavior toward females.				
9	I think a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) view toward life.(e.g. males are more useful).				
10	I think a lot of males in the contexts can influence students' (people's) self-confidence.				
11	I think having a lot of males with specific jobs can influence students (people) in selecting their future job.				
12	I would like to have an equal number of both genders in the texts.				
13	I think this kind of research on gender equality in the contexts can be helpful in the future.				
14	I would like to have an equal number of both genders in written exercises.				
15	I think it is important to know the reason(s).				

## THE EFFECT OF RAISING EFL LEARNERS' AWARENESS REGARDING FORMULAIC SEQUENCES ON THEIR WRITING PERFORMANCE

**Shahram Afraz (Corresponding author)**

*Department of English Language, Qeshm Branch, Islamic Azad University, Qeshm, Iran  
a.sh32@rocketmail.com*

**Leila Bakhshinezhad**

*Department of English Language, Bandar Abbas Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bandar  
Abbas, Iran  
Bakhshinejad.134@gmail.com*

**Maryam Keykavoosi**

*Department of English Language, Bandar Abbas Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bandar  
Abbas, Iran  
Maryam.keykavoosi@yahoo.com*

### ABSTRACT

*The aim of the present study was to investigate the effect of raising EFL learners' awareness regarding formulaic sequences on their writing performance. Therefore, the researcher selected a homogeneous sample of 40 M.A. students majoring in TEFL at the Islamic Azad University – Bandar Abbas Branch, Iran, as the participants of the study based on their performance in Nelson English Language Test. The selected participants were randomly assigned into control and experimental groups. The experimental group underwent treatment (i.e., instruction of formulaic sequences) whereas the control group followed a conventional method of writing instruction. At the end of the treatment, the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of writing performance. Raising EFL learners' awareness regarding the use of formulaic sequences results in development of the writing performance and accordingly can prove helpful for language teachers, learners, and textbook designers in paving the way for improving the participants' writing skill. The advanced writing course designers and teachers, as well as language experts determine the great significance of formulaic sequences and attempt to develop research-based educational packages suitable based on the student's particular target context.*

**KEYWORDS:** Formulaic Sequences, Awareness Raising, Writing Performance.

### INTRODUCTION

Writing skill receives great significance in higher education and being considered as a member of the disciplinary community of expert writers is one of the desires of many learners in almost any

field of study. For this purpose, learners should attempt to exploit those word combinations that pertain to the disciplinary conventions, which are typically implemented by recognized academics (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a).

Formulaic sequences, also going by the name of lexical chunks or clusters (Hyland, 2008a), are a kind of word sequences which have recently been introduced and are specified as the most frequently happening sequences including three or more words. The formulaic sequences have often neither idiomatic nor complete structural units but, most of the time, have strong grammatical correlates (Biber, 2006). Instances of formulaic sequences involve expressions such as *on the other hand*, *the end of the*, and *it is important to*.

Since formulaic sequences are very frequent in language, it might be supposed that they will naturally and effortlessly be learnt. But as Biber and Barbieri (2007) and Cortes (2006) note, the acquisition and appropriate use of these expressions does not seem to naturally occur. Although expert academic writers in various disciplines and genres make use of a wide diversity of formulaic sequences to construct their arguments and convince the readers, many formulaic sequences preferred and applied by specialists are never or quite rarely applied by learners in various fields and at various levels of proficiency (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a).

Most studies concerning formulaic sequences take a corpus-based approach and concentrate on determining the sequences used in a given discipline and on the differences or the similarities in the type and frequency of the formulaic sequences used across various disciplinary fields, registers, genres, and different degrees of writing proficiency (e.g., Biber et al., 1999; Cortes, 2013).

There are also studies proposing various ways of introducing learners to the use of frequently recurring lexical bundles. Lewis (2000) introduces many novel ways of instructing formulaic sequences. Pang (2010) also mentions several strategies and techniques that will make second/foreign language students able to broaden their collection of academic rhetorical features to involve these multi-word sequences.

Very few explorations have considered explicit teaching and practical implementation of formulaic sequences (Cortes, 2006). Jones and Haywood (2004) taught a group of university students who were all non-native speakers of English on the use of particular word combinations during a 10-week period. Their results indicated minor increase in the production of formulaic language after the teaching but they indicated high motivation and tendency towards the use of these expressions by the students in their study. They also highlighted that students' insufficient use of formulaic expressions in their academic writing may lead to undesirable writing. In another study, Cortes (2006) found her five 20-minute sessions of formulaic sequences instruction to a group of university students in a writing-intensive history class excessively short to make significant variations between pre- and post-teaching production of formulaic sequences but they revealed a raise in students' awareness of and interest in these expressions.

To the researchers' best knowledge, up to the present time, very few studies have explored the effect of teaching advanced EFL learners on the use of formulaic sequences in writing in the field of applied linguistics, more particularly in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Advanced TEFL learners are assumed to have few problems in the understanding of formulaic sequences since these expressions are so common in the field. But it is not clear if these learners can use formulaic sequences in writing without trouble and if providing them with a list of most related, most regular, and functionally significant formulaic sequences in the field can promote their writing ability.

The study may have both theoretical and practical implications to the field of applied linguistics. Theoretical to the sense that it may contribute to re-specifying the features of a good writing class and practical in the form of suggestions to EFL learners and novice writers as well as to writing course teachers about the significance and usefulness of formulaic sequences in developing learners' ability in writing. The aim of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of teaching formulaic sequences on fostering the students' writing ability.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The widespread use of formulaic sequences in natural language performance gives it an essential role in language acquisition, processing, and application (Ellis, 1996; Millar, 2010; Wray, 2002). Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) emphasize the paramount role of these readymade chunks on the acquisition of a language by mentioning that a large amount of language that people encounter every day is very habitual and predictable. The significance of multi-word lexical clusters is also highlighted by Wood (2002) that formulaic language is essential to language development, processing, production and learning.

Among their principal functions in language learning and construction, formulaic sequences are known to lower the cognitive load and facilitate the language processing burden as they are stored in and recalled from memory as unanalyzed pieces (e.g., Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012; Wei & Ying, 2011). There are several studies acknowledging that formulaic sequences have processing benefits. For example, Conklin and Schmitt (2008) attempted to explore whether the formulaic sequences are useful in terms of processing by comparing the time spent on reading formulaic sequences with their non-formulaic equivalents by native and non-native speakers. It was found that formulaic sequences were processed more rapidly than non-formulaic language by both groups showing that formulaic sequences have a noteworthy remarkable advantage over non-formulaic language in terms of language processing. The study performed by Underwood, Schmitt, and Galpin (2004) to examine how formulaic sequences are processed also confirmed the claim that formulaic sequences speed up language processing.

Another function of formulaic sequences that has an essential effect on language development is their role in easing communicative functions. Even when students lack adequate linguistic knowledge, they can obtain their interactional objectives and become prosperous communicators by using formulaic sequences (Wei & Ying, 2011).

The main purpose of language instruction is to make students understand the significant effect of linguistic items in discourse on communication and that it can be considered by having them learn form/function combinations that are called sequential clusters (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). Formulaic sequences have an essential role as a guide in showing the discourse structure (Li & Schmitt, 2009), and in fact, one of the most significant functions of it is that of discourse organization including the use of discourse markers (Schmitt & Carter, 2004). Formulaic sequences, regularly used in academic language (Hyland, 2012), are fundamental elements of written register (e.g., Li & Schmitt, 2009) and writing well demands using them properly (Li & Schmitt, 2009). They result in pragmatically effective communication, and in academic discourse often serve as the structuring frame of discourse by directing readers through a text (*in the next section, as shown in figure*) or by connecting ideas (*is due to the, in contrast to*) (Hyland, 2012).

## RESEARCH QUESTION

Based on the purpose of the study, the following research question was proposed and corresponding hypothesis was investigated:

RQ: Does raising EFL learners' awareness regarding formulaic sequences significantly affect their writing performance?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

Forty M.A. students majoring in TEFL at the Islamic Azad University – Bandar Abbas Branch, Iran, took part in the present study. All the selected participants were B.A. graduates of different sub-fields of English including TEFL, linguistics, and translation. The selection of the participants was based on their scores in a Nelson English Language Test. It mean that from initial 73 students, 40 students who could get scores in the range of one standard deviation minus and plus the mean were selected to participate in the study.

### *Instruments*

In order to collect the needed data for the present study, the researcher used the following instruments:

1. *Nelson English Language Test*: a test in the advanced level – 400B – was used to select a homogeneous sample for the study. The selection criterion was obtaining scores in the range of one standard deviation minus and plus the mean.
2. A writing task which was repeated two times as pre-test and post-test before and after the treatment, respectively. These written products were scored by two independent raters and the inter-rater reliability index was calculated as 0.79.

### **Procedure**

In order to have a homogeneous sample of the participants, the researcher distributed the Nelson English Language Test to all M.A. students (n =90) majoring in TEFL at the Islamic Azad University – Bandar Abbas Branch, Iran. From among them, 40 students whose scores were in the range of one standard deviation minus and plus the mean have been selected and randomly assigned to two groups and one of them was taken as experimental group and the other as control group. The study was performed in eight sessions of one hour and fifteen minutes length.

In the first session, a topic was given to the participants in the two groups to write an essay about it. This essay was considered as their pre-test. In the subsequent sessions, a topic was given to the groups to write essays about them. The only difference between the procedures taken in the two groups was that in the experimental group, at the start of each session, 10 frequently used formulaic sequences based on corpus studies (Jalali, Eslami Rasekh, & Tavangar Rizi, 2008; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b) were taught to the participants and then they started to write on the proposed topic. The teacher advised the participants to use the formulaic sequences in their essays; but, in the control group, there was not such an instruction and the participants only wrote an essay in each session on the given topic.

In the last session, the students were asked to write another essay on the topic given in the pre-test to measure the degree of progress in two groups from pre-test to post-test. The students' essays in pre- and post-test were scored by two independent raters based on the Jacob et al.'s (1981) writing scoring rubric, out of 100, and the average of the scores given by the two raters was taken as the participants' scores.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This part presents the descriptive and inferential statistics based on the variables and research question posed in the study.

### ***The Results of the Selection Test***

As Table 1 shows, the mean of 75 initial participants' average scores was 34.12 with standard deviation of 5.323.

*Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the Selection Test*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Nelson	73	34.12	5.323

Those students whose score was between one standard deviation minus and plus the mean have been selected as the participants of the main study and others have been left out. It means that 40 students whose scores were between 29 and 39 were selected.

**The Results Regarding the Research Question**

In order to determine whether there was any significant difference in the writing pre-test scores between the two groups, an independent samples t-test was run. Table 2 reports the results of this analysis.

Table 2: Writing Pre-test Difference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.059	.809	.713	38	.480	1.600	2.243	-2.941	6.141
	Equal variances not assumed			.713	37.993	.480	1.600	2.243	-2.941	6.141

As indicated in Table 2, the Levene's test for equal variances yields a p-value of 0.809. This means that the difference between the variances is not statistically significant and the statistics in the first row should be used. In the first row, the p-value is equal to 0.480 which is above 0.05 and indicates that there is not a significant difference in the pre-test scores of the control and experimental groups.

To explore the effect of raising EFL learners' awareness regarding formulaic sequences on their writing performance and determine the difference in the post-test scores of the control and experimental groups, another independent samples t-test was run. Table 3 presents the results of this analysis.

Table 3: Writing Post-test Difference

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	.130	.720	-3.759	38	.001	-9.400	2.501	-14.463	-4.337
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.759	37.999	.001	-9.400	2.501	-14.463	-4.337

Table 3 shows that the Levene's test for equal variances shows a p-value of .720. This means that the difference between the variances is not statistically significant and the statistics in the first row should be used. In the first row, the p-value is equal to 0.001 which is below 0.05 and reveals that there is a significant difference between the post-test scores of the control and experimental groups. In other words, raising EFL learners' awareness regarding formulaic sequences significantly affects their writing performance and improves it.

### ***Discussion***

The results of the present study indicated significant points concerning the advantages of formulaic sequences in promoting Iranian advanced EFL learners writing performance. The findings were all in support of the positive effect of formulaic sequences on participants' writing ability. Although the period of time devoted to instructional program was short, unlike other similar studies (e.g., Cortes, 2006; Jones & Haywood, 2004), based on the results of pre- and post-test and the statistical analyses, the participants of the present study could significantly increase their scores in writing after being taught to use formulaic sequences.

This outcome may be due to the fact that the participants in the present study were all M.A. students majoring in TEFL who mostly have the ability to acquire the bundles and just need some practice to improve their awareness of and attention to these overlooked, but paramount, discourse elements and use them properly to develop their quality of writing.

### **CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

On the basis of the findings of the present study, it can be concluded that Iranian EFL learners, even those majoring in TEFL, are not familiar with these repeated clusters of words and that they get very little, if any, instruction about formulaic sequences. While this is the case, almost all of the students ascribe great value to formulaic sequences and feel the severe need to get thorough understanding of this significant and almost completely ignored aspect of foreign language learning.

The present study was only conducted on TEFL university students and the generalizability of its findings to other EFL students is a matter of question. Furthermore, the number of the taught formulaic sequences was limited. This may be another drawback to the generalizability of results.

Based on these findings, it is important that advanced writing course designers and teachers, as well as language experts, determine the great significance of formulaic sequences and attempt to develop research-based educational packages suitable based on the student's particular target context. There should be situations for students in writing courses, as well as in EAP courses, particularly in advanced levels, to get accustomed to and use those word clusters that are more relevant to their target genres and are used by skillful writers in the field. Regular contact with reading materials, lists of sequences, noticing (Cortes, 2004, 2006), consciousness-raising tasks (Lewis, 2000), concordances (Hyland, 2008a), activities like item recognition and matching, and also activities which makes students generate the items in their writing can be among many other techniques which teachers can use with their students.

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

Zahra Nouri

English Department, Faculty of Persian Literature & Foreign Languages, University of Tabriz,  
Tabriz, Iran

Email: Z.Nouri68@yahoo.com

### ABSTRACT

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

**KEYWORDS:** CDA; Gender; Substitution roles; Four Corners

### INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

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

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

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

## METHODOLOGY

### *Materials*

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

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

### *Data Collection Procedure*

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

### *Data Analysis Procedure*

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

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

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### *Personalization/Impersonalization*

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

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

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

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

### *Determination/Indetermination*

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

### *Nomination/Categorization*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### Genericization/Specification

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

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

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

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

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

Category	M	F	X2	df	Sig.
Individualization	340	208	31.796	1	0.00
Collectivization	32	27	0.424	1	0.515

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

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

## CONCLUSION

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

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

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

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

**Niloofer Imani**

*M.A., IAU, South Tehran Branch  
nilooferimani45@gmail.com*

**Farzaneh Haratyan**

*PhD. Assistant Professor, IAU, Garmsar Branch  
haratyan@gmail.com*

### ABSTRACT

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

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

### INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

## LITERATURE REVIEW

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(1) SL adjective of substance plus general noun, TL noun

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

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

## METHODOLOGY

### *Corpus*

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

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

#### *Socio-Political Context of Original Text*

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

#### *Design*

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

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

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### *Analysis of Translational Procedures*

**ST:** At her wedding, Mariam can only look down at the table where she can see her reflection and where every time she breathes out, the surface fogs and she disappears from her father's table. This marriage will make her disappear both emotionally and physically. (p.49)

**TT.**

در روز عروسی اش مریم سر به زیر انداخت و به میز نگاه میکرد و فقط انعکاس تصویر خودش را می دید. متوجه شد که هر بازدمش سطح میز را بخارالود می کند و عکس او از روی میز پدرش محو می شود. این ازدواج هم از لحاظ روحی و هم جسمی او را از بین خواهد برد. (ص 60)

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

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

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

**ST:** However when Rasheed goes to his room. He leaves Mariam to wait out the pain of losing her virginity; to look at the frozen stars in the sky and a cloud that draped over the face of the moon like a wedding veil. (p. 76)

**TT.**

با این حال وقتی رشید به اتاق خود رفت مریم را با درد از دست دادن بکارت تنها گذاشت تا به ستاره های یخ زده در آسمان و ایبری که مثل توری عروس روی ماه را پوشانده بود زل بزند. (ص 86)

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

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

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

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

### **Discussion**

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

### **CONCLUSION**

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

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

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

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

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

Amirnader Elahi

MA in TEFL Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran, Faculty of Foreign Languages, English  
Department, Tehran, Iran  
Amirnader.elahi@gmail.com

### ABSTRACT

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

**KEYWORDS:** semantic mapping strategy, mnemonic techniques, vocabulary achievement

### INTRODUCTION

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

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

### ***Semantic mapping strategy***

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

### ***Mnemonics techniques***

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

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

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

## LITRETURE REVIEW

### *Studies on the effectiveness of semantic mapping strategy*

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

### *Studies on the effectiveness of mnemonic techniques*

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

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

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

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

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

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

## REASERCH QUESTION

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

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

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

## METHODOLOGY

### *Design*

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

### *Instrumentations*

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

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

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

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

### *Procedure*

#### *Participants*

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

#### *Pre-treatment stage*

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

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

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

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

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

#### *The first experimental group*

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

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

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

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

#### *The second experimental group*

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

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

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

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

#### *Post-treatment stage*

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

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

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

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Posttest Scores

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

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

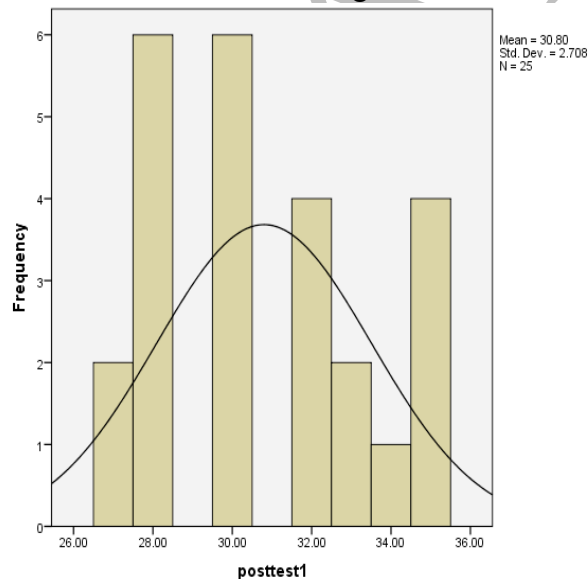


Figure 1: Distribution of Experimental Group 1 Posttest Scores

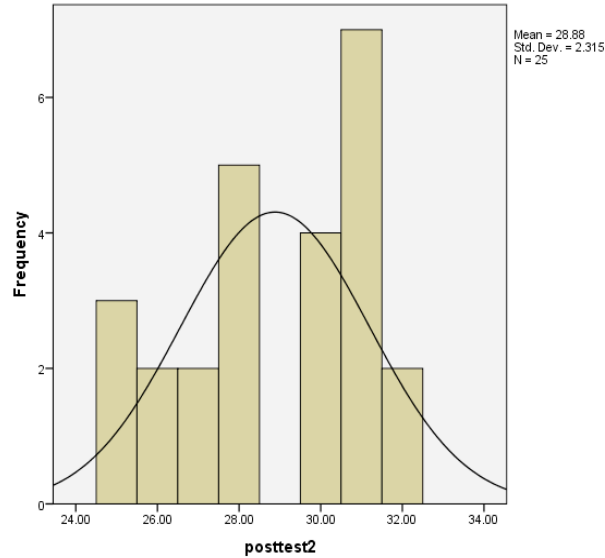


Figure 2: Distribution of Experimental Group 2 Posttest Scores

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## CONCLUSION

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Hooshang Khoshshima, Ph.D. Associate Professor**

*English Language Department  
Faculty of Management and Humanities  
Chabahar Maritime University, Iran  
Khoshshima2002@yahoo.com  
+98 9121097812*

**Seyyed Morteza Hashemi Toroujeni, M.A. in TEFL**

*English Language Department  
Faculty of Management and Humanities  
Chabahar Maritime University, Iran  
Hashemi.seyyedmorteza@gmail.com  
M.hashemi@cmu.ac.ir  
+98 9112577241*

### ABSTRACT

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

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

### INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

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

### **ADVANTAGES OF COMPUTER-BASED TESTING**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### **CHALLENGES OF COMPUTER-BASED TESTING**

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

### **GUIDELINES FOR COMPUTER-BASED TESTING**

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

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

*Table 1: Published Guidelines for Computerized Assessment*

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

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

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

### **VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY IN COMPUTER-BASED TESTING**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### **ANALYSIS OF CHABAHAR MARITIME UNIVERSITY'S CBT**

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

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

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

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

## CONCLUSION

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

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

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

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

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## THE CHALLENGES FACING LEGAL TRANSLATORS/ INTERPRETERS AT IRAQI COURTS

**Sahira Ahmed Mahmood**

*Assistant Lecturere*

*National Diabetes Center, Almustansiriyah University*  
*revere888@gmail.com*

**Dr. Mohammed Kadhim Ghafil**

*Assistant Professor*

*College of Arts/Translation Department, Almustansiriyah University*  
*mohamadalaskari@yahoo.com*

### ABSTRACT

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

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

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

### *Translation in a legal setting*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### ***English vs. Arabic: General Characteristics of Legal Language***

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

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

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

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

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

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

although they have an old relationship with Arabic.

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

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### ***Challenges Arising in Translating Legal Commercial Texts Between English and Arabic***

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

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

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

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

#### ***a) Paraphrasing***

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

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

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

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

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

### ***b) Functional Equivalence***

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

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

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

### ***c) Literal Translation***

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

## **CONCLUSION**

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

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

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## LATAH BEHAVIOR OF BAYU PEOPLE: A PSYCHOLINGUISTICS PERSPECTIVE

**Martunis**

*English Applied Linguistics Study Program Postgraduate School, State University of Medan,  
Medan, Indonesia*

*E-mail: martunisyusuf88@gmail.com*

**Zainul Arifin Nasution**

*English Applied Linguistics Study Program Postgraduate School, State University of Medan,  
Medan, Indonesia*

*E-mail: zainularief422@gmail.com*

### ABSTRACT

*Latah behavior is interesting to investigate in psycholinguistics study. This research describes the form of the language of Latah at Bayu, North Aceh, Indonesia, and the factors that cause people behave Latah. In this study used qualitative research. The data were words and sentences in the Latah behavior especially in the village of Bayu, North Aceh, Indonesia. While the source data were 6 people's of Bayu. The data were collected by applying the conversational technique. Conversation technique is a method which constrained in collecting data through conversation between informant and researcher. In addition, conversation technique has stimulation as his primary technique. The results of this study are the description of the forms of Latah language in the form of words and sentences, including: types of latah: Koprohalia behavior, Echolalia behavior, AutoEcholalia behavior, and Echopraxia behavior. (1) Koprohalia behavior is usually uttered the words in the form of the genitals of both men and women, (2) Echolalia behavior is mimicked the words and sentences given to others, and (3) Auto Echolalia, namely is usually repeat words spoken alone (4) Echopraxia behavior, which is usually spontaneously execute commands when startled. In this study found the cause of Latah behavior that is caused by imitation factor, suggestion, identification, and sympathy.*

**KEYWORDS:** Language of latah, kinds of latah, psycholinguistics, factors of latah.

### INTRODUCTION

Latah is a condition in which abnormal behaviors result from a person experiencing a sudden shock. When surprised, the affected person typically engages in such behaviors as screaming, cursing, dancing type movements, and uncontrollable laughter, and will typically mimic the words or actions of those around them. Physical symptoms include an increased heart rate and profuse sweating, but no clear physiological source has been identified.

In this study, researcher used a psycholinguistic approach is a combination of the two sciences, namely psychology and linguistics. According to Caron (1992: 1) psycholinguistics as the

experimental study of the psychological processes through which a human subject acquires and implements the system of a natural language. Thus, in reviewing the language *latah* at Bayu, North Aceh is the author using the approach in terms of psychology, because the appearance *latah* language is related to the pressure experienced by a person, either individually or pressure of the pressure from outside the individual. In addition, the appearance of *latah* language that usually appear when a shocked needs to be studied in more depth, namely through a psychological approach. This study sought to describe the shape factor causes lingual of *latah* and *latah* behavior at Bayu Village North Aceh District. Based on the phenomena and issues above, this research was focused on form lingual of *latah* language at Bayu, North Aceh and the causes Bayu people, North Aceh behaved *latah*.

In accordance with the existing problems, the objectives to be achieved in this study was to determine, describe, and explain the factors that cause the villagers of Bayu, North Aceh behave *latah*. The results of this study can be obtained by two benefits, namely the theoretical benefits and practical benefits. The theoretical benefits of this research is to contribute to the development of science, especially the science of language (linguistic) and contribute to the psycholinguistic theory, especially the theory related to *latah* language and provide information to other researchers. Practical benefits obtained are the results of this study can be used as a reference for students who study the field of linguistics and can be used as a reference for science learning psycholinguistic.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Etymologically, psycholinguistics formed from the word psychology and linguistics. However, both are researching language as a formal object, only material objects are different, the linguistic study of the structure of language, while psychology examines the behavior of speaking or speaking process. According to Gleason (1998: 3) said that psycholinguistics is concerned with discovering the psychological processes by which humans acquire and use language. In detail, Clark and Clark (in Gleason, 1998: 3-4) draw the psycholinguistic studies in three major concerns: (1) comprehension: how people understand spoken and written language, (2) speech production: how people produce language, and (3) Acquisition: how people learn language.

Psycholinguistic tries to describe psychological processes that take place when someone spoke the words he had heard at the time of communication, and how the language skills acquired by humans. So theoretically, the main goal is to find the psycholinguistic theory of language linguistically and psychologically acceptable can explain the nature of language and the acquisition. In other words, psycholinguistic tried to explain the nature of the structure of language, and how this structure is obtained, used at the time recalled, and the time to understand sentences in the substitutions. In practice, the psycholinguistic try to apply linguistic and psychological knowledge on issues such as teaching and language learning, language teaching beginning and read further, bilingual and multilingual, spoken diseases such as aphasia, stuttering, *Latah* and so on, as well as other social problems involving language.

Latah has been described as a culture-bound syndrome. This condition originated from Southeast Asia and it can occur by the startle reflex. A startle reflex can last up to 30 minutes. This outburst can consist of screaming, dancing, and a person laughing hysterically. According to the Malayan culture the term Latah comes from the root word "lata" and this means "fool" or "defect" (Winzeler). Some symptoms according to Winzeler (1984:77) include a person moving violently, crying uncontrollably, and shouting out sexual or vulgar language. A person can also engage in the imitation of others or things and have the same speech and movement over and over again. Latah syndrome occurs within the Malayan and Javanese cultures. Latah is that when a person who has Latah is startled they usually imitate the behavior or obey the commands of the person that is around them or trying to get their attention. Most cases of Latah occur intentionally to amuse onlookers and to draw attention to the person who has Latah.

According to Dardjowidjojo (2003: 154) *Latah* is an act of linguistic when someone is shocked or surprised, accidentally removed the words spontaneously and are not aware of what he was saying. Winzeler (in Kadir, 2009: 52) mentions *Latah* as *Culture Bound Syndrome*. This is reasonable because it is based on the existing literature, it is known that this *latah* residents only found in Asia, especially Southeast Asian population. This means that *latah* only occurs in certain cultures. The country with the most cases were identified *latah* is Malaysia and Indonesia. In The 8th Malaysia Indonesia Brunei Medical Sciences Conference: The phenomenon of "Latah" in Southeast Asia, Hatta (2013) says Latah can appear in both men and women, although most women. Also it can arise from a variety of social classes, not always from the lower classes. According to her, *latah* divided into four, namely: (1) Echolalia behavior is mimicked the words and sentences given to others, (2) koprolalia behavior is usually uttered the words in the form of the genitals of both men and women, and (3) auto Echolalia, namely is usually repeat words spoken alone (4) echopraxia, which is usually spontaneously execute commands when startled.

Environmental does not always influent good impact, but also gives the adverse implications for the development of language. Less influence either one of them is a form *latah* behavior experienced by villagers of Bayu, North Aceh. Form *latah* behavior in the community is a form of behavior in the form of language *latah*. *Latah* language is arising from touch or stimulation. Kinds of *latah* are a linguistic phenomenon of people who have a *latah* behavior in the form of self-expression. Through *latah* language, *latah* people are free to express themselves or express their feelings without any shame at all. The *latah* symptoms appear when the person is getting more attention or receive stimulation from a friend. Without conscious, she/he simply issues a word or phrase when someone intentionally or unintentionally gives a stimulus to the touch or *latah*. A touch on the *latah* is usually a touch on the body slowly or loudly. When a person gets a touch to *latah*, usually the person will be expended obscenities and can also be heard and those words will be repeated either said the word itself or words spoken by others.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

What are types Latah Behavior of Bayu's People, North Aceh?

What are factors Latah Behavior of Bayu's People, North Aceh?

## METHODOLGY

This research is qualitative research which focused on behavior and phenomena of latak by Bayu people. The data of this research was utterances of Bayu people while the source data was 6 people of Bayu, north Aceh, Indonesia. There are 2 women (ND and NL ) and 4 men (SN, MN, ZA and IB). They are around 35-50 years old. Their social status is low. All of them are farmers and their background of education are senior high school graduates.

The data were collected by applying the conversational technique. Mahsun (2005: 93) states conversation technique is a method which constrained in collecting data through conversation between informant and researcher. Furthermore, Mahsun adds that conversation technique has stimulation as his primary technique, the researcher will use this technique because collecting this data will show if the researcher uses the stimulation.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of this research focused on the lingual form of Latak and factors of Latak that by Bayu people behaved. The analysis of this research will be presented as research findings as follows.

### Types of Latak

#### Lexical of Latak

##### Data 1:

R : *Yéh, mabiet/yeh, mabiət/* (touching the informant arm slowly from behind) “Hey, Aunty”

ND : *èkcapōk/ε?capo?/*(with a slow voice and waved), “Hey, women genitals” *Alah teu keujet teuh mantōng, Pajan trōh? /alahtokojəttōhmantΛη, pajantroh/* “Ah, make me shocked, when did you arrive?”

R : *Nyo barō trōh/ηəbarotroh/* “Just Now”

This conversation occurs between researcher and informant 1. The informant was in a store in the morning at 09.00 am. Researchers met with the informant and then talk. Based on the data 1 that can be described that lingual forms raised by informant 1 is koprohalia *latak* behavior. It can be seen from the language in the form of words that refer to the woman genitals. She said lingual about around the genitals in a low voice and not known of the final intonation that ended the lingual spontaneously. The lingual raised by informant can be known when the informant led lingual forms *Capōk/ capo? /* said in a low voice.

##### Data 2:

R : *Awai that thō lago? / awai that tholago/* “Why was it quickly dry?”

NL : *Pan ‘èna thō, nyo barō kuadè. / panenatho, ηəbarokuadè/* “No, it sunbathe just now”

R : *ōō... lōng pike kathō. / oolŋpikəkatho/* “I think that was dry”

R : *Heuh neujéb ie!! hōhnəjebiə/* (deliberately and secretly throw informant with the paper) “Have a drink!”

NL : *Jébie,éé..Jébie/ jebiə, eejebiə/* (she raised her hand and waved). “Drinke..drink”

This conversation above between researcher and informant 2. This conversation occurred when informant 2 was hanging clothes in front of her house. Researcher spoke with informant 2. Based on these data can be described that form lingual which showed by informant 2 is Echolalia Behavior. Echolalia behavior is *latah* behavior which is reproduced the words given by others. The appearance of the form lingual *Jéb ie/jebiə* / is a repetition of the words spoken by the interlocutor. Informant spontaneously repeats these words because the informant was surprised by stimulation in the form of paper given throws suddenly. Lingual form of the word *Jéb ie/jebiə* / identified as a form of the word, because the informant gave rise to the word slowly so that the researcher did not catch any final intonation that followed the appearance of the lingual.

### Data 3:

R : *Ho beuro kön hana deuh-deuh, trep kahananeujak u rumohlöng?* / *həbərʌkʌnhanadəhdəh, trepkahanəwja? u ruməhloŋ/* “Where did you go before, you weren’t to my home at long time”

SN : *Sibök kuh, teungöh jak u blang lawét nyo.* / *siboʔkuh, təŋʌhja? u blaŋlawetno/* “I was busy, I went to farm recently”

R : *Alah, Hana leuh-leuh lom?./* *alah, hanaləhləhləm* / “Ah, was it finish yet?”

SN : *Hana, béök teuk golom lueuh.* / *hana, beʔoʔtəʔgələmləhəh* / “Yes, still a little longer”

R : *Behka, pajöh kuwéh-kuwéh dilè, ékneuh?/* *bəhka, pajəh kuweh kuweh dilə, eknəh/* (deliberately throw the food in front of informant 3) “Ok, eat the cake, do you want?”

SN : *Mangatéh mangat yéhmangat/* *manət eh manətyehmanət/* “tasty, eh tastyyeh tasty” (throw food into the body of the informant)

This conversation occurred in the morning when the informant 3 was in the house, researcher gathered together his friends. One of them offers a meal to informant. The appearance the *Mangat/manət* / at the data is in kind of Echolalia Behavior. Lingual forms of the auto Echolalia behavior is usually repeat words spoken themselves. Informant say that in a state of shocked when receiving the stimulation of research in the form of a throw food into the body of the informant. The Informant spontaneously repeat the word when it receives a stimulus. The lingual form can be identified as a word, as informant in the lingual led by quietly and quickly, so researcher did not catch the presence of an intonation that followed the appearance of the lingual.

### Sentences of *Latah*.

#### Data 4:

R : *Mabiet, si Tailah ho?* / *mabiət, sitailahhə/* “Aunty, where is Tailah?”

MN : *Hana kutu ho kaijak,/* *hanakutuhəkaʔija?* / “I don’t know where he went”

R : *ō..Kakeuhlah mabiet kujak woilè/* *o.. kakəhlahmabiətkujaʔwoilə* / (deliberately throw the paper into the body of informant) “Ow. Ok, I want to go home”

MN : *Aneuktrueng!/* *anəʔtruəŋ/* (aloud) “eggplant seeds” (in Acehnese, it refers to women clitoris)

This conversation occurs between researcher and informant 4. In the afternoon at 05.00 pm informant was sitting in front of the house when finished cleaning his house and then researcher endeavored to call the child informant. Then the researchers engage her in conversation. The

appearance of the informant 4 *Aneuktrueng!* /anɔʔtruəŋ / is a form of koprolalia behavior. The lingual appearance arises when informants felt shocked and surprised that receives stimuli in the form pounding throw objects such as paper, so it appears the shape lingual loud and clear. This shows the final intonation with a rising tone. Thus form a sentence *Aneuktrueng!* / anɔʔtruəŋ/. Other data also show the appearance of the surrounding lingual forms genitals on koprolalia behavior.

**Data 5:**

- R : *Ho meukarat that?* / həməkarat that/ “Where do you want to go?”  
ZA : *Ku neukjak blo gulè.* / kunɔʔjaʔblɔgule/ “I want to buy vegetables”  
R : *Pu gulè neuyak blo?* / pugulənɔyaʔblɔ / “Which is vegetable?”  
ZA : *Boh mulieng, kuneuk taguen kuwah pliek.* / bəhmuliəŋ, kunɔʔtaguənkuwahpliəʔ/ “Melinjo, I want to cook *Kuwah Pliek*” (*Kuwah Pliek* is a special dish of Acehnese).  
R : *ōman mangat sang!* / omanmaŋatsaŋ / “Wah, that is tasty” (the researcher’s friend set off fire crackers behind informant)  
ZA : *Aneuk tèt makeuh mangat!* / anɔʔtetmakəhmanjat / (spontaneously and loud intonation) “Your mother clitoris is tasty!”

This conversation occurs between researcher and informant 5. The informant was sitting in a store in the morning at 11.00 am. Then the researchers engage her in conversation Lingual form *Aneuk tet makeuh mangat!* / anɔʔtetmakəhmanjat / appearance at first informant is a form of echolalia behavior and koprolalia behavior. The shape of the lingual eruption occurs when the informant was surprised that receive stimuli or stimulus aloud. At the time of the informant was surprised, he uttered *Aneuk tet makeuh* / anɔʔtetmakəh / (koprolalia) and repetition of researcher sentences *mangat!* / manjat / aloud with high intonation. Intonation is identified at the time of utter lingual forms are final intonation rising tone like being called something. *Aneuk tet makeuh mangat!* / anɔʔtetmakəhmanjat / form with high intonation is a sentence.

**Data 6:**

- R : *Pat neuwo, pu neuwo iblang?* / pat nɔwɔ, punɔwɔ i blaŋ/ “Where did you from, from the farm?”  
IB : *Nyö, kuwo yak seumula.* / ŋɛ, kuwɔyaʔsəumula/ “Yes, I go back from planting rice”  
R : *Karōie!* /karoiə / (pointing toward the informant) “the water’s spill!”  
IB : *Yeh karoie, eh karoie!* / yehkaroiə, eh karoie / (shocked) “Yah, the water’s spill! Eh the water’s spill”

Based on the data above, it can be seen that the form lingual is auto Echolalia behavior. Auto Echolalia is a *latah* behavior which is usually repeated the words himself. It can be showed by informant 6 in the form of repetition of spoken sentence researcher, namely *Yeh karoie!ehkaroie!* / yehkaroiə, eh karoie /. Informant repeat that sentence because he felt surprised and then deliberately repeat it again. Identification of the sentence because the informants say, accompanied by their intonation which ended the final appearance of the lingual.

**Data 7:**

- R : *Ho meukarat that?/* həməkarat that/ “Where do you want to go?”  
NL : *Ku neuk jak blogulè./* kunəʔjaʔbləgule/ “I want to buy vegetables”  
R : *Pu gulè neuya kblo?/* pugulənəyaʔblo / “Which is vegetable?”  
NL : *Boh mulieng, ku neuk taguen kuwahpliek./* bəhmuliəŋ, kunəʔtaguənkuwahpliəʔ/  
“Melinjo, I want to cook *KuwahPliék*” (*KuwahPliék* is a special dish of Acehese).  
R : *ō man mangat sang/* omanmaŋatsaŋ / “Wah, that is tasty” (one of the researcher’s friend set off firecrackers behind informant)  
NL : *Aneuk tét ma keuh mangat! /* anəʔtətmakəwmaŋat / (spontaneously and loud intonation) “Your mother clitoris is tasty!”  
R : *Neu böh gulè nyan! /* nəbəhɡuləŋan/ (aloud and spontaneously) “Waste vegetable!”  
NL : *Böh gulè! Böhgulè! /* bəhɡuləbəhɡulə / (quickly and surprised immediately informant 7 performed commands by removing vegetable would be bought “ Put vegetable! Put vegetable!”

This conversation occurs between researcher and informant 2. The informant was sitting in a store in the morning at 11.00 am. The form of this sentence is Echopraxia behavior which is usually carried out the orders spontaneously when startled. The utterance *Böh gulè! / bəhɡulə/* of the sentence is also displayed on a high note and quickly by the informant. Lingual forms of sentences can be seen when the informant led lingual *Böh gulè! / bəhɡulə/* with a high tone or intonation, so the informant was showed the existence of a final intonation that followed the appearance of the sentence.

**Factors of Latah Behavior**

The factors of *latah* behavior of Bayu, North Aceh people is caused some factors. According to Gerungan (1996: 58) that the human interaction process differentiated into some factors, there are imitation, suggestion, identification, and sympathy.

*Imitation Factor*

There are interesting and attention on the individual high enough to imitate other individuals in order to gain social respect in certain environments (Gerungan, 1996: 60). *Latah* behavior of villagers at Bayu, North Aceh is the result of imitation or replication process. In imitation of this process, people will imitate the behavior of the previous *latah*. Residents usually have excessive attention to people who have a *latah* behavior. Through the concern arises a desire to emulate the behavior of *latah*, because the informant saw their compensation in the form of social appreciation of the environment.

*Suggestion Factors*

They provide a view that they have present talkative behavior is a form of humor that arises spontaneously and is not a form of imitative behaviors. When the receiving environment talkative person's behavior, then the suggestion that they provide successful. It can be seen from the number of individuals who provide the stimulus or stimuli to the talkative. In other words, this factor that causes a person or an individual gives his views or attitudes of the last accepted by others.

#### *Identification Factors*

The third factor is that people in the village of Bayu, North Aceh *latah* behavior is identified. Identification is the encouragement of individual to other individuals easily recognize the existence of something different. They provide identification and trying to determine the identity by acting of *latah*. *Latah* people identifies himself with spontaneously bring *latah* behavior that another individual is able to identify the informant through the behavior.

#### *Sympathy Factor*

*Latah* behavior that occurs in a *latah* person in the village of Bayu, North Aceh is not only because of imitation, suggestion and identification. The *latah* behavior can occur because of sympathy, which is the process of imitation in which a person can think and act as if he/she was a good imitation of the behavior of others positive and negative behaviors without constituted with careful thought. *Latah* behavior exhibited by people who have this *latah* behavior is because they put excessive sympathy towards the *latah*.

### **CONCLUSION**

Based on the results of this research on some people who behave *latah* of Bayu North Aceh. *Latah* language obtained a description of the appearance of the lingual *latah* form words and sentences. Appearance *latah* language closely related to the types of behavior that there are *latah*, (1) Echolalia is *latah* behavior which is mimicked the words and sentences given to others, (2) koprolalia is *latah* behavior which is usually uttered the words in the form of tools genital both male and female, and (3) auto Echolalia, namely *latah* behavior which is usually repeat words spoken alone (4) Echopraxia, which is usually *latah* behavior spontaneously execute commands when startled. Therefore, lingual forms that need to be differentiated according to type *latah* behavior in people in the village. *Latah* language form that appears is the lingual form the word of *latah* behavior of Echolalia, koprolalia, and auto Echolalia, and lingual form sentences on Echolalia behavior, koprolalia, auto Echolalia and Echopraxia.

The factors that cause people who behave *latah* of Bayu, North Aceh is because environmental influences factors they are consist of imitation, suggestion, identification, and sympathy factor.

#### *Limitations of the Study*

The scope of this study is *latah* of Bayu people. There are 2 women and 4 men. They are around 35-50 years old. This study focused on types *latah* behavior and factors of *latah* behavior Bayu people. In addition, Bayu is the capital of Syamtalira Bayu subdistrict North Aceh. North Aceh Regency is a regency in Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam (Aceh Special District), in Indonesia.

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IJLLALW

## ATTITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF APPRAISAL SYSTEM IN KICK ANDY TALK SHOW

**Christine Helena Natalia**

*English Applied Linguistics Study Program Postgraduate School, State University of Medan,  
Medan, Indonesia*

*Email: natalia.christine8@yahoo.co.id*

### ABSTRACT

*This article aims to analyze the attitudinal meaning in Indonesian Talk show namely Kick Andy Talk Show. The Framework of Appraisal is used in this study to investigate how linguistic elements realizes attitudinal analysis of appraisal system and what attitudinal value is of frequent occurrence in the talk show. The method of the study is qualitative content analysis. The data is taken from video and transcription of the conversation between the interviewer and interviewee in the talk show. It was analyzed through one of the subsystem of Appraisal, namely Attitude in the construal of three main semantic domains, namely affect, judgment, and appreciation. The result of this study find out that more attitudes occur in the category of appreciation rather than affect and judgment. The findings of this study are expected to contribute to the wider range of studies in this realm and would be beneficial for another researcher or students who are interested to conduct research related to appraisal framework.*

**KEYWORDS:** *Appraisal system, attitudinal meaning, affect, judgment, appreciation*

### INTRODUCTION

People communicate one another in order to represent or express whats in their mind. By using language they interact in order to convey thought, idea, or opinion. In this kind of interaction in which the language used as media, there are opinion-related meanings which are resources of evaluation or appraisal in language. In Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), appraisal theory is a framework developed to investigate the construal of interpersonal meanings. The Appraisal framework is an approach to explore, describe and explain the way language is used to evaluate, to adopt stances, to construct textual personas and to manage interpersonal positionings and relationships.

It focuses on how speakers express feelings, how they amplify them, and how they may incorporate additional voices in their discourses (Martin and White, 2005). There are three kinds of semantic resources which are incorporated in appraisal model. They are attitude (the expression of feelings), engagement (the sourcing of attitudes and negotiation of heteroglossic diversity), and graduation (the scaling of interpersonal force or for sharpening/blurring the focus of valuer relationships)

As one kind of appraisal resources, attitude plays an important role in the expression of interpersonal meanings of language. Attitude refers to the resources used to negotiate feelings, judge people's character and behavior, and evaluate the worth of things (Martin and Rose, 2003). It is a way that people behave towards someone or in a particular situation, especially when this shows how they feel. Attitude negotiates the manner in which attitudes are explicated and demonstrated.

In this study, the writer focused on the analysis of attitude meaning in Kick Andy Talk Show using the Appraisal Framework to find out how linguistic elements realized attitudinal analysis of appraisal system and what attitudinal value was of frequent occurrence in the talk show. The writer choose talk show as the source of the data because talk show is one of the media where presenter and guests express opinions on people, things and situation. In the talk show, opinion-related meanings in language as resources of evaluation or appraisal in language can be found. The writer wanted to find out the system of attitude which is concerned with resources speakers utilize for expressing positive and negative feelings involved in the construal of three main semantic domains, namely affect, judgment, and appreciation.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The system of attitude is concerned with resources speakers utilize for expressing positive and negative feelings involved in the construal of three main semantic domains, namely affect, judgment, and appreciation (Martin & White, 2005; White, 2011):

- a. Affect is concerned with the manifestation of the emotions brought alive to the speaker or the writer mainly by an external agent other than the speaker or writer himself/herself. It displays positive and negative feelings engendered in discourse producers.
- b. Judgment deals with registration of evaluation and assessment towards behaviors of other individuals by the speaker or the writer with an eye on the social norms and morality; i.e. passing judgment on individuals' behaviors through checking them against current social norms as the optimal patterns for behaving in a particular context.
- c. Appreciation is concerned with disclosure of evaluation of natural and semiotic phenomena by the speaker or the writer, i.e. passing judgment, but on such natural/semiotic phenomena.

Appraisal/Evaluation is a framework for analyzing evaluation in language. It has emerged from within Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday 1994; Matthiessen 1995).

## RESEARCH QUESTION

This study aims to examine the attitudinal meaning in Indonesian Talk show namely Kick Andy Talk Show. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following research question:

1. What attitudinal meaning used by the presenter an guest star in the talk show?
2. What is the most dominant attitudinal meaning used by the presenter an guest star in the talk show regarding Type (Affect, Judgment or Appreciation) ?

## METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted by applying descriptive qualitative design. According to Kumar (1998) the descriptive method is an attempt to describe systematically a situation, problem or phenomenon, or to provide information about, say the condition of living in the communities or an issue.

This research is conducted systematically by following the technique of data collecting and data analysis. The source of data in this study was taken from one of Indonesia Talk Show, Kick Andy "Kreatifitas yang Mendunia". The data were taken from video and transcription of the conversation between the presenter and two interviewees in the talk show. The data were analyzed through one of the subsystem of Appraisal, namely Attitude in the construal of three main semantic domains, namely affect, judgment, and appreciation (Martin and White, 2005).

## RESULT AND DISCUSSION

### *The Analysis of Affect*

The following part will explain and analyze in detail the affect occurs from the three speakers in the talk show:

#### *Andy F. Noya*

1. Terus apa manfaatnya main game ini ya, saya *ga paham*.  
(So, what is the benefit of playing this game, I *don't understand*)  
"*Ga paham (don't understand)*" is negative affect. The evaluated is the benefit of playing game. It is a "quality" affect. The word "*ga paham*" reveals the condition of the speaker. It is presented in negative affect. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about the opinion which is stated by the other speaker which makes him surprised and confused.

#### *Oka Agung*

1. Kemudian berhenti karena *capek* juga making bed, bersihin kamar, dan jadinya *bosan*  
(The, I quitted because I'm *tired* making bed, cleaning the room, So I became *bored*)  
"*Capek (Tired)*" and "*Bosan (Bored)*" are negative affect. The evaluated is the job that the speaker did. It is a "quality" affect. The word "*Capek (Tired)*" and "*Bosan (Bored)*" reveal the condition of the speaker which presented in negative affect. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about the job that he did in the hotel.
2. Itu awalnya karena saya *capek* bekerja di hotel  
(At first, it is because I'm *tired* of working in the hotel.)  
"*Capek(Tired)*" is negative affect. The evaluated is the job that the speaker did. It is a "quality" affect. The word "*Capek(Tired)*" reveals the condition of the speaker. It is presented in negative affect. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about the job that he did in the hotel.
3. Nah..waktu disodori itu, saya *putus asa* sekali kerja di hotel waktu itu.  
(So..when it was offered to me, I was very *desperate* working at the hotel at that time.)  
"*Putus asa (desperate)*" is negative affect. The evaluated is still the job that the speaker did. It is a "quality" affect. The word "*Putus asa (desperate)*" reveals the condition of the

- speaker. It is presented in negative affect. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about the job that he did in the hotel.
4. Ya waktu itu sebenarnya merasa *sedih* juga. Dari temen yang semua cuma ada di Bali lowongan pekerjaan animasi satu-satunya kok bisa pecah gitu.  
(At that time, I was *sad* too. All of my friend in Bali who works in the only Animation Company were disband)  
"Sedih (*sad*)" is negative affect. The evaluated is the disbanding of the animation company. It is a "quality" affect. The word "Sedih (*sad*)" reveals the condition of the speaker. It is presented in negative affect. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about the disbanding of the animation company.
  5. Setelah tutup saya kembali lagi ke denpasar dan memutuskan untuk tetap mengikuti PT. Marsha , tapi *sayang* sama juga keadaannya.  
(After it's closed, I went back to Denpasar and decided to stay in Marsha Company, But *unfortunately* the situation was the same)  
"Sayang (*unfortunately* )" is the negative "comment" affect in the sample. It is a quality adverb used as an interpersonal theme to comment on the feeling of speaker about the situation in the company he worked in. This expresses his negative attitude towards the situation in the company he worked in which finally closed too.
  6. Jadi waktu itu saya kepikiran,saya merasa *kasihan* sekaliuangnya kalau sudah untuk mendaftar ternyata tidak sesuai dengan seperti yang diharapkan.  
(So, I was thinking of that. I felt that it was a pity that they have paid to register but they didn't get what the're expected. )  
"Kasihan (*pitty*)" is negative affect. The evaluated is misconception of the students who wanted to study animation making. It is a "quality" affect. The word "Kasihan (*pitty*)" reveals the condition of the speaker. It is presented in negative affect of unhappiness. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about the students' misconception.

#### *Arif Widihasa*

1. Sebenarnya dua-duanya sama, sama-sama *menantang* sama-sama *susah*, punya kesulitan sendiri.  
(In fact both are the same, equally challenging, equally difficult, It has it's own difficulty)  
"Menantang (challenging )" and "Susah (difficult)" are negative affect. The evaluated is games and homework. It is a "quality" affect. The word "Menantang (challenging )" and "Susah (difficult)" reveal the condition of the speaker which presented in negative affect. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about games and homework
2. Saya sebagai anak kecil langsung merasa *dihargai*, terus *susah* kan game nya terus kita mikir main-main dapat hadiah, tiap mukul moster dapat hadiah, artinya di games itu interaksi kecil kita dapat hadiah.  
(I as a child instantly feel *appreciated*, beside that playing game is difficult, right then we think in games we got a gift, every time we beat moster we got a gift, which means that in the games every small interaction we make are rewarded)  
"Dihargai (*appreciated*)" here is positive affect. The appraiser is the speaker. It is a "process" affect. The word "dihargai (*appreciated*)" express the speaker feeling. The speaker expresses his attitude by appraising the attitude of the parents.

- “Susah difficult”) is negative affect. The evaluated is games. It is a "quality" affect. The word “susah difficult”) reveal the condition of the speaker which presented in negative affect. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about games and homework
3. Nah kita *bingung* kan gimana caranya masuk di game industry which is waktu itu perusahaannya juga sedikit.  
(So, we're getting *confused* about how to get in to game industry which was consited limited companies at that time)  
"Bingung (*confused*)" is negative affect. It is a "quality" affect. The word "bingung (*confused*)" reveals the condition of the speaker. It is presented in negative affect. It reveals the negative feeling of the speaker about their confusion to find ways to join the game industry.
  4. Sampai berkali-kali terus *sadar* oh saya ga boleh lewat ini.  
(After it was done repeatedly then (he/she) *realized* that (he/she) could not pass through that way)  
"Sadar (I)" is positive affect. It is a "process" affect. The word "sadar (realized)" express the speaker feeling. It reveals the positive feeling of the speaker in finding out the right way to do things.
  5. *Menariknya*, karena kita kebetulan focus market Indonesia jadi gamenya harus gratis.  
(The I part is that we focused in Indonesian market, so the game must be free)  
"Menariknya(*interesting*)" is the positive "comment" affect in the sample. It is a quality adverb used as an interpersonal theme to comment on the feeling of speaker about the Indonesia market of game. This expresses his positive attitude towards the situation of Indonesia market of game.
  6. Jadi game-game masa kecil kami sih, jadi merasa *senang* sekali bisa bekerja sama.  
(So this is the game we play in our childhood, so we are very *happy* to be able to cooperate.)  
"Senang (*happy*)" is positive affect. It is a "quality" affect. The word "Senang (happy)" reveals the condition of the speaker. It is presented in positive affect. It reveals the positive feeling of the speaker of being able to work together with the company which produce the gae that he played in his childhood.
  7. Kita *bersyukur* banget kita banyak dapat apresiasi, salah satu yang internasional kita pernah menang Best Gaming Award itu di San Fransico 2010.  
(we are very *grateful that* that we got a lot of appreciation, one of the international appreciation that we got is The Best Gaming Awards in San Francisco 2010)  
"Bersyukur (*grateful*) " is positive affect. It is a "process" affect. The word "bersyukur (*grateful*) " express the speaker feeling. The speaker expresses his attitude by being grateful about their winning in Best Gaming Award itu di San Fransico 2010.

Table 1: Distribution of Affect

		Affect			Total Number of Affect
		Quality	Process	Comment	
Speaker (AFN)	1	0 (Positive) 1 (Negative)	0 (Positive) 0 (Negative)	0 (Positive) 0 (Negative)	1
Speaker (OA)	2	0 (Positive) 6 (Negative)	0 (Positive) 0 (Negative)	0 (Positive) 1 (Negative)	7
Speaker (Aw)	3	1 (Positive) 4 (Negative)	1 (Positive) 0 (Negative)	3 (Positive) 0 (Negative)	9
Total Number		12	1	4	17

### The Analysis of Judgement

The following part will explain and analyze in detail the judgement occurs from the three speakers in the talk show:

#### Andy F. Noya

1. Kreativitas Anak anak muda Indonesia *tidak kalah* dengan bangsa bangsa lain etidaknya itu yang terlihat dari tamu kita kali ini.  
(Indonesian youth's creativity *is not inferior* to other nations, at least it was shown by our guest stars today)  
"Tidak kalah (*not inferior*)" is an explicitly positive social esteem judgment, and evaluates the capacity of the people who is invited to the talk show.
2. Tamu kita berikutnya, *tidak kalah hebatnya* karena prestasinya juga diakui secara internasional.  
(Our next guest star is *not less wonderful* because his achievements are also internationally recognized.)  
"Tidak kalah hebat (*not less wonderful*)" is an explicitly positive social esteem judgment, and evaluates the capacity of the people who is invited to the talk show.
3. Jadi dia ini *hebat sekali* ni, aku pilih dia.  
(So he is *very wonderful*, I choose him)  
"Hebat sekali (*very wonderful*)" is an explicitly positive social esteem judgment, and evaluates the capacity of the people who play the game.

#### Oka Agung

1. Dan kebetulan saya *spesialis* di bidang background nya saja  
(And I happen to be the *specialist* of the background part.)  
"Spesialis (*specialist*)" is an explicitly positive social esteem judgment, and evaluates the capacity of Oka Agung in background making.
2. Waktu kuliah *tidak serius*, yaitu jadi sambil kuliah sambil melukis dan jualan di beberapa artshop di seputaran Denpasar.  
(During college I was *not serious*, so while studying at the college I painted and sold the paintings in some artshop in around Denpasar)

- The sampled in italicized phrase is an explicitly negative social esteem judgment; it presents "tenacity".
3. Karena memang animasi tidak ada sama sekali waktu itu yang menggarap , orang pun masih *awam* sekali apa itu animasi,  
(It is because at that time no one worked in Animation field, people are still very *unknowledgeable* of what animation was)  
"Awam (*unknowledgeable*)" is an explicitly negative social esteem judgment, and evaluates the capacity of the society who are still not familiar with animation.
  4. Toh kita juga sudah *bisa*.  
(Anyway we were *able to* do it too)  
"Sudah *bias (able to)*" is an explicitly positive social esteem judgment, and evaluates the capacity of Oka Agung and his brother in background making.

Arif Widihasa

1. Sebagai anak kecil yang *sangat polos* yang melihat game dan PR sebagai sesuatu yang sangat objektif.  
(As a *very innocent* child who view game and homework as a very objective things)  
"Sangat polos (*very innocent*)" is an explicitly positive social esteem judgment; the appraised is the children. It belongs to "normality", and the description of the children in viewing game and homework.
2. Game ini sebenarnya kita design untuk teman-teman yang *sibuk* sih.  
(Actually, this game was designed for *busy* people.)  
"Sibuk (*busy*)" is an explicitly negative social esteem judgment; the appraised is the society who play game. It belongs to "normality", and the description of the gamers who has a lot of activity.

Table 2: Distribution of Social Esteem and Social Sanction Judgment

		Judgement				Total Number of Affect
		Social Esteem		Sanction Judgment		
		Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	
Speaker 1 (AFN)	1	3	0	0	0	3
Speaker 2 (OA)	2	2	2	0	0	4
Speaker 3 (Aw)	3	1	1	0	0	2
Total Number		6	3	0	0	9

Table 3: Distribution of Explicit and Implicit Judgment

		Judgement				Total Number of Affect
		Explicit		Implicit		
		Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	
Speaker 1 (AFN)		3	0	0	0	3
Speaker 2 (OA)		2	2	0	0	4
Speaker 3 (Aw)		1	1	0	0	2
Total Number		6	3	0	0	9

### The Analysis of Appreciation

The following part will explain and analyze in detail the appreciation occurs from the three speakers in the talk show:

#### Andy F. Noya

1. Nah ini *menarikya* pada saat film kartun animasi Doraemon dan Shincan lagi diatas puncak, dan sangat digemari masyarakat terutama di Indonesia, justru perusahaan anda bubar.  
(The *interesting* part is when Doraemon and Schinchan animation movie in the peak of success and very popular in society especially in Indonesia your company were disband)  
"Menarik (*interesting*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the reason behind the disbanding of the company.
2. Tapi saya dengar justru pada saatitu anda dan teman teman membuat karya yang *bagus* juga itu.  
(But I herad that at that time you and your collegues made a *great* work)  
"Bagus (*great*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the work of Oka and his friends.
3. Sudut pandang atas, itu yang paling *susah*.  
(The top view point is the *most difficult* part)  
"Paling Susah (*most difficult*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the background animation.
4. Artinya nama Anda ini sudah *terkenal* di pasar international.  
(It means that you are *famous* in international market)  
"Terkenal (*famous*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the reputation of Oka in international market.
5. Sekarang anda memberikan kontribusi pada sebuah film animasi yang *sangat terkenal* di dunia, Doraemon ya kemudian ada, Shincan.  
(Now, you gives contribution in a *very famous* animation movie in the word, they are Doraemon and also Shincan)

- "Sangat terkenal (*very famous*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is animation movie.
6. Pelajaran apa yang paling *penting* yang anda petik dari perjalanan hidup anda ini?  
(What is the most *important* lesson which you learn from your life experience?)  
"Penting (*important*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is life lesson of Oka.
7. Baik, ini cita-cita *mulia* ya.  
(Okay, this is a *noble* goals)  
"Mulia (*noble*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the life goal of Oka Agung.
8. Di kaos ini *menarik* nih  
(The (writings) in this shirt is *interesting*)  
"Menarik (*interesting*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the quote in the t-shirt
9. Saya rasa *agak kontradiksi* ya, kurang tidur tapi prestasi *bagus*.  
(I felt it is quite *contradictory*, lack of sleep but has a good achievements)  
"Kontradiksi (*contradictory*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the argument of Arif
10. Itu hal *positif* yang Arif dapat dari game  
(That us the *positive* things Arif can get from game)  
"Positif (*positive*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the game
11. *Membosankan*  
(It is *boring*)  
"Membosankan (*boring*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the ordinary staff training.
12. Pertanyaan *bagus*, ini pekerjaan saya seperti ini.  
(*Good* question, this is what my work is)  
"Bagus (*good*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the work of the question given by the presenter.
13. Diantara seratusan games tadi, mana yang paling *populer*?  
(Among the hundreds game, which one is the most *popular* game?)  
"Populer (*popular*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the game

*Oka Agung*

1. Lah ini *bukan* nasibnya *tambah bagus* ya berhenti bekerja di suatu hotel  
(Well, the fortune was *not getting better* whaen I quit working at the hotel)  
"Bukan tambah bagus (*not getting better*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the destiny of the speaker, Mr. Oka
2. Gajinya memang *nggak seberapa*  
(*The salary was not worth the work*)  
"nggak seberapa (*was not worth*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the salary for working at the hotel

3. Ya memang nasib saya *bagus* waktu itu  
(Yes, I have a *good* fortune at that time)  
"Bagus (*good*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the destiny of the speaker, Mr. Oka
4. Jadi saya memberikan harga yang *sangat miring* sekali untuk pertama sekali.  
(So I gave a *very cheap* price for the first time)  
"*sangat miring (very cheap)*" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "composition". The appraised is the salary for making the animation.
5. Ya saya lakukan dan memang hasilnya sangat *memuaskan*.  
(Yes, I did it and indeed the result is *satisfactory*)  
"Memuaskan *satisfactory* " is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the result of the background animation.
6. Kalau yang paling *susah* bikin latar belakang itu bikin view, kota dari atas, jadi banyak sekali banyak bangunan  
(The most *difficult* part is to make the back ground of the city view from the top viewpoint, so there should be a lot of buildings)  
"Susah (*difficult*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the background animation.
7. Ya, itu sangat *susah* sekali.  
(Yes, it's very *difficult*)  
"Susah (*difficult*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "valuation". The appraised is the background animation.

*Arif Widihasa*

1. Pertanyaan *bagus* sih.  
(It's a *good* question, though)  
"Bagus (*good*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the question given by the presenter.
2. Nah yang *menarik* adalah anak kecil yang polos ini pasti mau belajar kan?  
(So, the *interesting* part is of course this innocent child wanted to study, right?)  
"Menarik (*interesting*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the questions of Andy.
3. Kalo rankingnya *bagus*, boleh main game.  
(If the rank is *good*, I was allowed to play game)  
"Bagus (*interesting*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the rank of Arif at school.
4. Kan namanya juga baru belajar juga dapat nilai *jelek*.  
(it is because I was just start to learn and got a *bad* grade)  
"Jelek (*bad*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the study score
5. *Kurang*. Kan ga mungkin setelah saya keluar dari sini terus saya dapat sepuluh point buat interview dari Kick Andy  
(It's *lacking*. It's impossible after I git out of here I got ten points for the interview from Kick Andy)

- "Kurang (*lacking*)" is negative appreciation, and it belongs to "composition". The appraised is the positive feedback given in reality
6. Nah, pertanyaan *bagus*.  
(It's a *good* question)  
"Bagus(*good*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the question given by the presenter.
7. Oh ini ada sepatu *keren* banget ni  
(Oh, here there are very *cool* shoes)  
"Keren (*cool*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is shoes in the game.
8. Jadi tim ini keeper hari ini dia, karena dia statusnya paling *bagus*.  
(So, today he will be the keeper, because he has the best status)  
"Paling bagus (best)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is the game status of the gamer.
9. Gimana keliling sepeda jadi lebih *seru*, karena keliling kota ada petanya, ada gamenya  
(How to make cycling more *exciting*, because there are mapt to went around the city, there is game too)  
"Seru (*exciting*)" is positive appreciation, and it belongs to "reaction". The appraised is biking.

Table 4: The Distribution of Appreciation

	Appreciation		Total Number of Affect
	Positive	Negative	
Speaker 1 (AFN)	10	3	13
Speaker 2 (OA)	2	5	7
Speaker 3 (Aw)	7	2	9
Total Number	10	10	29

## CONCLUSION

Based on the research findings, there are three types of attitude used in the talk show. They are Affect, Judgement and Appreciation. In Kick Andy Talk Show more attitudes occur in the category of appreciation rather than judgment and affect. Appreciation contains values, which express both aesthetic and non-aesthetic categories of social valuation, and it includes meanings such as significance and harmfulness.

Positive appreciation is dominant in the appreciation distribution and Andy as the presenter is the one who did most of the appreciation. This is because in talk show, the subject discussed is about the World wide Creativity and the appraised (the guest) give positive meaning to the subject mentioned in the talk show, so positive appreciation is preferable.

### ***Limitation of The Study***

In this study, the writer focused on analysing the attitudinal meaning in Kick Andy Talk Show to find out how linguistic elements realized attitudinal analysis of appraisal system and what attitudinal value was of frequent occur in the talk show. The data were analyzed through only one of the subsystem of Appraisal, namely Attitude in the construal of three main semantic domains, namely affect, judgment, and appreciation (Martin and White, 2005). The source of data in this study was taken from the conversation between the presenter and two interviewees in one session of Indonesia Talk Show programme, Kick Andy with topic discussion “Kreatifitas yang Mendunia/Worldwide Creativity”.

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## SEMANTIC EMOTION IN MAHER ZAIN'S LYRIC OF SONGS: SEMANTIC ANALYSIS

**Novita Husna Nasution**

*English Applied Linguistics Study Program, Post Graduate School, State University of Medan  
(novitahusnanstgmail.com)*

**Sri Heryani Nasution**

*English Applied Linguistics Study Program, Post Graduate School, State University of Medan  
(Sriheryani93@gmail.com)*

### ABSTRACT

*Music is said to be the language of emotions. A song is a relatively short musical composition for the human voice (possibly accompanied by other musical instruments), with feature words (lyrics). Lyrical analysis for classification is a relatively new area of research. This descriptive qualitative research discussed about Semantic Emotion in Maher Zain's Lyric. Lyrics are typically analyzed as part of a music classification task, where songs are classified by genre, mood, or emotion. The research aims to find how semantic emotion of Maher Zain's Lyrics was represented in his songs. There were seven songs of Maher Zain which were taken randomly as the source of the data. By using the theory of Shaver as the tool in analyzing the lyrics, it was found that there are twenty nine love emotion, fifteen joy emotion and nine sadness emotion in seven Maher Zain's songs. The songs are about, regret, family and love. It was also found one kind of emotion that was not included in the kinds of emotion based on the theory of Shaver namely grateful. The dominant emotions that used in Maher Zain's song is love emotion. By knowing the semantic s emotions of a song people could be more understand about the meaning and the purpose conveyed by the song. The emotions can show sadness, joy, happiness, love, satisfaction, and maybe other emotions. So, not all feeling is expressed by one emotion and show it directly. We can show it by another word and by describing the feeling.*

**Keyword:** *Semantic, Emotion, Song lyric, Music*

### INTRODUCTION

When one is talking about emotion in one's own language, it is very easy to feel that such concepts must exist universally. Everyone, one feels, must know what it is like to be happy or sad, or have felt love or hate - after all, when watching someone on television, whose language we do not understand, protesting about some injustice, we may need someone to inform us about the injustice, but we can deduce the people's emotions about it from their facial expressions and gestures. Maybe we can deduce some general negative notion about the injustice, but we may need to understand what is being said before we can be clear whether the dominant emotion being expressed is anger, hate or frustration, and it is quite possible that the relevant emotion words in the unknown language may present problems for whoever is translating or interpreting for us. The language relativists will find that the lexicon of Emotion can be shown to vary

between different cultures, languages and social groups. As we shall see, psychologists and linguists have in fact found that individuals using the same language vary in their usage of Emotion lexemes more significantly than in other semantic areas.

In linguistics the problem of emotions arises from the problem of a language function, i.e. to express and arouse emotions in the process of communication. Since a language is the way to gain social experience, any experience is fixed in the language units, with the help of which people express and perceive emotions.

Music is said to be the language of emotions and the activity of listening to music is indeed a part of everyday life. If questioned about the song one would want to hear at any particular moment, one would surely pick a song that would be relevant to his mood. Musical aspects definitely play an important role in deciding the emotion of a song. Even so, most people are able to connect with the words of a song better than its musical features. In most cases, the words of the song are what truly express the emotions associated with the music, while the musical aspects are generally made to revolve around the lyrical theme.

In this study, the researcher wanted to know how semantic emotions were used in Maher Zain's song, what is the dominant emotion used in Maher Zain's song. Maher Zain is the singer of Religious song, Family song, love song, Child song and so on. The analysis of song lyrics can provide important meta-information about a song, such as its genre, emotion, and theme; however, obtaining this information can be difficult. Classifying a song based solely on its lyrics can be challenging for a variety of reasons, and as yet no single algorithm results in highly accurate classifications. The researcher choose seven songs which were chosen randomly to be analyzed, they are:, For The Rest Of My Life, Number One Foer Me, Forgive Me, One Big Family, I Love You So, Hold My Hand and My little Girl.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotions are psychological states, but not all psychological states are emotional; for example, neither a state of exhaustion nor a state of confusion is an emotion. Emotions are sometimes expressed facially, but not all facial expressions indicate emotions; neither a grimace of pain nor a frown of puzzlement is an emotional expression. Emotions also involve feelings, but not all feelings indicate emotions; neither hunger pangs nor a feeling of certainty is an emotional feeling. Most people would readily agree to these assertions. They involve more or less clear cases. The question posed in this paper is whether we can establish, on the basis of such clear cases, a set of criteria that will also differentiate emotions from non emotion in less clear cases.

Emotions are based on one of two specific kinds of communication in such systems. One kind of communication is propositional. Propositional signals are symbolic: i.e. they have internal structure that plays a part in denotation within the system. The other kind of communication is non-propositional. It is simpler, cruder, and evolutionarily older. Non-propositional signals have no internal symbolic structure or significance to the system. They do not denote anything. We will call these 'emotion modes'" (Johnson-Laird and Oatley, 1987: 31 -2). An act seen as

committed in the heat of emotion has a different legal status than the same act carried out in a calm manner. We wonder, "Is this really love?" and "Do I still love him?", according to Schachter and Singer (1962) and Harre (1987), to have an emotion can depend on how we label ourselves in terms of anger, happiness, and so on. Psychologists use these same words in communicating with patients or subjects and in framing hypotheses for research.

The theory of emotions that motivates the semantic analysis has been presented in detail elsewhere (see Oatley & Johnson-Laird, 1987). Its central assumption is that emotions serve a communicative function both within the brain and within the social group. In both cases, emotions are simple signals that propagate pervasively within the system. Unlike the signals of a natural language, these signals do not have a propositional structure. The meaning of a propositional signal depends on combining the meanings of its parts according to its syntactic structure, whereas the meaning of a non-propositional signal is not composed out of the meanings of its parts. Its parts have no meaning in themselves. A good example of a non-propositional signal is an alarm call: It has a structure that enables it to be easily recognized, but its significance does not depend on combining the meanings of its parts according to the overall structure of the signal.

Here is a deeper list of emotions as described in Shaver et al. (2001), where emotions were categorized into a short tree structure. The researcher will apply the Shaver's theory.

Primary emotion	Secondary emotion	Tertiary emotions
<b>Love</b>	Affection	Adoration, affection, love, fondness, liking, attraction, caring, tenderness, compassion, sentimentality
	Lust	Arousal, desire, lust, passion, infatuation
<b>Joy</b>	Longing	Longing
	Cheerfulness	Amusement, bliss, cheerfulness, gaiety, glee, jolliness, joviality, joy, delight, enjoyment, gladness, happiness, jubilation, elation, satisfaction, ecstasy, euphoria
	Zest	Enthusiasm, zeal, zest, excitement, thrill, exhilaration
	Contentment	Contentment, pleasure
	Pride	Pride, triumph
	Optimism	Eagerness, hope, optimism
	Enthrallment	Enthrallment, rapture
<b>Surprise</b>	Relief	Relief
	Surprise	Amazement, surprise, astonishment
<b>Anger</b>	Irritation	Aggravation, irritation, agitation, annoyance, grouchiness, grumpiness
	Exasperation	Exasperation, frustration

<b>Sadness</b>	Rage	Anger, rage, outrage, fury, wrath, hostility, ferocity, bitterness, hate, loathing, scorn, spite, vengefulness, dislike, resentment
	Disgust	Disgust, revulsion, contempt
	Envy	Envy, jealousy
	Torment	Torment
	Suffering	Agony, suffering, hurt, anguish
	Sadness	Depression, despair, hopelessness, gloom, glumness, sadness, unhappiness, grief, sorrow, woe, misery, melancholy
	Disappointment	Dismay, disappointment, displeasure
<b>Fear</b>	Shame	Guilt, shame, regret, remorse
	Neglect	Alienation, isolation, neglect, loneliness, rejection, homesickness, defeat, dejection, insecurity, embarrassment, humiliation, insult
	Sympathy	Pity, sympathy
	Horror	Alarm, shock, fear, fright, horror, terror, panic, hysteria, mortification
	Nervousness	Anxiety, nervousness, tenseness, uneasiness, apprehension, worry, distress, dread

Lyrical analysis for classification is a relatively new area of research. Due largely to sites such as Lyrics.com and elyrics.net, millions of lyrics are now available on the Internet to researchers in semi-structured formats that are amenable to webscraping. Lyrics are typically analyzed as part of a music classification task, where songs are classified by genre, mood, or emotion (Cho and Lee, 2006; Hu and Downie, 2010).

McKay et al., (2010) use lyrical features combined with audio, cultural, and symbolic features to classify music by genre. They find that lyrics alone are poor indicators of a song's genre, but that when lyrical analysis is combined with other features, their system is able to achieve high genre classification accuracy. However, some of the songs in their data set were instrumental, so there may not have been enough data for training. The Encyclopedia of Americana (1998) defines song as a short musical work set to a poetic text, with equal importance given to the music and to the words. It may be written for one or several voices and is generally performed with instrument accompaniment.

Songs can contain a series of negative lyrics but end on an uplifting, positive note, or vice versa. Love songs in particular can be misleading because the lyrics often express how happy the singer was while in love, and then at the end of the song the singer expresses his sadness over a sudden breakup. Jamalus (1988: 5) states that songs can be said as art works if they are sounded (sung) with the accompaniment of musical devices.

Songs may not contain any of the subjectivity clues in a general subjectivity lexicon, yet express positive or negative emotions. For example, the song "It's Still Rock And Roll To Me" by Billy Joel includes the following stanza:

What's the matter with the clothes I'm wearing?  
Can't you tell that your tie's too wide?  
Maybe I should buy some old tab collars?  
Welcome back to the age of jive.

It's not immediately apparent which of the words in this stanza would have positive connotations; yet, taken together, the stanza expresses a positive emotion. This occurs in both positive and negative songs, and it can be difficult to separate the overall emotion of a song from the sentiments expressed by each line of its lyrics.

Songs can express positive emotions about negative things, and vice versa. Rap songs in particular suffer from this problem: their lyrics often express positive emotions about negative events like shootings and robbery. This adds an additional level of confusion to a classification system.

### RESEARCH QUESTION

- what is the dominant semantic emotion used in Maher Zain's song?

### RESEARCH METHOD

The researcher applies library research. Library research is a research that analyzes a document, books and so on. The purpose of this research is to collect the data and information by the material helping. Some of the data of library research is collected by historic descriptive research. (Mardalis, 2007. 28)

States official documents data include memos, minutes for meetings, newsletters, policy documents, books, proposals, codes of ethics, student's records, statement of philosophy, news releases and the like. Based on statement, Maher Zain's lyric of song is available to be researched.

### RESULT AND DISCUSSION

There are 29 love emotion that use in 7 Maher Zain's songs. 15 joy emotion and 9 sadness emotion. The songs are about, regret, family and love. Based on the title, "For the rest of my life" uses 6 affection emotions (love), 7 cheerfulness emotions (joy) and the song doesn't use the surprise, anger, and fear emotions. The researcher presumes it is because the song is talking about his love to his wife. So, he just expresses love and joy emotion.

The second song, "Number one for me" uses 4 affection emotions (love) and doesn't use the other emotions. The song is talking about his love for his mom, but sometimes he expresses his love not by saying I Love U, but by showing his willingness to make his mom happy. For

example “I’d like to put a smile on your face every day”. So he only use 4 statement to express love. He also express his joy by telling his activity and another way.

The song entitled “Forgive me” uses 6 sadness emotions. The song is talking about regret. He also show his regret by many ways. Sometime he just show it by saying he will prove and by saying his mistake. For example “I wish that I could find the strength to change my life”. So, not always show his sadness in the sentences. No other emotions in the song.

“One big family” uses 2 affection emotions (love), 1 cheerfulness emotion (joy) and 1 sadness (sadness). The song is talking about family, most of all he show his love by saying the relationship between them and describing how is family. For example “Oh, you’re my brother, You’re my sister”, it means he love them, he doesn’t angry to them and does not fear.

The next song entitled “I love you so” uses 11 affection emotions and 2 cheerfulness emotions. The song is talking about his love to Allah. Not all sentences show love expression, but sometimes he show it by saying his grateful to God. It means he love Allah. For example, “Whatever I say could never be enough”.

“Hold my hand” song uses 3 affection emotions (love) and 2 sadness emotions. The song is talking about brotherly feeling. He doesn’t use the other emotions. She just show how is the brotherhood. For example “Hold my hand my friend, We can save the good spirit of me and you”.

The last song is “My little girl uses 3 affection emotions (love) and 6 cheerfulness emotions (joy). No other emotions because the song is talking about his grateful, love, and joy to his girl.

From the findings, the researcher can found that so many ways to express our feeling or emotions. The theory said that there are 6 kinds of emotions, they are love, joy, sadness, surprise, fear, and anger. Adit Jamdar and friends found the kinds of emotions in their research that entitled “Emotion Analysis of Songs Based on Lyrical and Audio Features”. They found happy, anger, fear, and sadness. But in this research the researcher found the other emotions, it is grateful. The emotions can show sadness, joy, happiness, love, satisfaction, and maybe other emotions. So, not all feeling is expressed by one emotion and show it directly. We can show it by another word and by describing the feeling. For example, “I praise Allah for sending me you, my love”, “For the rest of my life I’ll be with you I’ll stay by your side honest and true” and so many other sentences.

Overall, it was concluded that by knowing the semantic s emotions of a song people could be more understand about the meaning and the purpose conveyed by the song and that could make the listener become more enjoyable in listening or even singing the song.

The researcher suggested to do the further research on the semantic analysis on the different genre of songs and different theme of song based on the emotion categories. The purpose is to

find whether there will be any differences in the using of emotion of “grateful” when it comes to another theme of song beside religion song.

## CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to find out the dominant semantic emotion used in Maher Zain’s lyric of songs. It was found that the dominant semantic emotion used is the love emotion. This study also found that there is another emotion that was not included in the types of emotion by Shaver namely grateful. Finally, by analyzing the semantic emotion in songs, it will be easier for the listener to enjoy the song and to comprehend the purpose of the song and the messages delivered by the song.

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## THE COMPARATIVE EFFECT OF TEACHING COLLABORATIVE STRATEGIC READING AND METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES ON EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION

**Mehdi Karimi**

*MA in TEFL Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran, Faculty of Foreign Languages, English  
Department, Tehran, Iran  
karimimahdi39@yahoo.com*

**Abdollah Baradaran**

*Department of English Language, Central Tehran Branch Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran  
baradaranabdollah@yahoo.com*

### ABSTRACT

This study aimed at investigating the comparative effect of two different treatments\_ one of which emphasized collaborative strategic reading and the other metacognitive reading strategies\_ on the reading comprehension of learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). Sixty intermediate Iranian male learners of English at Nasser Language House (NLH) in Gorgan were selected and divided into two experimental groups (collaborative strategic reading and metacognitive reading strategies) and received sixteen sessions of instruction. The two experimental groups were taught two different sets of reading strategies at three stages of pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading. The learners in both groups took two types of tests as a general proficiency test and a posttest on reading comprehension. In order to test the null hypothesis, the two groups' mean scores of the reading comprehension posttest were compared through an independent samples *t*-test. Therefore, the results of this study motivate EFL teachers to provide their learners with metacognitive reading strategy training which can lead them to better reading comprehension. In this regard, teachers can provide their learners with guess provoking setting, encouraging participation in risk-taking activities, helping learners to find and use contextual clues in the text to explore the meaning of unknown words, activating learners relevant schemata in reading warm-up activities, minimizing the use of dictionaries, and giving reasonable feedbacks to incorrect guesses, to prepare learners for a better use of reading strategies in general, global, and problem solving reading strategies in particular.

**KEYWORDS:** Collaborative Strategic Reading, Metacognitive Reading Strategies, Reading Comprehension

### INTRODUCTION

#### *Reading Comprehension*

Reading is one of the most influential and crucial skills that a person has to acquire in his/ her life since it has always had a lot to do with knowledge, development of thoughts, new opportunities ,

actualizing one's potentials, and so forth. Liu, Chen and Chang (2010) believed that reading is one of the language skills that stimulate the acquisition of knowledge and exchange of information in language learning context. Rashtchi and Keyvanfar (2010) stated that reading is, the same as listening, a receptive skill, during which readers decode the message of the writer and try to recreate it anew. Therefore, reading can be recognized as some sort of discussion between the reader and the writer which helps the reader obtain the intention of the author Guthrie and Wigfield (1999, as cited in Anastasiou & Griva, 2009) emphasized that it is not possible for a person to comprehend a text accidentally. If a person is not aware of the text, not attending to it, not choosing to make meaning from it, or not giving cognitive effort to knowledge construction, little comprehension will happen. Comprehension is the goal of both reading and listening. Reading comprehension is critical for every student to gain important information from written texts. Successful reading comprehension makes readers able to acquire plenty of information which allows them to communicate, opens new horizons in front of them, and brings them success. Reading comprehension is the "essence of reading" (Durkin, 1997), which happens when the written text makes the meaningful mental concept.

There are distinctive types of reading strategies which can be employed by readers at three different stages of reading which are pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading stages. One set of reading strategies is Collaborative Strategic Reading, also known as CSR.

#### ***Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR)***

Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) is a set of strategies which improve the reading comprehension of students with diverse abilities (Klingner & Vaughn, 1996 as cited in Klingner & Vaughn, 2000). Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) is designed to facilitate reading comprehension of learners with reading problems (Klingner, Vaughn, Dimino and Brayant, 2001). CSR includes: (a) preview (before reading), (b) click & clunk (during reading), (c) get the gist (during reading), and (d) wrap-up (after reading) (Vaughn and Klingner, 2000). Preview is a pre-reading strategy which intends to stimulate students' interest in reading, and to help students pay more attention to the text. Click & clunk is done during reading in order to have students monitor what they are reading. Get the gist is a kind of during reading strategies which aims at teaching how to recognize the main idea of a text. Wrap-up is a post-reading strategy which gives students an opportunity to review what they have read and remember what has been learned from the text (Vaughn and Klingner, 2000).

#### ***Metacognitive Reading Strategies***

A long side of CSR, there is another construct called metacognitive reading strategies. Pintrich (1999) identifies three general types of metacognitive strategies: planning, monitoring, and regulating. Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) consider three categories for metacognitive reading strategies: Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB), and Support Reading Strategies (SUP). Taking metacognitive reading strategies into account, it is worth mentioning that "metacognition has two fundamental aspects: knowledge of cognition and self-directed thinking" (Johnson-Glenberg, 2005, p.758). Therefore, it is crucial to employ metacognitive reading strategies regarding the two key dimensions of the concept called metacognition.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### *Studies on CSR*

A few studies have been done in order to find out whether or not CSR has a significant effect on learners' reading comprehension.

Klingner and Vaughn (1996) did the first study. In their study, they investigated the efficacy of two related interventions on the reading comprehension of seventh and eighth graders with learning disabilities in reading who used English as a second language. All 26 students participated in reciprocal teaching for 15 days and then were randomly assigned for 12 days to one of two groups: reciprocal teaching with cooperative grouping or reciprocal teaching with cross-age tutoring. Although there were no statistically significant differences between groups on two measures of comprehension, students in both groups made significant progress in reading comprehension. Findings revealed that initial reading ability and oral language proficiency seemed related to gains in comprehension, which would have been predicted on the basis of previous research, and that students in both groups continued to show improvement in comprehension when provided with minimal support from adults.

It is worth mentioning that the participants felt that having the strategy instruction in middle school instead of fourth grade was one of the major limitations of this study. Other limitations of this study were that there was a small (n=26) and a homogenous grouping (Latino), and the research took place on one site, making it difficult to generalize to the general population. The study served its purpose of introducing the strategy instruction and getting feedback to be implemented. The research also had some significant strong points to build on for further research, including explicit instruction by the researchers, valid standardized comprehension tests for data analysis including Gates-MacGinire's Reading comprehension test, Palinscar & Brown passage comprehension.

### *Studies on MRS*

O'Malley, Russo, Chamot, and Stewner-Manzanares (1998, as cited in Iwai, 2011) conducted a study in the US in order to recognize different kinds of strategies used in the ESL classrooms, and to examine the relationship between the task and the proficiency level of the ESL students. The participants of this study were 70 high-school ESL students at the beginning and intermediate levels (ages 14 to 17). The students were from Vietnam, Puerto Rico, and Central and South America, consisting of approximately half boys and half girls. They were interviewed regarding their English learning experiences, particularly in reading. Spanish speaking ESL students were allowed to use their native language, if necessary. Their teachers were also interviewed regarding their students' learning strategies to gain a better understanding of the students' learning experiences. From the interviews, three categories were recognized: *metacognitive*, *cognitive*, and *social affective categories*. The metacognition category included planning (e.g., advance organizers), monitoring (including self-monitoring), and evaluating (including self-evaluation). The results of the interviews showed that subjects in the beginning stage employed metacognitive strategies 27.4% of the time, while participants in the intermediate stage used them 34.9% of the time. Furthermore, the findings indicated that the metacognitive

strategy, planning, was most applied (82.3%) among both groups of ESL students, compared to other metacognitive strategies of monitoring and evaluating (9.4% and 8.3 %, respectively).

## RESEARCH QUESTION

Q: Is there any significant difference between the effect of teaching collaborative strategic reading and metacognitive reading strategies on EFL learners' reading comprehension?

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference between the effect of collaborative strategic reading and metacognitive reading strategies on EFL learners' reading comprehension.

## METHODOLOGY

### *Design*

The design of this research is quasi-experimental, posttest only, comparison group design, in which the participants will be selected by convenience non-random sampling which means they are selected from an already available larger group. However, the selected participants will be randomly assigned to each experimental group.

### *Instrumentations and Material*

In this research, a number of instruments and a material were used to do the research. They were as follow:

#### *Preliminary English Test (PET)*

To select a group of homogenous participants among 90 learners, the researcher administered a version of PET, Preliminary English Test, which had already been piloted. This test was used for the learners who could use every day written and spoken English at an intermediate level. It measured all four skills which are reading, writing, listening, and speaking during two hours.

One of the standardized tests from the series of Cambridge TESOL in the area of English language proficiency was considered as Preliminary English Test known as PET. This test was adopted from the book "Past Examination Papers" (2008), which was published by Cambridge University: TESOL Examination.

#### *Reading Comprehension Pretest for Homogeneity*

In order to ensure that the participants in both experimental groups had almost the same ability in terms of reading comprehension, the participants' scores of the reading comprehension section of the PET were analyzed separately in isolation.

#### *Reading Comprehension Posttest*

At the end of the study, the participants of both groups sat for the posttest that was a piloted reading comprehension section of PET which consisted of 35 questions, including 10 multiple-choice questions, 5 matching, 10 true/false items, and 10 filling in the blanks. Each item carried 1 mark which meant the reading section of PET had 35 marks in total.

### *Course Book*

In this study, *Select Readings* (2011, published by Oxford University Press, second edition, book 3, by Linda Lee & Erik Gundersen) was used as a main course book to teach reading in both groups. This book contains 14 units, and 6 of them will be taught in this study

### *Procedure*

#### *Participants*

The participants of this study were 60 male homogeneous intermediate EFL learners in Nasser Language House in Gorgan who were chosen from 90 EFL learners who received a version of Preliminary English Test ,PET, which had been piloted among 30 intermediate EFL learners with rather the same characteristics as the target sample. Among the 90 EFL learners who took a piloted version of PET, 60 learners who were scored one standard deviation above and below the mean formed the main participants of the study. The 60 participants were randomly divided into two 30-member experimental groups. Furthermore, another male teacher who was almost as experienced as the researcher helped the researcher with rating the speaking and writing sections of PET.

#### *Pre-Treatment Stage*

First of all, the researcher piloted the PET with 30 intermediate EFL learners who shared rather the same attributes with the target sample. The Item Facility (IF), Item Discrimination (ID), Choice Distribution were calculated in order to check the malfunctioning items. Also, it is worth mentioning that, the inter-rater reliability of writing and speaking sections of PET were calculated through Pearson Correlation.

Then the piloted PET was given to 90 intermediate students of Nasser Language House in Gorgan in order to homogenize them in terms of language proficiency. Based on the attained results, 60 male intermediate level EFL learners out of 90 were selected as the participants of the study. After that, the participants were randomly assigned into two experimental groups, the first experimental group, Collaborative Strategic Reading and the second experimental group, Metacognitive Reading Strategies.

Moreover, in order to make sure that the two experimental groups were homogeneous in terms of their reading comprehension ability, the scores of the reading comprehension section of PET were analyzed separately in isolation. All the participants, in both experimental groups, were exposed to the same material, the course book, and the same amount of time. The whole semester the participants received treatments was 8 weeks, sixteen 90- minute sessions.

#### *The First Experimental Group*

Utilizing Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumms' (2001) model of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) step by step, the researcher taught reading texts to the first experimental group.

First, the researcher notified the participants that which strategies were included in CSR. The strategies included in CSR are: (a) preview (before reading), (b) click & clunk (during reading),

(c) get the gist (during reading), and (d) wrap-up (after reading). Then, the participants were taught reading based on the CSR strategies in each session.

In the CSR class, before reading a passage, the participants were asked some questions to get involved in the first strategy which was previewing. The previewing strategy consists of four activities to activate students' prior knowledge and to draw their attention to the passage topic. First, the teacher, the researcher, introduced the passage topic and taught any vocabulary that might be unfamiliar to almost all students in the class. Then, the students brainstorm what they already knew about the topic. After that, students learned to preview the passage and pay attention to text features such as heading and graphics to learn as much as possible in a very short period of time. Eventually, the students foretold what they thought they were going to learn from the passage. Students were demanded to record their brainstormed predictions on their learning logs.

At the during-reading stage, the participants were guided to read the first section of the reading text. When they read that section, actually, they got involved in the second and third strategies which were "click and clunk" and "get the gist". The click and clunk strategy was formed to help learners recognize breakdowns in understanding and after that resolved the misunderstanding using a series of "fix up" strategies. As students were reading the first section, they were being taught to identify "clunk" or breakdowns in understanding, and recorded them on their learning logs.

After covering the first section of the text once, students got back to the clunks and used the following "fix up" strategies to find out the definitions of the words in the context. Fix-up strategies are: (1) reread the sentence without the word then think about what word meaning would make sense in that sentence; (2) reread the sentences before and after the clunk, looking for clues, which exist in the context, to determine the word meaning; (3) identify key elements in the words such as prefixes, suffixes, and stems; (4) specify words' parts that may help understand them. Also during reading, participants were instructed to use a strategy called "get the gist", which is like writing the main idea. Students were taught and required to restate and paraphrase the most important points of a section of reading as a way of making sure they understood what they read and recalled what they learn.

After reading, learners were engaged in the "wrap up" strategy that encompasses question generation and summary writing. The goal of questions was to improve students' knowledge, comprehension, and memory of the text read. Learners were taught to write three levels of questions. "Right there" questions whose answers could be found in one sentence helped students remember facts and focus on the most important information. "Think and Search" questions were more difficult to write and required students to recall several events of facts from different sections of the reading text in order to answer questions. These questions assisted students with synthesizing information from the text. "Author and you" questions required inference on the learners' part. Students were taught to use facts from the text to make inferential conclusions. Learners generated and answered each type of questions on their learning logs. In the end, learners were instructed to write a summary that included the most important ideas of the text in

their learning logs. Also, learners were asked to use the text to justify why they considered what they chose as the most significant ideas to recall.

#### *The Second Experimental Group*

In this experimental group which received metacognitive reading strategies, the teacher (the researcher) explicitly taught the learners some metacognitive strategies from the very first day of the course. It is said that metacognitive strategies are responsible for controlling other strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Chamot & O'Malley's "Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)" (1994), was chosen to be used as the treatment of the second experimental group. The order of instruction in the CALLA approach is a five section recursive cycle for preparation, teaching, practicing, evaluating and applying reading strategies. In this approach, students can begin to assume greater responsibility in selecting and applying appropriate reading strategies by following the five steps of the training model:

**Preparation:** The purpose of this phase was to help the learners identify the strategies they were already using and to develop their metacognitive awareness of the relationship of their own mental processes and effective learning. In this phase, the teacher elaborated on the importance of the metacognitive strategies and one or more metacognitive strategies were explained in each session. The learners in this phase used the strategies to plan and create their ideas. For instance, they were given a limited time to create ideas on the topic to talk with the class.

**Presentation:** This phase focused on the modeling of the metacognitive reading strategies. The teacher talked about the features, usefulness and the use of the strategies and reading strategies explicitly and clarified them through some related examples. After that, the learners utilized the strategies to organize their own created ideas and used them more related and influentially to the topic. In the reading class, they were provided with an introduction of a text to see how they should create their opinions and how they should limit their thoughts.

**Practice:** In this phase, the learners got the opportunity of practicing the reading strategies with an authentic learning task. They were asked to make conscious attempt using the metacognitive reading strategies in a limited allocated time.

**Evaluation:** The main aim of this phase was to provide the learners with chances to evaluate their own success in using metacognitive reading strategies, thus developing their own metacognitive awareness of their own learning processes. There were some activities used in this phase for evaluation, such as self-questioning, debriefing discussions after utilizing the strategies. The students shared their ideas with the teacher one by one and got hints from her, or they shared it with the class and had a whole class conversation.

**Expansion:** In this final phase the teacher (the researcher) encouraged the learners to:

- 1) Utilizing the strategies they find more useful;
- 2) Making good use of such strategies in new contexts;
- 3) Conceiving their own individual integrations and interpretations of metacognitive reading strategies.

In each session, one or two related reading strategies were introduced, elaborated on, demonstrated, and practiced. The main reading strategies were as follow: Identifying the topic and the main idea, key-word strategy, selective attention, word guessing (using context clues), reading words in chunks, visualizing, making inferences, elaboration, self-monitoring, previewing, making predictions.

#### Post-Treatment Stage

As a matter of fact, after exposing the participants of both experimental groups to the treatments for 16 sessions, the reading section of another version of PET which had been piloted at the beginning of the study was given to the members of both experimental groups as a reading comprehension posttest.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After the intervention was completed, the two experimental groups took a posttest that was another version of PET which had already been piloted with 30 students who were similar in characteristics to the participants of the study in order that both experimental groups' performances were evaluated after the treatment. Table 1 presents the results.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Experimental Groups' Reading Comprehension Scores (Posttest)

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Std. Error
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Experimental group1	30	7	25	32	28.53	1.737	3.151	-.117	.427
Experimental group2	30	6	26	32	29.87	1.525	2.326	-.572	.427
Valid N (listwise)	30								

According to the data, with a mean of 29.87, the second experimental group had outperformed the first experimental group who scored a mean of 28.53. The standard deviations equaled 1.73 and 1.52 respectively. Regarding the distribution of posttest scores, it could be seen that the ratio of skewness/std error of skewness fell between the range of -1.96 and 1.96 for both groups showing the normality of the scores distribution. Figures 1 and 2 below illustrate this.

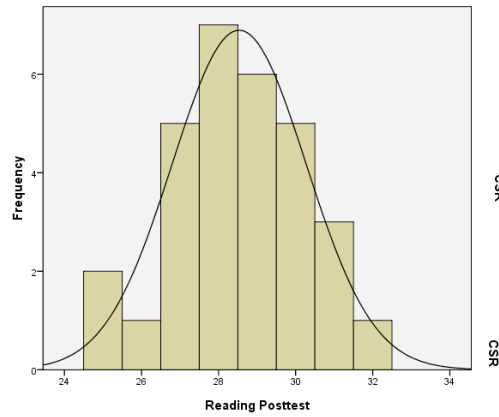


Figure 1: Distribution of Collaborative Strategic Reading Group Reading Comprehension Posttest Scores

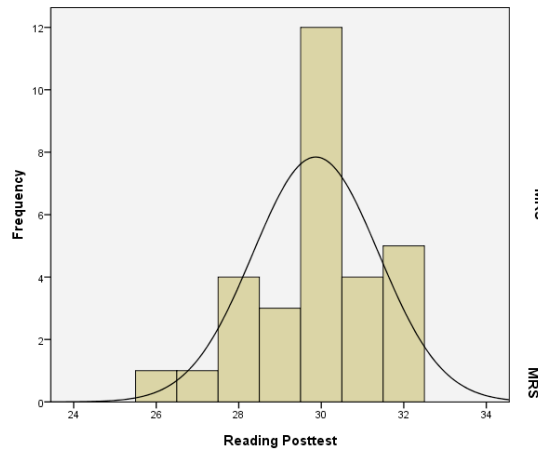


Figure 2: Distribution of Metacognitive Reading Strategies Group Reading Comprehension Posttest Scores

**Testing the Null Hypothesis**

In order to test the null hypothesis of the study, an independent samples *t*-test was run. As for the assumptions of running this inferential statistics the normality of the distributions was proved according to the descriptive statistics. Therefore, the researcher felt confident enough to continue the analysis. Table 2 shows the data.

Table 2: Independent Samples *t*-test on Reading Comprehension Posttest Scores

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.166	.285	-3.16	58	.003	-1.333	.422	-2.178	-.489
Equal variances not assumed			-3.16	57.04	.003	-1.333	.422	-2.178	-.488

Considering the data in the Table, it is clear that the Sig value of Levene's test was larger than the critical value ( $p=.285>.05$ ), therefore the line for equal variances was considered. With ( $F=1.166$ ,  $t=-3.16$ ) and ( $p=.003<.05$ ) it was confirmed that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the two experimental groups following the treatments. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected, and as a result the metacognitive reading strategies group has significantly outperformed the collaborative strategic reading group.

The purpose of this study was to examine the comparative effect of teaching CSR and metacognitive reading strategies on EFL learners' reading comprehension. It is worth mentioning that before presenting descriptive statistics of the administration for each group separately, assumptions for parametric test were met. Therefore, the present data were measured on an interval scale and none of the subjects participated in more than one group. In addition, the normality of distribution and homogeneity of variance were proven in all sections of the test.

Regarding the question of the study, the statistical analysis of the data revealed that there was a significant difference between the reading comprehension ability of the learners who received metacognitive reading strategies treatment with those getting CSR treatment. The researcher was thus able to reject the null hypothesis of the study and findings indicated that the EFL learners of metacognitive reading strategies group showed more improvement than the EFL learners of CSR group in their reading comprehension.

The independent samples *t*-test analysis of the pretest revealed that there was no significant difference ( $t(60) = .364$ ,  $P=.717>.05$ ) between the means scores of the participants in the two groups. In other words, the calculated *p*-value is below the threshold value which is .05, that means the two experimental groups were homogenous in terms of their reading comprehension at the beginning of the training. The researcher then applied collaborative strategic reading to one experimental group and metacognitive reading strategies to the other experimental group. In order to test the improvements of both groups on the reading comprehension, they were both administered a posttest. The analysis of the scores using the independent samples *t*-test showed that the mean score of the collaborative strategic reading group was 28.53 and the mean score of metacognitive reading strategies group was 29.87 on the posttest of reading comprehension. This finding revealed that metacognitive group outperformed CSR group.

## CONCLUSION

The analysis of the scores using the independent samples *t*-test showed that the mean score of the CSR group and the MRS group on the posttest of reading comprehension were 28.53 and 29.87 respectively. Also, the analysis of the posttest scores using *t*-test revealed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the two experimental groups following the treatments. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected, and as a result the metacognitive reading strategies group has significantly outperformed the collaborative strategic reading group.

To conclude, it must be said that using metacognitive strategies make the learners have better comprehension of the reading texts. Furthermore, learning these strategies help students to find out what they want or what they need to know. Oxford (1990), also says that learners who are more aware of reading strategies and more advanced seem to use them better. This again indicates the importance of improving the students' metacognitive reading strategies in teaching and learning.

Research proving the effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategy instruction is likely to convince English teachers, teacher trainers, course book writers and curriculum designers to be more aware of the benefits of metacognitive strategy training and include these strategies in the lessons, course books and curricula they prepare. It's worth mentioning that, this research was run on male learners; other research can be conducted on female learners and another demographic variable which could be adjusted is age. This study was done on students of age 18 to 27. It would be useful to divide the study in various age ranges such as children, teens, or adults.

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# ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT AND INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT WITH VOCABULARY PROFICIENCY OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL EFL LEARNERS

**Mohammad Karimi**

*Islamic Azad University of Neyshabur*

**Emad Khosravani**

*Tabaran Institute of Higher Education, Mashhad, Iran*

**Ali Ghasemi Dorofki**

*Imam Reza International University, Mashhad, Iran*

## ABSTRACT

*The present study was conducted to investigate the relationship between Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EQ) and Intelligence Quotient (IQ) with vocabulary proficiency of Iranian high school EFL learners. For this purpose, 150 English as a Foreign Language students from Farhangian and Mosalla Nejad high schools of Mashhad participated in this study. Three independent tests were administrated, including Bar-On's Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Bar-On, 2002), Raven's Advanced Progressive Matrices (Raven, 1936), and the vocabulary part of entrance examination. The statistical procedures employed in this study were correlational analyses. To check the correlation, Pearson correlation coefficient was run. The findings of the study revealed no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and vocabulary knowledge of Iranian high school EFL learners. Also, the results of the study indicated that there is no significant relationship between intelligence quotient and vocabulary proficiency of Iranian high school EFL learners. In other words, the results of the study showed low and positive correlations between the emotional intelligence, intelligence quotient, and vocabulary knowledge of students. This finding, which is not compatible with earlier studies, implies that the contribution of EQ and IQ to vocabulary learning is controversial.*

**KEYWORDS:** emotional intelligence, intelligence quotient, and vocabulary knowledge

## INTRODUCTION

In the past fifteen years, many experts have asserted that vocabulary is the most important academic language skill for second language students (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Given the portability of books and other reading materials, vocabulary is gradually being recognized as a valuable source of language input, particularly for students in learning environments (as in some EFL contexts like Iranian universities) in which fluent speakers of English are generally not available to provide other kinds of language input (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Of the factors which may influence learners' proficiency in such an important skill, two intelligence types are studied

in this research. The first one is IQ or intelligence quotient which is defined as “The global capacity to act purposefully to think rationally, and to deal effectively with (one’s) environment” (Wechsler, 1958, p.34). For many years, the results of IQ tests were used as the predictor of students’ success in an academic setting but recently another type of intelligence is presented known as Emotional Intelligence (EI). Goleman (1995) believes that IQ only contributes to at best 20% of factors that determine life success whereas emotional intelligence quotient (EQ) accounts for the other 80%. So, Emotional Intelligence which is defined as “the ability to perceive emotions, integrate emotions to facilitate thought, understands emotions, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.67) is considered as the second factor that the relation of which with vocabulary proficiency is studied in this research.

A lot of research on the relationship between IQ and EQ is emerging, and much research is still required. A number of studies (Skourdi & Rahimi, 2010; Alavi & Rahimi, 2011; Rostampour & Niroomand, 2013) have examined the relationship between EQ and vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL learners. These studies have investigated only the relationship between EQ and vocabulary development while the current study is conducted to examine the differential effects of EQ and IQ on vocabulary proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. Moreover, a number of other studies (Salahi, 1998; Aghasafari, 2006; Fahim & Pishghadam, 2007; Ghabanchi & Rastegar, 2014) have examined the correlation of EQ with reading comprehension, learning strategies, and academic achievement while this research is run to investigate the relationship of EQ/IQ with vocabulary proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. Also, this study is done with different subjects from above studies in terms of proficiency level.

Vocabulary has long been considered as a prerequisite and main determinant of reading achievement. In this regard, Hui (2004) asserted that “without enlarging vocabulary size or breadth, students do not have real reading ability and communicative competence” (p. 477). “It is clear that a large and rich vocabulary is the hallmark of an educated individual. Indeed, a large vocabulary repertoire facilitates becoming an educated person to the extent that vocabulary knowledge is strongly related to reading proficiency in particular and school achievement in general” (Beck, Mckeown, & Kucan, 2002, p. 1).

Sternberg (1985, p. 219) says, “intelligence consists of thinking and learning skills which are used in solving educational issues and life problems” (as cited in Aiken, 1985). Also, the emergence of Emotional Intelligence according to Goleman (1995) motivated researchers to examine its role in the development of language abilities. For this reason, in this research the relationship between two kinds of intelligence (IQ and EQ) and vocabulary proficiency is studied to determine which one of them is a more effective factor in the vocabulary proficiency.

Likely effects of Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EQ) and Intelligence Quotient (IQ) on vocabulary proficiency may help theorist better understand the role and influence of these two kinds of intelligence on academic performance of learners on the field of TEFL (Teaching of English as a Foreign Language). This study may help both learners and teachers become more familiar with new dimensions of these two kinds of intelligence and their relationship with second language learning specially vocabulary proficiency. Thus, the results of this study will be

of special interest to those who are on the front line of education such as teachers, administrators, curriculum developers, and language program directors. It is significant because intelligence is purportedly related to foreign language learning, and this area has not been fully explored. Additionally, the research results may serve as a guide for foreign language teachers. It may provide a different way to understand students who learn English as a foreign language.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### *Emotional Intelligence (EQ)*

The roots of EI can be traced back to the beginning of the last century, but most of the books and research addressing EI appeared within the last fifteen years (Shulze & Roberts, 2005). The idea of emotional intelligence was first posed by Payne (1986). Then, this concept developed formally by two pioneers in the field of psychology, Salovey and Mayer (1990). The term *EI* became popular when Daniel Goleman (1995) published his best-selling book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. He defined EI as the ability to identify and perceive one's own emotional reactions and those of others (Goleman, 1998).

According to one consulting company (Behavioral Health Strategies, 2000), Goleman's proposals concerning the theory of EI "caught the attention of the world" (p. 10) and it is now the most widely read social science book in the world (Gardner, 1999). Another side of inquiry on EI dates back to 1997 when Reuven Bar-On, as a clinical psychologist, was running a research to understand why some people have better psychological well-being than others and why some are more prosperous than others (Bar-On, 1997). His study showed that cognitive intelligence alone was not a predictor of success, but that success was deeply influenced by non-cognitive emotional skills (Bar-On, 1997). He defined EI as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-On, 1997, p. 16).

Sometimes, instructors maintain that lack of success in both learners' education and life might be due to the academic intelligences which are measured by IQ tests. Zalesne and Nadvorney (2011) defined learner's academic intelligence as "about more than simply cognitive skills; it's akin to culture, including not only cognitive, but also affective and social skills, all of which contribute to a student's level of success" (p. 264). But, Van Der Zee, Thijs, and Schakel (2002) assert that academic intelligence seems not sufficient for everyday problem solving. They declare that emotional intelligences are better predictor of success in real life and education than academic intelligence. More published research in this area have been related to the importance of emotional intelligence in EFL/ESL context. Pishghadam (2009) explored the vital role of emotional intelligence in learners' academic scores in reading, listening, writing, and reading. His research revealed that second language learning was strongly connected to several dimensions of emotional intelligence. In another study, Shao, Yu, and Ji (2013) examined the relationship between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and writing achievement among 68 non-English major freshmen in a university in Hang Zhou. They found that there was a partly strong positive relationship between EI and writing achievement. But yet, more attention has been needed to the ways which foreign language learners' emotional intelligence could be raised.

### ***Intelligence Quotient (IQ)***

Some SLA researchers consider intellectual ability as something that can be defined by performance on a standardized test. While they confirm that the issue is open to theoretical debate, they accept the overall validity of the IQ test as a measure of intelligence (Genesee, 1976). Others apply IQ and a combination of other tests in their analyses (Obler, 1989). IQ reveals one of several valid intelligence indicators for them. Another group of researchers does not directly utilize IQ, but nevertheless is comfortable employing the term *intelligence* (McLaughlin, 1990).

To address IQ, it might be useful to first say something about what does an IQ score show? A normal full scale IQ score reveals, among other things, individual performance on tests of spatial understanding, memory, pattern recognition, and linguistic knowledge of various sorts. The final numerical score results from a mathematical operation that incorporates the different scores on the subsections in one general score. The result is that a person with an IQ score of 100 could have a very different individual intellectual profile than five other persons with the same IQ score. Each person could perform better or worse on the different parts of the test, yet each could still have a composite score of 100. In theory, this means that one person with an IQ score of 100 could be much better in math than another person with the same score. This, of course, could occur if his intellectual strengths were in areas relating to mathematics. The situation is much the same as it relates to language acquisition. A person could be abnormally gifted in capacities connected with language acquisition, yet still have an overall IQ score which is not essentially even above average. So, one may conclude that an exceptionally high IQ, or even one above average, is not essential for successful second language acquisition (Teepen, 2006).

### ***Vocabulary Knowledge***

The other variable of this research is vocabulary learning of the subjects. Vocabulary knowledge can be considered as a crucial dimension of language learning and acquisition as it can reveal the development of language progression in language use. Furthermore, vocabulary learning is present in almost all kinds of language learners' communication. As Richards and Renandya (2002) suggest, without extensive vocabulary knowledge students achieve less than their potential. This is likely the reason for the increasing interest among the researchers in investigating the nature and the role of words in language learning and acquisition.

### ***IQ, EQ, and Academic Achievement***

Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) examined the role of linguistic intelligence, psychometric intelligence, and EI on the EFL learners' academic achievement. Learners' academic achievement was determined according to their university GPAs. The Bar-on EQ Scale (Bar-on, 1997) was run to measure the learners' Emotional Quotient (EQ) and Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale III (Wechsler, 1997) was administered to measure the learners' Intelligence Quotient (IQ), and Verbal Intelligence (VI). The result of the research reflected a strong link between the learners' academic achievement and several dimensions of emotional intelligence. The results, on the other hand, showed that academic achievement was not correlated with IQ, but it revealed a strong relationship with verbal intelligence, a subsection of IQ. In yet another survey, Pishghadam (2009) investigated the effect of emotional and verbal intelligence on English

language success in Iran. To fully understand the nature of learning, he calculated and analyzed both the product and process data. The result of the product-based phase revealed that emotional intelligence is instrumental in learning various skills, particularly, productive ones.

Skourdi and Rahimi (2010) compared two models of emotional intelligence based upon the concepts raised in Salovey and Mayer (1990), and Saklofske, Austin, and Miniski (2003) to explore the correlation between emotional intelligence, linguistic intelligence, and vocabulary learning, especially receptive breadth of vocabulary, among EFL learners. A correlational analysis demonstrated that there was an interesting pattern of significant relationship between emotional intelligence and first language, between emotional intelligence and vocabulary knowledge and between first language and vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, emotional intelligence was found to be a potential predictor for first language acquisition. Parsa, Jahandar, and Khodabandehlou (2013) investigated the impact of verbal intelligence on pre-intermediate learners' knowledge of vocabulary. The correlation done on the data showed a positive relationship between verbal intelligence and knowledge of vocabulary. Moreover, the analysis of the results indicated that students who had higher verbal intelligence also had higher marks in vocabulary test, and the students who had lower verbal intelligence had a lower mark in the vocabulary test.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study investigated the differential effects of Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EQ) and Intelligence Quotient (IQ) on vocabulary proficiency to answer the following questions:

**Q1:** Is there a significant relationship between EQ and vocabulary proficiency among Iranian EFL high school students?

**Q2:** Is there a significant relationship between IQ and the vocabulary proficiency among Iranian EFL high school students?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

The total population participating in this research included one hundred and fifty subjects. The characteristics of the subjects in terms of their educational setting, age, gender, and major are described below.

This study was carried out in two educational settings: Farhangian high school students (male) and Mosalla Nejad high school students (female) of Mashhad. The average age of the samples was 16 for male and female students. The sample consisted of ninety male students and sixty female students. The proportion of male subjects to female subjects at two settings of the study was 60 to 40. All the subjects (male & female) majoring in Biology at Fahangian and Mosalla Nejada high schools of Mashhad.

### ***Instrumentation***

Three instruments were employed in this study in order to address the research hypotheses: Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I), Raven Advance progressive Matrices, and the vocabulary part of entrance examination.

#### *Bar-On EQ-I*

To measure the EQ of the subjects, Bar-On EQ-I was used. The EQ-I contains 133 items in the form of short sentences and employs a five-point response scale with a textual response format ranging from "very seldom or not true of me" (1) to "very often true of me or true of me" (5). A list of the inventory's items is found in the instrument's technical manual (Bar-On, 1997b). The EQ-I is suitable for the age of 16 and older individuals. It takes approximately forty minutes to complete. The individual's responses render a total EQ score and scores on the following five composite scales that comprise fifteen subscale scores: Intrapersonal (comprising Self-Regard, Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness Independence and Self-Actualization); Interpersonal (comprising Empathy, Social Responsibility, and Interpersonal Relationship); Stress Management (comprising Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control); Adaptability (comprising Reality-Testing, Flexibility, and Problem-Solving); and General Mood (comprising Optimism and Happiness).

This test is available in short format. It has a measure for children and adolescents (Bar-On, 2006). To compensate for social desirability bias, the EQ-I adjusts scores to give a more realistic result (Bar-On, 2006). The EQ-I has a built-in correction factor that automatically adjusts the scale scores based on scores obtained from two of the instrument's validity indices (Positive Impression and Negative Impression). This is an important feature for self-report measures in that it reduces the potentially distorting effects of response bias thereby increasing the accuracy of the results. Because of the benefits of EQ-I which is mentioned above, this test is used by the researcher. To prevent any problem may result from misunderstanding the English version, the Persian version of this test was used which has been prepared and made valid by Navid institute (2000) in Tehran, Iran.

#### *Raven's Advanced Progressive Matrices*

Raven's Progressive Matrices are multiple-choice intelligence tests of abstract reasoning, originally developed by Raven in 1936. In each test item, the subject is asked to identify the missing item that completes a pattern. Many patterns are presented in the form of a 3x3 or 2x2 matrix, giving the test its name. The matrices are posed in three different forms for participants of different ability: Standard Progressive Matrices, Colored Progressive Matrices, and Advanced Progressive Matrices. In this study, the third version, Advanced Progressive Matrices was used. The advanced form of the matrices contains thirty two items, presented as one set of twelve, and another of twenty (set II). Items are again presented in black ink on a white background and become increasingly difficult as progresses made through each set. These items are appropriate for teenagers and adolescents of above-average intelligence.

In this study, the researcher has used the translated version of the Raven's Advance Progressive Matrices which has been prepared by Navid institute (2000) in Tehran, Iran. The total reliability of the test in this study was found to be high ( $r = 0.80$ ).

### *Test of Vocabulary*

The vocabulary part of entrance examination was administered to measure the vocabulary proficiency level of the sample. The entrance examination used in this study was an official sample test published in different years by education and measurement organization. The test consisted of thirty items. It took approximately twenty minutes to administer the test. The reliability of the test was computed by Kuder-Richardson (KR-21) formula following the test performance. It was 0.89 which indicates the internal consistency of the test.

### *Procedure*

#### *Data Collection*

The participants were recruited from two schools. Initially, formal permission was taken from the rectors of the schools for the administration of the questionnaires in class time. As the test administration required approximately one hour; therefore, teachers who taught in these classes were also asked to cooperate in sparing their period so that students could complete questionnaires in classroom setting.

The test administration procedure took place in three sessions. In the first session the EQ test (Bar-On EQ-I), in the second session the IQ test (Raven Advance Progressive matrices) and in the third session the vocabulary proficiency test was administrated. The average time to complete the EQ test was 25 minutes, for the IQ test it was 32 minutes and for vocabulary test it was 20 minutes.

At the beginning of the first session, the participants were asked if they would volunteer to participate in a study on “intelligence and second language learning”. Those who did not want to participate were allowed to leave the class. The first few minutes were spent putting the students at ease. To build the rapport, the researcher introduced herself and briefly explained the purpose of administration of the tests. Furthermore, the subjects were assured about the confidentiality of personal information as well as their test responses. They received no rewards for participating but were advised they would be given information of their results in the form of a self-referenced level of abilities at a later date. In order to address language barriers and avoiding any misunderstanding regarding the content of questionnaire, the Persian versions of the EQ and IQ tests were used. All the collected information from the completed questionnaires was entered into the SPSS statistical program.

#### *Data Analysis*

EQ questionnaires were first scored based on the guidelines provided by Bar-On (1998), and then the total EQ scores and its five major subscales were computed. The next step was transforming the raw scores into the standard ones. Using the directions provided in the instrument's manual, the raw scores were converted to standard scores. To determine the role of EQ in vocabulary proficiency, the participants' vocabulary proficiency scores were computed and Pearson product-moment correlation was applied to determine the amount of correlation between these two variables.

Then, the same procedure was followed to calculate the amount of correlation between IQ scores

and vocabulary proficiency scores. The IQ questionnaires were scored based on the guidelines provided by Raven (1998), and the amount of correlation between IQ and vocabulary proficiency was calculated by applying the Pearson product-moment correlation.

To obtain descriptive and inferential statistical results of both EQ and IQ procedures, SPSS software (version 18) was used. Finally, the results of these two correlations were analyzed to determine which factor- EQ or IQ had more correlation with vocabulary proficiency.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### *Descriptive Statistics*

A descriptive analysis of quantitative data is presented in this part, based on the research questions of the study. The data were analyzed on the basis of the relationship between IQ and EQ with vocabulary proficiency, and the results are presented in the form of tables for qualitative and quantitative analysis. After collecting the data, the EQ, IQ, and vocabulary proficiency scores are analyzed and the descriptive statistics are shown in the following tables.

Table 1: *The Descriptive Statistics of the Scores Obtained from EQ, IQ and Vocabulary Proficiency Tests.*

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EQ	150	371	560	452.4	49.9
IQ	150	12	29	24.56	4.0
Vocabulary Proficiency	150	5	28	15.68	7.4

Table 1 indicates the descriptive statistics related to each of the variables (EQ, IQ, and vocabulary proficiency) including the minimum and maximum, mean, and the standard deviation of the scores. The mean scores of EQ, IQ, and vocabulary proficiency are 452.4, 24.56, and 15.68 respectively as shown in Table 1.

Descriptive statistics related to each of the variables (EQ, IQ, and vocabulary proficiency) including the minimum and maximum, mean, and the standard deviation of the scores in different genders are presented in Table 2. As it is shown in Table 2, the mean scores of EQ, IQ, and vocabulary proficiency in male students are 445.7, 24.3, and 15.83 and in female students are 462.5, 24, and 15.83 respectively.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Variables by Gender

Gender		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male	EQ	90	371	521	445.7	43.8
	IQ	90	15	28	24.3	3.5
	Vocabulary Proficiency	90	6	28	15.83	7.0
Female	EQ	60	376	560	462.5	56.7
	IQ	60	12	29	24.9	4.7
	Vocabulary Proficiency	60	5	26	15.7	7.9

### Normality Test of Variables

An assessment of the normality of data is a prerequisite for many statistical tests because normal data is an underlying assumption in parametric testing. Normally distributed data is a requirement of the Pearson correlation analysis and independent-samples *t*-test. Therefore, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to test the hypothesis that the distribution of data is normal. Then, an exploratory data analysis was run to determine if the EQ, IQ, and vocabulary proficiency scores were normally distributed. As shown in Table 3, since Sig. is more than the significance level (0.5), normality fails to be rejected. In other words, it can be concluded that all the variables have normal distribution. This suggests that a parametric procedure that assumes normality can be safely used.

Table 3: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

gender		EQ	IQ	Vocabulary Proficiency
Male	N	90	90	90
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	.962	1.678	.694
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.312	.112	.516
Female	N	60	60	60
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	1.196	1.389	1.452
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.115	.261	.413

### Testing the First Hypothesis

The first research null hypothesis of the study showed that there is not any significant relationship between the total EQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the students. In order to test this null hypothesis, Pearson correlation analysis was performed. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (*r*) used to measure the strength and direction of the relationship between the total EQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency. Table 4 indicates the results of the relationship between the total EQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the male students.

Table 4: The Pearson Correlation between EQ and Vocabulary Proficiency in Male Students

		vocabulary proficiency
EQ	Pearson Correlation	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.908
	N	90

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

As Table 4 shows, there is not a significant relationship between the two variables,  $r = .012$ ,  $p = .90$ . The results revealed that there is a very weak relationship between total EQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of male students.

Table 5: The Pearson Correlation between EQ and Vocabulary Proficiency in Female Students

		vocabulary proficiency
EQ	Pearson Correlation	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.562
	N	60

Also, Table 5 indicates that there is not a significant relationship between total EQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of female students,  $r = .062$ ,  $p = .562$ . Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a very weak relationship between total EQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of female students.

The first null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between the total EQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the students. A rapid look at Table 4 and Table 5 shows that there is a very weak relationship between total EQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of students. Therefore, the first null hypothesis of the study was confirmed and significant relationship between the total EQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the students was not found.

### Testing the Second Hypothesis

The second null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no significant relationship between the total IQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the students. To this end, another Pearson correlation was applied to demonstrate the relationship between these two variables. Table 6 indicates the results.

Table 6: The Pearson Correlation between IQ and Vocabulary Proficiency in Male Students

		vocabulary proficiency
IQ	Pearson Correlation	.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.436
	N	90

As Table 6 indicates, there is not a significant relationship between the two variables,  $r = .083$ ,  $p = .436$ . The results demonstrated that there is a weak relationship between total IQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of male students.

Table 7: The Pearson Correlation between IQ and Vocabulary Proficiency in Female Students

		vocabulary proficiency
IQ	Pearson Correlation	.197
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.131
	N	60

Moreover, Table 7 reveals that there is not a significant relationship between total IQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of female students,  $r = .197$ ,  $p = .131$ . So, it can be concluded that there is a weak relationship between total IQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of female students.

The second null hypothesis of the study stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between the total IQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the students. A quick look at Table 6 and Table 7 indicates that there is a weak relationship between total IQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of students. Therefore, the second null hypothesis of the study was not rejected and significant relationship between the total IQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the students was not found.

#### **Discussion Concerning the First Null Hypothesis**

To answer the first research question and check the null hypothesis, two Pearson correlations were performed. As the results of the study indicated, there was no statistically significant relationship between the two variables. In other words, the results of the current study revealed that there is a very weak relationship between total EQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of students.

The results of the current study are similar to the findings of Pishghadam's (2009) study on the relationship between EQ and English language skills. In this study, he found a weak relationship between EQ and vocabulary proficiency. The findings of this study are in line with those of Alavi and Rahimi (2011). This study aimed at investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and vocabulary knowledge of Iranian pre-university EFL learners. The results of this research revealed a low correlation between these two variables. The findings of this study are in line with Vali Mohammadi and Bagheri (2011). This study attempted to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence, motivation and vocabulary size of Iranian EFL students. The results of this research indicated that there is no significant correlation between scores on vocabulary size test and total emotional intelligence of students.

Also, the findings of the study are compatible with Colston (2008). The statistical findings of this study showed that there was a weak positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of the adult learners. Moreover, the findings of this study are approved by Naderi et al., (2009). The results of their study indicated that aspects of intelligence were not

related to academic achievement for Iranian undergraduate male and female students in Malaysian universities.

But, the findings of the study are not in harmony with Rahimi and Skourdi (2010). The findings of their study revealed that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL junior students. Likewise, the results of the current study are in conflict with what was reported by Rostampour and Niroomand (2013). This research was an attempt to examine the possible relationship between emotional intelligence, motivation and vocabulary knowledge of EFL university students. Based on the results obtained in this study, there is a significant relationship between students' emotional intelligence, motivation and vocabulary knowledge which shows that students with greater emotional intelligence and motivation have greater power of learning vocabulary.

The findings of this study are not confirmed by Parker, Summerfeldt, and Hogan, (2004). The results of their study showed that when EQ-I variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success, academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence. Also, Besharat et al., (2005) arrived at different findings concerned with the aims of this study. They found that EQ was positively correlated with academic success in a sample of 220 students of Esfahan University. Additionally, the results obtained in this study are not in agreement with the results obtained by Fahim and Pishghadam (2007). They found that academic achievement was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence (intrapersonal, stress management, and general mode competencies).

#### ***Discussion Concerning the Second Null Hypothesis***

To answer the second research question and check the null hypothesis, two Pearson correlations were conducted. As the results of the study indicated, there was no statistically significant relationship between the two variables. That is, the results of the current study demonstrated that there is a weak relationship between total IQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of students.

The results of this study are in line with Salahi (1998). The main finding of this study was that there is a weak relationship between intelligence and vocabulary proficiency of male and female ESP students of Islamic Azad University. Also, the findings of this study approve the results of Fahim and Pishghadam's (2007) study. The findings of their study indicated that academic achievements of students majoring in English language did not correlate much with total IQ. But, the results obtained in this study are not in agreement with the results obtained by Teeppen (2006). He reported the evidence that higher IQ scores correlated with better performance on academic aspect of second language acquisition.

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

This research was an attempt to study the relationship between emotional intelligence quotient and intelligence quotient with vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL high school students. The survey demonstrated that there is no statistically significant relationship between the total EQ

scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the students. In other words, there is a very weak relationship between total EQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of students. Also, the findings of this study showed that there is no statistically significant relationship between the total IQ scores and the vocabulary proficiency of the students. That is, there is a weak relationship between total IQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of students.

### ***Limitations of the Study***

The current study could be replicated with native speakers as the main participants. This study examined only the relationship between the total EQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of Iranian EFL high school students and does not deal with the relationship between subscales of EQ scores and vocabulary proficiency of Iranian EFL high school students. This study investigated the relationship between the total EQ scores and total IQ scores with vocabulary proficiency of Iranian EFL high school students; future studies can explore the relationship between the total EQ scores, total IQ scores, and different skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing or other aspects of EFL learning like grammar and pronunciation. Among psychological aspects in language learning domain, only different types of intelligence were investigated in this study. Therefore, future research can be carried out on other traits such as motivation and self-efficacy. The present study can be done in other geographical areas and it is hoped that these findings could be replicated and developed for the use of vocabulary learning in other languages and cultures. The sample size in the current research was small and limited to high school students. So, this research can be carried out with a larger sample and with learners at higher or lower level of proficiency.

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## THE STUDENTS' ERRORS IN USING VERB-PREPOSITION COMBINATION

**Nurmaliana Sari**

*English Applied Linguistic Program, Post Graduate School, State University of Medan*  
*Email: Liyyaochu@yahoo.com*

### ABSTRACT

The study dealt with the students' errors in using verb-preposition combination. This research was conducted at University of Muhammadiyah Sumatera Utara (UMSU). The objectives of this research were to find out the cause of the errors made by the university students in using verb preposition combination. The number of the sample was taken 10 students. The method of research applied was descriptive qualitative method. It was applied to find out and analyze the errors in using verb preposition combination. The instrument of the research was a written test. It was consisted of 20 items. Before analyzing the data, the researcher collected the students result in answering the test. Then the answers of using verb-preposition combination were analyzed to find out the reason of the errors made by the university student. Furthermore, researcher discovered that there were cause of errors made by the students, they were intralingual error, interlingual error, and carelessness. Most of the students did an interlingual errors hence they were often interfered by their first language and the learner's mother tongue. Interlingual errors are errors accounted for the language transfer came that errors are caused by their translation in the first language.

**KEYWORDS:** *student's errors, university students, verb preposition, error analysis.*

### INTRODUCTION

Grammar according to House & Harman (1982:11) is the study of words and their function. In its wider sense it may include phonology (pronunciation), morphology (inflectional forms), syntax (the relation of words to other words in phrases, clauses, and sentences), semantics (meaning of words). In its narrower sense it may deal only with the forms and with the uses of words. Since a grammar is a science, it must describe and analyze the basic facts of speech, and explain and interpret the laws governing the behavior of language.

In point of view (House & Harman:16), parts of speech are the divisions into which words are classified according to their functions in a sentence. Most grammarians recognize eight parts of speech in classifying all the words in the language which are used in connected discourse.

They have special use (or part) in the make-up of the sentence of which it is a unit. The Noun is the name of a person, place or thing. Pronoun is a noun substituting for a noun, and the Adjective is a word qualifying a noun or pronoun that are generally associated with or thought to belong to the subject of the sentence or to substantives belonging to or relating to the subject. Verb is a

word asserting action, being, or a state of being and the Adverb is when a modifier of the verb is felt to belong to the predicate of the sentence. The Preposition is used as a word placed before to show the relation between a word. The conjunction refers to connecting the word and the last the Interjection is an ejaculation, an exclamation that is used to show emotion.

Prepositions perform the important job of linking words within a sentence. They indicate relationship between separate things. The relationships may involve such things as location, direction, cause, or possession. The prepositions are combined with the noun phrase that has function as an adverbial or an adjectival phrase.

Some people made the mistake when they used the verb-preposition Combination, because of the interfered by mother language. In Bahasa there is no rule to make a combination between Verb and Preposition. It just happened naturally. All the people around can understand easily without applying any rules. Meanwhile in English, there is a list of Verb-Preposition Combination that has been ruled. So we should be carefully to use Verb-Preposition combination in order to make it far from the error.

Many university students specially, in the fourth semester in Faculty of Teachers Training and Education in University of Muhammadiyah Sumatera Utara, made some errors when they used the preposition combination. The researcher had been interviewed the students. They did not know the rule of making the good combination between Verb and Preposition. They just matched the Preposition to another Verb without knowing anything. But actually, they were hopefully to be a teacher that convey the material to the students. And it was big disaster when they conveyed the incorrect of using verb preposition combination.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Douglas (1980:165) error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner. Error is an act, assertion, or belief that unintentionally deviates from what is correct, right or true. And it is the condition of having incorrect or false knowledge. Error also refers to the act or an instance of deviating from an accepted code of behavior.

From the definition above we can get the point that the error can be happened because of the interference of the false behavior happening regularly. The false of knowledge will continue happen and make the reader or listener follow the incorrect knowledge. The students can be interference with that situation and keep on in their using for the Verb-Preposition Combination.

### *Types of Errors*

Since English is foreign language, so many students make the errors, especially in using verb preposition combination. They still cannot recognize the using of the verb preposition. Because of that, the researcher can classified the types of errors, they are;

### *Errors of Omission*

It is a sentence where an element is omitted, and it should not be presented.

Example: - thank you for the invitation, but I cannot comes right now. (-s as omitted)

### *Errors of Addition*

It is a sentence where some elements should be presented.

Example: - the bad situation come if the naughty boy is invited. (-will as addition)

### *Errors of Influent*

It is able to pronounce or to speak smoothly and readily. Example: - they charge the usual price. (the students can pronounce fluently showed from the mother tongue and dialect).

### *Errors of Appropriate*

It is put on side for a special purpose or take and use as one's own.

Example: the ships have profession for invasion. (the students can pronounce with appropriate but sometimes still there wrong of mother tongue and dialect).

### ***Cause of Errors***

The cause of errors made by the students can be due to the interference from the native language in learning a second language of foreign language. We could not avoid interference because of the adverse effect of feature of knowledge and the acquisition of using another language.

According to Richard (1974:173) there are some essential causes of the errors are intralingual error and interlingual error, and carelessness.

### *Intralingual Error*

This type of error has no relationship with the learner native language background. The cause of the error type made by the students are following:

a. *Overgeneralization*

It is generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of learners reducing their linguistic burden.

b. *False concept hypothesis and ignorance of correct*

The errors are caused by the lack of knowledge of correct English pattern teaching and inadequate practice

### *Interlingual Error*

Interlingual error caused by the interference of the learner's mother tongue. Interlingual errors are errors accounted for the language transfer came that teacher believes that the cause of error are carelessness on the part of the students and the other believe that errors are caused by their first language interference or translation the first language.

### *Carelessness*

The common errors that the learners made are carelessness. It will influence the learners in learning the foreign language. The cause of error come from the learner background and custom.

To avoid the carelessness the learners have to learn and read some book specially in material of preposition.

### ***Part of Speech***

Speech is the language we speak. Speech consists of words. Each word has a distinctive class or kind. Most of the words can be under the heading of different classes in different sentences or in the different parts of the same sentence, depending upon the sense we want to convey through them. In point of view (House and Harman:16), parts of speech are the divisions into which words are classified according to their functions in a sentence. Most grammarians recognize eight parts of speech in classifying all the words in the language which are used in connected discourse.

They have special use (or part) in the make-up of the sentence of which it is a unit. The Noun is the name of a person, place or thing. Pronoun is a noun substituting for a noun, and the Adjective is a word qualifying a noun or pronoun that are generally associated with or thought to belong to the subject of the sentence or to substantives belonging to or relating to the subject. Verb is a word asserting action, being, or a state of being and the Adverb is when a modifier of the verb is felt to belong to the predicate of the sentence. The Preposition is used as a word placed before to show the relation between the word. The conjunction refers to connecting the word and the last the Interjection is an ejaculation, an exclamation that is used to show emotion.

### ***Description of Noun***

A noun according to (House & Harman:20) is a name of anything. It may be a name of a person (Joseph, Boy, Teacher), an object (box, toy), a quality or condition (purity, goodness, poverty), a weight or quantity of something (pound, ounce, pint, bushel), a measure (yard, rod), an action (movement, performance), a state (death), an occurrence (accident), a sense impression (sound, noise), and a great many other sorts of things.

### ***Description of Pronoun***

A pronoun according to (House & Harman:45) come from Latin *pro*, meaning *for*, and *nomen* meaning *name* is a word used instead of a noun-equivalent. The meaning of a pronoun is restricted to relation or reference. It may name a person by his relation to the act of speaking: *I, you, he*; a thing by its relation of nearness or remoteness from the speaker: *this, that*. It may refer to a person or an object as already named: *who, which, that*.

### ***Description of Adjective***

According to (Wern & Martin:19) an adjective is a word used with a noun to describe or point out the person, animal, place or thing, which the noun names or to tell the number or quantity. Adjective has several kinds, that is; adjective of quality, adjective of quantity, adjective of number, etc. Adjective of quality supply an answer to the question; of what kind?. And there are some example of such adjectives are given below; good, bad, round, heavy, dry, damp, etc. The example of adjective in sentences are:

1. Ram is a handsome boy
2. She has a white cow

Adjective of quantity shows the quantity of a thing and answer the question; how much? Some examples of such adjectives are given below: some, little, much, enough, sufficient, all, whole, great, any etc. and the using of the adjectives in sentences are:

1. I have got some money
2. All his life he has worked hard

Meanwhile, adjective of number indicates the number of person or things that are meant and/or in what order. They answer the question how many?. Some adjectives are used under the category of both adjectives of quantity and adjectives of number.

#### *Description of Verb*

A verb (House & Harman:93) is that part of speech which expresses action (run, walk, jump, swim), being (am, become), or state of being (suffer, rejoice). Broadly speaking there are two kinds of Verb, a Transitive verbs and an intransitive verb. A transitive verb expresses an action that passes over from the subject to the object, for example:

1. She read a novel
2. He sings a song

In the above sentences, action of the verb; 'read' and 'sings' passes over the object 'a book' and 'a song' respectively. Therefore, 'read' and 'sings' in this sentences are Transitive verbs.

Meanwhile for an intransitive verb expresses the state of being or a static action or a self-contained action, for instance;

1. Being; the colour of this cow is black
2. Static action; the child weeps
3. Self-contained action; he walked for five miles

Another example of intransitive verb are; (a) she sleeps, (b) the boy was laughing. In the sentences above the action of the verbs; 'sleeps' and 'was laughing' does not pass over to any object. Hence, these verbs are Intransitive Verbs. Thus the intransitive verbs do not take any direct object.

#### *Description of Adverb*

According to (Michael & Mary:107) adverbs modify verbs (except linking verbs), adjectives, or other adverbs. There are several classes of adverbs (or adverbials) which overlap each other. However, the following kinds are more well-known;

*Adverbs of time* (showing 'when')

- a. She arrived *late* in the meeting
- b. I have *already* finished my work

*Adverb of place* (showing 'where')

- a. We looked *forward* at the lake
- b. Let us wait for him *here*

*Adverbs of manner* (showing 'how')

- a. She speaks English *fluently*.
- b. She must work *diligently*.

*Adverbs of frequency* (showing 'how')

- a. I have visited Penang *only one*
- b. He *never* comes here.
- c. I hear this voice *occasionally*.

### *Description of Preposition*

A preposition is a word which occurs before a Noun or a Pronoun and which expresses the relation between in (Noun and Pronoun) and some part of the remaining sentences, e.g;

1. This pond abounds in fish
2. There are many flowers pots in this garden
3. She is very desirous of fame
4. We saw money monkeys in the tree.

In the first sentence, the word 'in' express the relation between the verb 'abounds' and the noun 'fish'. In the second sentence, there are the relation between the two noun; 'flower pot' and 'garden'. In the third sentence, there is a relation between the adjective 'desirous' and noun 'fame'. And in the last sentence, there is a relation between the noun 'monkey' and 'tree'. So, the words 'in', 'of', and 'in' respectively have been used as Preposition in the above sentences.

There are two main kinds of preposition;

*Simple preposition*; at, by, for, from, in, of, off, through, till, up, with, on, out.

The examples are;

1. I live *by* the mill
2. He is sitting *in* the room
3. Do not laugh *at* the poor

*Compound prepositions*; these preposition are formed by prefixing a preposition to a Noun, an Adjective, or an Adverb. For example; 21ithin, into, upon, across, along, among, outside, underneath, within, without.

The examples are;

1. He came *into* the station
2. We came *upon* them suddenly
3. I shall be there *within* an hour

According to (Michael & Mary:219) there are some nouns, verbs, and adjectives that usually appear with the accompanying preposition.

### *Noun + Preposition*

They are some example of noun + preposition; equivalent of, number of, example of, exception to, possibility of, etc.

The example in the sentence:

1. The quality of this photograph is not noticeably different from that one.
2. I saw a sample of her work and was quite impressed.

Quality of and sample of can be classified as the noun combination preposition.

*Verb + Preposition*

There are some example of verb preposition; decide on, engage in, rely on, mingle with, approve of, succeed in. to make this case clearly, the example of that can be shown through a sentence;

1. Three dangerous criminals escaped from prison yesterday.
2. You can depend on Harry if you want the job done clearly.
3. He is going to participate in the demonstration next week.

Escaped from, depend on, and participate in refer to the example of the verb preposition.

*List of Verb + Preposition Combinations*

*About*: forget, talk, think, agree, argue, care, complain, worry, etc.

Agree about: We agreed about ending the matter

Argue about: We argued about spending money.

Complain about: He complains about getting old.

*At*: delight, excel, laugh, rejoice, etc.

Delight at: She was delighted at seeing him again.

Excel at: He excels at playing chess.

Laugh at: We laughed at walking a cat on a leash.

*For*: apologize, blame, care, stand, substitute, etc.

Apologize for: I apologized for being late.

Blame for: I was blamed for losing the game.

Care for: I don't care for wearing shorts.

*From*: abstain, keep, suffer, refrain, preserve, prohibit, prevent, protect, recover, separate, etc.

Keep from: They tried to keep him from leaving.

Suffer from: He suffers from not having Vitamin C.

Refrain from: I refrained from saying anything

*In*: break, delay, employ, believe, deal, engage, persist, disqualified, etc.

Believe in: She believes in being well-educated.

Deal in: He deals in selling real estate.

Engage in: He engages in starting up new businesses

*Of*: acquit, beware, boast, come, complain, accuse, approve, deprive, etc.

Accuse of: He was accused of lying

Approve of: They approved of doing that.

Dream of: He dreams of playing ball.

*On*: depend, decide, agree, concentrate, intrude, comment, plan, etc.

Agree on: We agreed on renting the condominium.

Concentrate on: I concentrate on getting experience.

Congratulate on: We congratulated them on winning.

*To*: invite, occur, sing, prefer, pretend, devote, adjust, testify, etc.

Adjust to: I adjusted to living in the U.S.

Devote to: A dog is devoted to working on your behalf.

*With*: converse, cope, fill, disagree, fill, grapple, concur, condole, associate, wrestle, etc.

Agree with: He agrees with exercising daily.

Charge with: They charge him with embezzling.

Mess with: They don't want to mess with hiring lawyers.

### *Adjective + Preposition*

Adjective preposition can be seen in the following example: satisfied with, fond of, amenable to, inferior to, similar to, different from, etc. To make it more clearly, the example of the adjective preposition can be seen through the sentence;

1. William is quite fond of reading Time Magazine
2. Mary is afraid of her mother

Fond of and afraid of are the example of the adjective combination preposition.

### *Description of Conjunction*

In point of view (Homer & Susan:185) a conjunction from Lat. *Con*, together, and *Jungere*, to join. It is a word or a word-equivalent used to join words, phrases, or clauses. And then it is a word which merely joins together two words or clauses or sentences (without modifying or qualifying them). There are the example of conjunction through the sentence;

1. Mohan and Pohan are brothers
2. Sumitra is honest but not intelligent
3. You must work hard or you will fail.

In the first sentence, two word joins by 'and'. But we cannot change the sentence into two sentences. For the second and the third sentence clearly comprise two sentences each which are joined together by 'but' and 'or'.

### *Description of Interjunction*

According to Raymond (2001:45) interjection is word which expresse a sudden feeling or emotion. Interjections are not directly related to other parts of a sentence, but they are, nevertheless, one of the parts of speech, since they express the subjects' feelings in a nut-shell and are usually followed by an exclamatory statement. It can be found in the following;

1. Words like "hurrah!" express joy
2. Words like "ha!" "what!" "oh!" express grief
3. Words like "pshaw!" express contempt

## **RESEARCH QUESTION**

Based on the background above, it can be stated that the research questions of this study was "what are the causes of the errors made by the university students in using verb preposition combination?"

## **RESEARCH METHOD**

In conducting this research, researcher applied qualitative research. Qualitative research is empirical research where the data are not in the form of numbers (Punch, 1998). It could be described as an event, persons and others scientifically research without the use of numerical

data. Qualitative research was concerned on collecting and analyzing information in as many forms, chiefly non-numeric, as possible. It tended to focus on exploring, in as much detail as possible, smaller numbers of instances or examples which are seen as being interesting or illuminating, and aims to achieve 'depth' rather than 'breadth' (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 1996).

In addition, Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) illuminate that qualitative research shows generate verbal or word and pictorial data to represent the social phenomena and use of analytic induction to analyze data. However this study contained the data in form of words rather than number. This research concerned on the cause of the errors made by university students.

## RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Causes of the errors made by the university students in using verb preposition combination were intralingual error, interlingual error and carelessness. Researcher had chosen 10 university students to answer 20 questions relating to the verb-preposition combination. She analyzed for every answer that they made. The table below was shown their result in answering or matching the verb with the preposition.

Table 1: The Students' Right and Wrong Answer

No	Students' Initial	Right Answer	Wrong Answer
1	SY	6	14
2	WP	6	14
3	JS	6	14
4	AAH	6	14
5	AS	6	14
6	K	6	14
7	LDN	3	17
8	RS	5	15
9	DJ	6	14
10	TN	4	16

To identify the cause of errors, it was better to determine features of the cause of the errors that the students' did, they were:

- a. Intralingual error, generally occurred in the creation of one deviant's structure of the students and they were lack of knowledge of the correct English pattern teaching and inadequate practice.

From the data, the researcher has taken several sample from the students' answer to be identified for the intralingual error.

1. Why don't you *plan on* staying at our place during the holidays.  
Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *in* and *to*
2. It often takes a long time to *recover from* a serious illness.  
Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *of*, *on* and *for*.
3. Because he kept *staring at* me all evening. He made me nervous.  
Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *for*, *from*, *on* and *of*.
4. When I was absent, Titi *substituted for* me.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *of*, *from* and *on*.

5. We spent three hours *wrestling with* that problem, but we could not solve it.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *at*, *on*, *in* and *of*.

6. Sally *complained to* me about my job.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *on*, *of*, *for* and *at*.

7. How long do you need to keep the Spanish book you *borrowed from* me.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *at*.

8. I'm *searching for* my lost keys.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *of*, *at*, *to* and *in*.

9. The dangerous criminals *escaped from* prison yesterday.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *for*, *on*, *to*, *in*, *of* and *at*.

10. You can *depend on* Harry if you want the job done correctly.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *at* and *in*.

b. Interlingual error was caused by the interference of the learners' mother tongue.

Interlingual errors were errors that accounted for by the language transfer.

From the data, the researcher has taken several sample from the students' answer to be identified for the interlingual error.

1. Why don't you *plan on* staying at our place during the holidays.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *for*, *in* and *to*.

2. Because he kept *staring at* me all evening. He made me nervous.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *to*.

3. When I was absent, Titi *substituted for* me.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *to*.

4. We spent three hours *wrestling with* that problem, but we could not solve it.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *for*.

5. Sally *complained to* me about my job.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *to*.

6. How long do you need to keep the Spanish book you *borrowed from* me.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *to*.

7. I'm *searching for* my lost keys.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *on*.

8. You can *depend on* Harry if you want the job done correctly.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *to*, *for*, *with* and *from*.

c. Carelessness, occurred when the students made the errors in learning English and when they answered the test. Sometime they did not focus about the test itself.

From the data, the researcher has taken several sample from the students' answer to be identified for the interlingual error.

1. It often takes a long time to *recover from* a serious illness.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *in*.

2. When I was absent, Titi *substituted for* me.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *he* and *by*.

3. We spent three hours *wrestling with* that problem, but we could not solve it.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *and*.

4. Sally *complained to* me about my job.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *by*.

5. How long do you need to keep the Spanish book you *borrowed from* me.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *to* and *for*.

6. I'm *searching for* my lost keys.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *and*.

7. The dangerous criminals *escaped from* prison yesterday.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *the*.

8. You can *depend on* Harry if you want the job done correctly.

Some of the students answer it incorrect. They wrote the preposition *for* and *and*

## CONCLUSION

After analyzing the data, some conclusions could be drawn that the result of the students' errors were found in constructing verb preposition combination, it was found that there were three kinds of the cause of errors that found in this research, they were intralingual error, interlingual error, and carelessness. The errors were made by the students was counted based on the item for each questions that were answered by the students. Foremost, this study concerned on cause of errors made by students. They were given a test contained about verb and preposition in grammar field.

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## Appendix

1. Why don't you *plan on* staying at our place during the holidays.
2. It often takes a long time to *recover from* a serious illness.
3. Because he kept *staring at* me all evening. He made me nervous.

4. When I was absent, Titi *substituted for* me.
5. We spent three hours *wrestling with* that problem, but we could not solve it.
6. Sally *complained to* me about my job.
7. How long do you need to keep the Spanish book you *borrowed from* me.
8. I'm *searching for* my lost keys.
9. The dangerous criminals *escaped from* prison yesterday.
10. You can *depend on* Harry if you want the job done correctly.
11. He is going to *participate in* the demonstration next week.
12. To make the recipe, you have to *separate* the eggs whites *from* the yolks.
13. He *engages in* starting up new business.
14. The refugees are very much upset because they have *deprived of* their homeland and their family.
15. Paris has been well *known for* its famous monuments, beautiful music, and wonderful restaurants for over one hundred years.
16. we *congratulated* them *on* winning this game
17. Because it was faster, john *insisted on* my taking the plane to Miami instead of the train.
18. The athlete was *disqualified in* the tournament for participating at an illegal demonstration.
19. Tom is *devoted to* his family.
20. Jenny *paid for* his airplane ticket in credit.

# STUDENTS' VOWELS ABILITY IN SINGING MAHERZAIN SONG "I BELIEVE" AT THE EIGHTH GRADE IN MTS. S NU BATAHAN

**Resdilla Pratiwi**

*English Applied Linguistic Program, Post Graduate School, State University of Medan  
Email: resdillapратиwi@gmail.com*

## ABSTRACT

*The research was taken based on fact that most of students MTs.S NU Batahan pronounce English vowel incorrectly. Many students still have difficulties in pronouncing the words. The researcher wants to analyze students' vowel ability in singing Maherzein song "I believe". The objectives of the research were to describe students' vowel ability of MTs.S NU Batahan in Singing Maherzain song "I Believe", to find the difficulties students' vowel ability of Mts.S NU Batahan in Singing Maherzain song "I Believe", to explain the planning efforts of teacher and students to overcome the error found by students in pronouncing vowel by singing Maherzain song "I Believe". The research used Descriptive Qualitative Method The data were taken from test, the techniques for collecting data with the test as follow, researcher gave chance or time for students to learn the song in two weeks, whereas, one learning in one week to know about the song and another week for memorizing the song. After two weeks, they are record. Beside the test, the researcher took the data from interview and observation. The result was found that students' vowel ability in singing Maherzein song "I believe" at MTs.S NU Batahan was still low score 33.49%. The students still weak to Pronoun Diphtong "[iə] [eə] [uə] [ei] [di] [oi] [əu] [du]. They often using consonant "r" clearly to changed long vowel ([ə:], [ɔ:]), they difficult to pronoun the word that consist of double consonant. After analyzing the data. It was concluded that students' vowel ability in singing Maherzain song "I believe" at the Eight Grade in MTs.S NU Batahan was still low.*

**KEYWORDS:** *Vowels, Maherzain Song, Ability,*

## INTRODUCTION

Language is the expression of human communication through which knowledge, belief, and behavior that can be experienced, explained and shared. This sharing is based on systematics, conventionally used signs, sounds, gestures, or marks that convey understood meanings within a group or community. Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbol used for human communication. When a person needs to deliver his/her messages to other people, he/she needs a media or tool to deliver it.

Nowadays, English language has become the popular language which is learnt by most people in many areas of the world. English is an international language. It is the world's most widely used language by society for communication and international contact.

In Indonesia, English is acknowledged as a foreign language. It became an obligation subject that must be learnt by students from elementary school level up to university level. In studying English, students will learn language skill. Such as listening, speaking, reading and writing skills, which include by language component, such as pronunciation.

Pronunciation is a set of habits of producing sounds. The habit of producing a sound is acquired by repeating it over and over again and by being corrected when it is pronounced wrongly. Having good pronunciation skills is an important part of every ESL (English Second Language) students' ability to communicate in English. Gilakjani (2011) said that with good pronunciation, a speaker is intelligible despite other errors, but with poor pronunciation, understanding a speaker will be very difficult, despite accuracy in other areas. So, the speakers have to have good pronunciation, so that their speech will be understandable to the listeners. There are many pronunciation categories that must be learnt by students. For example, phonetics, vowels, syllable, stress and intonation. But, the most important category of pronunciation is vowels. The following illustration will present some significance of vowel learning for the life.

First, vowels are used to know how the sound is came out from the mouth so that produces English well. Second, by learning vowels definitely it will be able to pronounce English well in daily conversation. Finally, it can examine the part of speech for more accustomed with style of English. Therefore, it is undeniably that vowels learning is necessary for everybody in variety of purposes and needs. However, vowel skill is problematic at the most of students in the aspect of ability or motivation. In the school of MTs.S NU Batahan have found that many students still have difficulties in pronouncing the words. They were still shy to pronounce the words in English well. They were afraid their friends will laugh them when they pronounce the words.

In addition, they could not spell the word perfectly, because they prefer to listen the teacher speak English rather than practicing their pronunciation directly. Moreover, the researcher interviewed some students who say that learning how to pronounce the words exactly about vowel was most difficult one in learning English.

The researcher determined the objective writing of the research as follows: to describe students' vowel ability in Mts. S NU Batahan in Singing Maherzain song "I Believe". to find the students' difficulties in pronouncing vowel in Mts. S NU Batahan in Singing Maherzain song "I Believe".to explain the planning efforts of teacher and students to overcome the error found by students in pronouncing vowel in singing Maherzain song "I Believe" at grade VIII MTs. S NU Batahan Padangsidimpuan.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Vowels are sounds which are made without any kind of closure to the escape of air through the mouth. According Dobrovlosky (2000), “Vowels are sonorous, syllabic sound made with the vocal tract more open than it is for consonant and glide articulation. Different vowels sounds (also called vowel qualities) are produced by varying the placement of the body of the tongue and shaping the lips. The shape of the cavity can be further altered by priding the lips to produce rounded vowels, or by lowering the velum to produce nasal vowels. Based on definition above, it can be concluded that vowels are sound in which there are no obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips. According Hornby, “Vowel is a speech sounds in which the mouth is open and the tongue is not touching the top of the mouth.” Generally, vowels have a function as sign of syllable because vowel is sound. So, based on definition above, the researcher conclude that the vowels are speech sound in which all made in the mouth (place), with little or no air flow constriction (manner) and are always voiced in English. Exactly the tongue plays an essential role in forming vowels.

Actually, there are four characteristics that describing about vowels. They are:

a. Tongue Placement

The tongue is by far the strongest and most unique muscle in the human body. It is the only muscle that has one point of insertion, and an end that is left to find intrinsic stability in the open space of the oral cavity. If the vowel sounds sit, sat, god and put is repeated by tongue, it can be transcribed [i], [æ], [ɒ] and [u]. They are as the following:

1) Sit [sit]

Vowel sound of [i], if the mouth is seen on the mirror that the place of the tongue is held up or high to the front of the mouth.

2) Sat [sæt]

Vowel sound of [æ], the tongue is front and low of the mouth.

3) God [gɒd]

Vowel sound of [ɒ], the tongue is back and mid low of the mouth.

4) Put [put]

Vowel sound of [u], the tongue is back and mid high of the mouth.

Let see and practice the following figure!

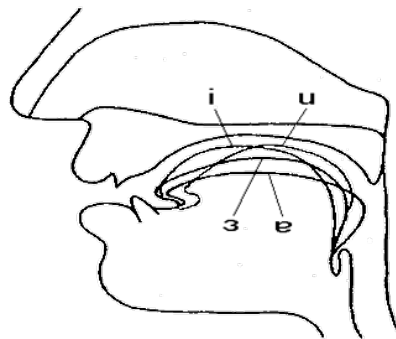


Figure 1: Tongue Placement and Height

Based on those statement, can be known that tongue is not just place in one position but when we pronounce the vowels by our tongue, we will feel our tongue play in many positions.

b. Tongue Height

Tongue height are open and close vowels. The position of tongue height is high and low vowels. For the consistent of sound and in the continuity of perception in the next study, it is very important to decide right from the beginning. The characteristics of tongue height is divided into four, they are high, mid high, low and mid low vowels. High vowels are [i: and u], mid high vowels are [i, e, o and u]. Low vowels are [æ and a:], mid low vowels are [ɜ, ɒ and ɔ:]. Centre or central sounds are collaboration of tongue placement and height, so the sounds are [ə and ʌ]. So, it can be decided the number of vowel sounds in English is thirteen vowels. In British English, the number of vowel sounds is twelve vowels; same as with American English is twelve too. But both British and American English have significant differences especially in the back mid high and low vowels as illustrated in the vowel chart. Indonesian people especially different regional language, such Batak Toba language normally locates tongue height hardly in the centre of the mouth to sound vowels. Very clear the all sounds of vowel are pronounced same as with the letter "a, e, i, o and u".

For instance in words:

- 1) Ra [ra] means agreement  
Letter and sound *a* is back and low vowel
- 2) Get [get] means getting  
Letter and sound *e* is front and mid high vowel
- 3) Sip [sip] means be silent  
Letter and sound *i* is front and high vowel
- 4) Do [do] means as finite in Batak language  
Letter and sound *o* is back and mid high vowel
- 5) Hus [hus] means go away  
Letter and sound *u* is back and high vowel

So, the researcher can conclude that the characteristics of tongue height, they are high, mid high, low and mid low vowels have same pronounce with the letter *a, i, u, e, o*, in Indonesian language.

c. Lip Rounding

Vowel sounds are clearly listened or identified in the surface of speaker on his or her lip rounding. English as a foreign language however is harder to identify by only listening the vowel sounds even using media. In conversation it is impossible every day it can derive media of pronunciation to clarify the sounds.

Further, lip rounding is not in a lies of sounds when open the lips, there of course one sound refer to the place and manner in surface. But it lies on the English. Because the lip rounding of English vowels normally is not so high and low, almost vowel sounds are in middle of centre. It can be see in the following figure for some vowel sounds.

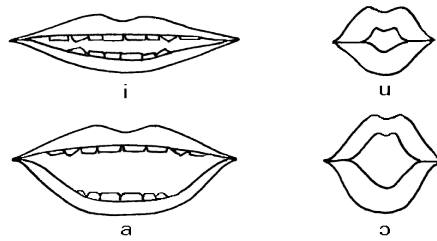


Figure 2: Lip Rounding

Based on those it can be concluded that the characteristics of vowel can show the form of vowel, and it can be known how the way to production some vowel in the mouth. So that can pronoun perfectly.

d. Vowel Chart

The chart of English vowels below arranges to vowels according to their point of articulation in the mouth. They are:

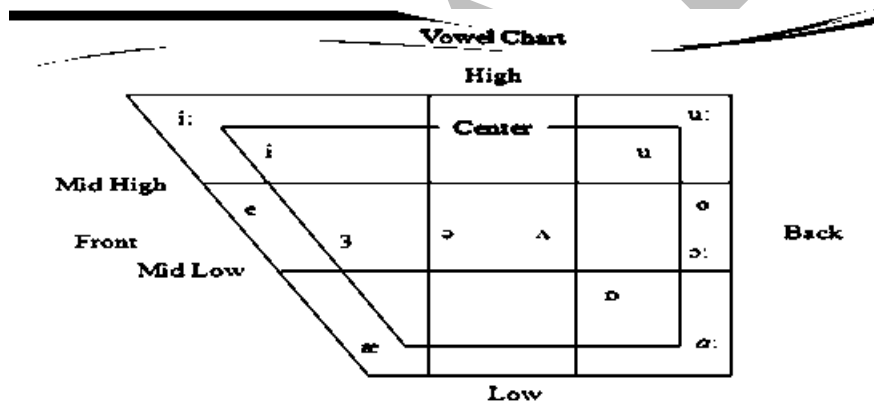


Figure 3: Vowel Chart

1) Front, Central and Back vowels

The terms front, central, back refer to the part of the tongue raised and the area in the mouth toward which is raised. Front vowels are made by lifting the front of the tongue toward the area nearest the upper teeth ridge. Central vowels are produced by raising the middle part of the tongue toward the area nearest the soft palate. Back vowels are made by brunching of the tongue toward the soft palate.

2) High, Mid, and Low Vowels

The term high, mid, and low refer to the difference in tongue high. High vowels are made with the greatest bunching of the tongue, low vowels are made with least amount of bunching or

arching. Mid vowels are made with a degree of tongue bunching some where the high and low position.

### *The Kinds of Vowels*

Kinds of vowels are categorized into four categories: short vowel, long vowel, diphthong and trip tongs. They are discussed in the following:

a. Short vowels

This is table of Short vowel and Long Vowel:

Short Vowel

i = Front High Central Vowel	[sit]	
e = Front Mid High Vowel		[eməʊʃn]
ɜ = Front Mid Low Vowel		[gɜt]
æ = Front Low Vowel		[kæn]
ɒ = Back Mid Low Central Vowel		[lɒv]
o = Back Mid High Vowel		[ in diphthong]
u = Back Mid High Central Vowel		[put]
ə = Front Central Vowel	[ðə]	
ʌ = Back Central Vowel	[kʌp]	

The location of short vowels describes lip rounding, tongue placement and tongue height not so significantly higher and lower, not so in back and front, not so closes and opens. It means that the sounds are shorter. These sounds show differences between Indonesian vowel sounds. Especially for Batahan language in general, vowel sounds are of course foreign to pronounce and perceive, then it makes difficulties in understanding.

Further, students of English as a foreign language normally find ambiguities to detect and identify short vowels. They usually keep in suspense of the same locations such sound [ɒ], [o] [ʌ] in word body, sounds [ə], [ɜ] and [e] in word nurse.

Those ambiguities actually can be solved by looking the simplicity that one of them that can represent other sound (s), for example word body can be represented the sound as in [bɒdi] and nurse as in [nɜ:z]. It can be also by looking the process of diphthong construction. The Process of Diphthong is compounding short vowels and only ended by centering and closing. The centering, the end sound is only [ə], and then closing, the end sound is [i] and [u].

Based on the explanation above it can perceive the simplicity of short vowels when the find the problem in deciding and identifying the sound what should be. However, to finish understanding in having a good understanding even in producing and comprehending the sounds, this study is better ended until the case is in the consonant, syllable, stress and intonation after we study the kinds of vowel sound such long vowel, diphthong and trip thong.

Above figure shows 2 red colors. They are [e] and [æ]. It is to say that both are different from others. For them, there must be reason. When it tried to differ them, it made examples such in

word well was transcribed [wel], and word era was transcribed [iəɾə]. For sound [e] is more clear in consistence if [e] sound is as a nucleus that has single onset as voiced consonant and the single coda is voiced consonant.

Then, sound [æ] can be seen in word can [kæn], have [hæv], and back [bæk]. The problem is, when it is trying to sound those words, it have a significant sound differently. Sounds [kæn] and [hæv] are little bit shorter, but sound [bæk] is a little bit longer. It may practice as good as possible and slower. So, for them, [e] and [æ] are actually must be in a good reason and must be able to be responsibility.

#### b. Long Vowels

Above short vowels were introduced. In this study, it can be looked at the types of vowel sounds. Long Vowels are vowel sounds around high- low and front-back vowels. The first to be introduced here are the five long vowels; these are the vowels which tend to be longer then the short vowels in similar context. It is necessary to say “in similar context” because as we shall see later, the length of all English vowel sound varies very much according to their context (such as the type of one sound that follows them) and the presence or absence of stress.

To remind you that these vowels tend to be long, the symbols consist of one vowel symbol plus a length mark made of two dots [:]. Thus we have: [i:], [ə:], [ɔ:], and [u:].

It may have noticed that these five long vowels are different from short vowels described in the previous study, not only in length but also in quality. If it compare some similar pairs of long and short vowels, for example [i] with [i:], or [u] and [u:] or [ɔ] and [a:] it can distinct differences in quality (resulting from differences in tongue shape and position, and lip position) as well as in length. For this reason, all long vowels have symbols which are different from those short vowels; it can perhaps see that the long and short vowel symbols would still be different from each other even if it omitted the length mark, so it is important to remember that the length mark is used not because it is essential but because it helps learners to remember the length difference. Perhaps the only one case where a long and a short vowels are closely similar in quality is that of [ɜ:] and [ə:]; but [ə:] is a special case. There must be reason for this. If the coda of the syllable is ended by letter or sound [r], the sound will be sounded as length as we shall see later especially in syllable.

Long Vowel	
i = Front High Vowel	[di:p]
a: = Back Low Vowel	[ka:]
ɔ: = Back Mid Low Vowel	[dɔ:]
u: = Back High Vowel	[ku:k]
ə: = Front Central Vowel	[ðə:]

Based on Explanation above it can be known that Long vowel is part of vowel that have sound more long than others vowel.

#### c. Diphthong

BBC pronunciation has large number of diphthongs, sounds which consist of movement or glide from one short vowel to another. A vowel which remains constant and does not glide is called pure vowel, and one of most common pronunciation mistakes that result in a learner of English having a “foreign” accent is the production of pure vowels where a diphthong should be pronounced.

In terms of length, diphthongs are like the long vowels described above. Perhaps the most important thing to remember about all the diphthongs is the first part is much stronger and longer than the second part; for example, most of diphthong [ɔɪ] (as in the words eye and I) consists of the [ɔ] vowel, and only in about the last quarter of the diphthong does the glide to [ɪ] become noticeable. As the glide to [ɪ] happens, the loudness of the sound decreases. As the result, the [ɪ] parts is shorter and quieter. Foreign learners must, therefore, always remember that the last part of English diphthongs must not be made too strongly.

The total number of diphthongs is eight (though [uə] is increasingly rare). The easiest way to remember them is in terms of three groups divided as in this diagram:

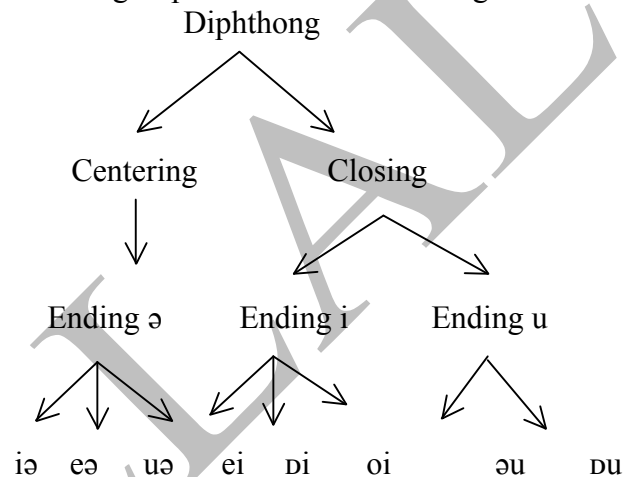


Figure 4: Diphthongs

From the ending sounds of diphthong, it can conclude the possible sounds in the ending of syllable in a word if it is more than one syllable, they are dominated by only sound [ə], [i] and [u]. It is hard to find the sounds out from those sounds even we take a look on different dictionaries. For example, study, information, extreme, forget are transcribe [stʊdi], [ɪnfəːmeɪʃn], [ɛkstriːm] and [fɔːgɪt] or [fɔːgət]. It see, the underline sounds are actually the evidence that the ending sounds, the nucleus of syllable in a word that has more then one syllables can generally dominate and represent ambiguous sounds. Examples:

i ə	beard	[biəd]
eə	chair	[tʃeə]
uə	tour	[tuə]
ei	face	[feiz]
ɪi	time	[tɪm]
ɔi	voice	[voiz]
əu	go	[gəu]
ɒu	loud	[ləud]
ADDITIONAL		
Your		[jɔ:]
you're		[juə]

Figure 5: Example of Diphthong

Based on explanation above can be concluded that vowel have some form sounds that develop charts of the vowels become more variations. Whereas 13 of vowels can be classified based on position of the place of out the letter become some sounds, they are: short vowels, long vowels and diphthong.

### ***Maherzain's Song***

#### a. Maherzain's Bibliography

Maher Zain born July 16, 1981 in Tripoli Lebanon, he is a Muslim Swedish R&B singer, songwriter and music producer of Lebanese origin. Maherzain got his first keyboard when he was only ten and ever since music officially became part of Maher's world. His family moved to Sweden when Maher was only 8, where he continued his schooling, and later entered university and got a Bachelors degree in Aeronautical Engineering. With things changing around him, one thing remained the same – his strong passion for music. He would spend late nights at school with his friends where they would sing, rap, compose and experiment with music in every way. It didn't take him long to realize that music became an integral part of who he is. music was something he had loved from a young age and he didn't want to abandon it. Instead, he made a transition: he swapped secular music for something more religious.

#### b. Maherzain's song

Song is a musical composition usually sung by a solo voice. It may be perform with or without accompaniment. Additionally, quite often a song will have lyrics to it. Lyrics are the words to the song, and they will often tell the story of the song. Most songs have a simple lyrical style. In name cases, these lyrics might rhyme, but they do not have to. Lyrics can be sung or spoken depending on the composer's intent. There are many different styles of song. A composer can set style of the song by the rhythms that they create with melodic structure that they choose to use. Zain's music is influenced by his faith and has strong religious overtones. Zain sings in English and Arabic. His songs are not prescriptive, but emphasize the spiritual aspects of the faith. For example, in his song *Mawlana* on the album *Forgive Me*, he sings about the Prophet Muhammad and his characteristics, especially his role as example to be emulated.

In another song Maherzain was featured on Irfan Makki's track "I Believe" from his debut studio album of the same name on the same album, his song about The spirit of Islam.

The Lyric of " I believe" is :

*When you're searching for the light  
And you see no hope in sight  
Be sure and have no doubt  
He's always*

*close to you*

*He's the one who knows you best  
He knows what's in your heart  
You'll find your peace at last  
If you just*

*have faith in Him*

*You're always in my heart and mind  
Your name is mentioned every day  
I'll follow you no matter what  
My biggest wish*

*is to see you one day*

*Chorus:*

*I believe*

*I believe*

*Do you believe,*

*oh*

*do*

*you*

*believe?*

*Coz I believe*

*In a man who used to be*

*So full of love and harmony*

*He fought for peace and liberty*

*And never would he hurt anything*

*He was a mercy for mankind*

*A teacher till the end of time*

*No creature could be compared to him*

*So*

*full*

*of*

*light*

*and*

*blessings*

*You're always in my heart and mind*

*Your name is mentioned every day*

*I'll follow you no matter what*

*If*

*God*

*wills*

*we'll*

*meet*

*one*

*day*

*Chorus*

*If you lose your way*

*Believe in a better day*

*Trials will come*

:

*But surely they will fade away*

*If you just believe*

*What is plain to see*

*Just open your heart*

*And let His love flow through*

*I believe*

*I believe,*

*I believe*

*I believe*

*And now I feel my heart is at peace*

*Chorus:*

*I believe, I believe, I believe, I believe*

Artists like Maherzain has tapped into an important need in the Muslim community: to have music that reflects his religious commitment. Even if all Muslims do not appreciate his music because he use of instruments (some Muslims believe that only the voice and a specific type of percussion can be used for music), his music offers young Muslims an alternative that they can relate to.

So, based on explanation above, Maherzain song also can influence the students of MTs.S Nu Batahan to become the best men or women. Furthermore, in Mahezain song "I believe" the students of MTs.S NU Batahan can also learn some vowel, as like has analyzed based on kinds of vowel: " short vowel, long vowel and diphthong, they are:

- 1) [i] = 53
- 2) [e] = 11
- 3) [ɜ] = 2
- 4) [æ] = 6
- 5) [ɒ] = 20
- 6) [o] = 1
- 7) [u] = 2
- 8) [ə] = 20
- 9) [ʌ] = 4
- 10) [i:] = 21
- 11) [e:] = 13
- 12) [ɔ:] = 20
- 13) [ɔ:] = 3
- 14) [u:] = 31
- 15) [iə] = -
- 16) [eə] = -
- 17) [uə] = 3
- 18) [ei] = 13
- 19) [di] = 22

- 20) [Oi] = -
- 21) [əu]=16
- 22) [ɒu]=2

### RESEARCH QUESTION

- 1) How are the students' vowel ability in singing Maherzain song "I Believe" at grade VIII Mts. S NU Batahan?
- 2) What are students' difficulties in pronouncing vowel in singing Maherzain Song "I Believe" at grade VIII Mts. S NU Batahan?

### RESEARCH METHOD

Based on analysis of data, the research used the qualitative research. According Gay and Eurasian Qualitative approach is based on the collection data and analysis of non numerical data such as observations, interviews, and other more discursive sources of information. Additionally, Lexy J Moleong stated "Qualitative research is the research that's means to understand the phenomenon about what is the subject research undergone by using natural method". It means that Qualitative research is the research which understanding the phenomenon based on the collection data and analysis of non numerical data. Based on the method, the research used descriptive method. According to Gay and Peter Airasian, "descriptive research is a descriptive study determines and describes the way things are. It may also compare subgroups such as males and females or experienced and experienced teachers view issues and topic". This method is used to describe the analysis of students' vowel ability in singing Maherzain song "I Believe" at the eighth grade in MTs.S NU Batahan. Based on the place, this research was field research. This research had done in MTs.S NU Batahan.

### RESULT AND DISCUSSION

#### *Describing Students' Vowel Ability of MTs.S NU Batahan in Singing Maherzain song "I Believe."*

The researcher took 10 students as a subject to be analyzed. The Researcher gave a chance or time for students to learn the song in two weeks. Whereas, one learning in one week to know about the song and one week more to memorize the song. After two weeks, the researcher recorded their sound. The researcher took 10 students for appropriating another students from VIII<sup>2</sup> Grade MTs.S NU Batahan. It was done, based on the objective which to analyze vowel sound of students. So that, 10 students could be appropriate this research, and make it more accurate. They were divided based on the Highest, middle, and lowest ranking. They were as the following:

Table 1: Students Data

No	Name	Class rank		
		The Highest Ranking	The Middle Ranking	The lowest Ranking
1	Rizki Amanda	✓		
2	Dayatul Aini	✓		
3	Idayatri	✓		
4	Amrotul		✓	
5	Gusmardi		✓	
6	Rusmalina		✓	
7	Ronaldi		✓	
8	Arizon Putra Pratama			✓
9	Hidia Fitri			✓
10	Yudha Armanda Hasan			✓

Looking from the data above, the students divided into 3 the highest, 4 the middle and 3 the lowest ranking. They were analyzed by giving test to sing Maherzein's song "I Believe". Then, researcher collected their record to analyze their vowel.

Based on result of the test, the researcher found that students' vowel ability in singing maherzein song "I believe" were really different. The following description would show every details of their competence. See appendices IV. Based on those, the students' vowel ability divided on three kinds of vowel: "short vowel, long vowel and diphthong. They are:

a. Short vowel

Short vowel was consist of 9 kinds, they were [i] [e] [ɜ] [æ] [ɒ] [o] [u], [ə],[ʌ]. Based on the data table 2<sup>nd</sup> above, the researcher analyzed, as the following;

1) [i]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe", the vowel [i] was 53, Rizki pronounced 53 times, Dayatul pronounced 56, Idayatri pronounced 54, Amro 53, Gusmar 53, Lina pronounced 53, Ronal 53, Arizon 53, Hidia 53, Yudha 53. So, the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [i] was 22.97%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [i] was still low.

2) [e]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [e] was 11, Rizki pronounced 12 times, Dayatul pronounced 17, Idayatri pronounced 12, Amro pronounced 13, Gusmar pronounced 13, Lina pronounced 13, Ronal pronounced 12, Arizon pronounced 14, Hidia pronounced 13, Yudha pronounced 12 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [e] was 5.63%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [e] was enough.

3) [ɜ]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [ɜ] was 2, Rizki pronounced 2 times, Dayatul pronounced 2, Idayatri pronounced 2, Amro pronounced 2, Gusmar pronounced 2, Lina pronounced 2, Ronal pronounced 2, Arizon pronounced 14, Hidia pronounced 14, Yudha pronounced 14 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [ɜ] was 2.28%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [ɜ] was very low.

4) [æ]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [æ] was 6, Rizki pronounced 6 times, Dayatul pronounced 6, Idayatri pronounced 6, Amro pronounced 8, Gusmar pronounced 5, Lina pronounced 5, Ronal pronounced 5, Arizon pronounced 4, Hidia pronounced 4, Yudha pronounced 4 times. So the percentage of students who uses vowel [æ] was 2.28%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [æ] was very low.

5) [ɒ]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [ɒ] was 20, Rizki pronounced 21 times, Dayatul pronounced 20, Idayatri pronounced 23, Amro pronounced 24, Gusmar pronounced 24, Lina pronounced 24, Ronal pronounced 24, Arizon pronounced 22, Hidia pronounced 21, Yudha pronounced 22 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [ɒ] was 9.59%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [ɒ] was very low.

6) [o]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [o] was 1. Rizki pronounced 1 times, Dayatul pronounced 3, Idayatri pronounced 2, Amro pronounced 2, Gusmar pronounced 2, Lina pronounced 2, Ronal pronounced 2, Arizon pronounced 3, Hidia pronounced 3, Yudha pronounced 3 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [o] was 0.98%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [o] was very low.

7) [u]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [u] was 2. Rizki pronounced 2 times, Dayatul pronounced 4, Idayatri pronounced 4, Amro pronounced 4, Gusmar pronounced 4, Lina pronounced 4, Ronal pronounced 4, Arizon pronounced 4, Hidia pronounced 4, Yudha pronounced 4 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [u] was 1.63%.

8) [ə]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [ə] was 20. Rizki pronounced 22 times, Dayatul pronounced 24, Idayatri pronounced 21, Amro pronounced 22, Gusmar pronounced 22, Lina pronounced 22, Ronal pronounced 24, Arizon pronounced 24, Hidia pronounced 22, Yudha pronounced 24 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [ə] was 9.76%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [ə] was very low.

9) [ʌ]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [ʌ] was 4. Rizki pronounced 2 times, Dayatul pronounced 4, Idayatri pronounced 4, Amro pronounced 4, Gusmar pronounced 4, Lina pronounced 4, Ronal pronounced 4, Arizon pronounced 4, Hidia pronounced 4, Yudha pronounced 4 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [ʌ] was 1.72%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [ʌ] was very low.

b. Long vowel

Long vowel consist of 5 kinds, they were [ i:] [ u:] [a:] [ɔ:] [ə:]. Based on the data table 2<sup>nd</sup> above, the researcher analyzed, as the following;

1) [ i:]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [i:] was 21. Rizki pronounced 21 times, Dayatul pronounced 21, Idayatri pronounced 21, Amro pronounced 21, Gusmar pronounced 21, Lina pronounced 21, Ronal pronounced 21, Arizon pronounced 21, Hidia pronounced 21, Yudha pronounced 21 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [i:] was 9.03%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [I:] was very low.

2) [ u:]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [u:] was 31. Rizki pronounced 32 times, Dayatul pronounced 31, Idayatri pronounced 31, Amro pronounced 31, Gusmar pronounced 31, Lina pronounced 31, Ronal pronounced 32, Arizon pronounced 31, Hidia pronounced 31, Yudha pronounced 31 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [ u:] was 13.4%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [u:] was very low.

3) [a:]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [a:] was 20. Rizki pronounced 5 times, Dayatul pronounced 6, Idayatri pronounced 6, Amro pronounced 6, Gusmar pronounced 6, Lina pronounced 6, Ronal pronounced 6, Arizon pronounced 6, Hidia pronounced 6, Yudha pronounced 6 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [ a:] was 2.53%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [a:] was very low.

4) [ɔ:]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [ɔ:] was 3. Rizki pronounced 3 times, Dayatul pronounced 3, Idayatri pronounced 3, Amro pronounced 3, Gusmar pronounced 3, Lina pronounced 3, Ronal pronounced 3, Arizon pronounced 3, Hidia pronounced 3, Yudha pronounced 3 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [ɔ:] was 1.29%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [ɔ:] was very low.

5) [ə:]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [ə:] was 13. Rizki pronounced 14 times, Dayatul pronounced 14, Idayatri pronounced 13, Amro pronounced 14, Gusmar pronounced 14, Lina pronounced 14, Ronal pronounced 14, Arizon pronounced 14, Hidia pronounced 14, Yudha pronounced 14 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel [ ə:] was 5.98%. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [ə:] was very low.

c. Diphtongs

Diphtongs consists of 8 kinds, they were [iə], [eə], [uə], [ei], [di], [oi], [əu] [ɒu]. Based on the data table 2<sup>nd</sup> above, the researcher analyzed, as the following:

1) [iə]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" vowel [iə] was nothing.

2) [eə]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [eə] was nothing. Rizki did not pronounce it, Dayatul pronounced 1, Idayatri pronounced did not use it, Amro pronounced 1, Gusmar pronounced 1, Lina pronounced 1, Ronal pronounced 1, Arizon pronounced 1, Hidia pronounced 1, Yudha pronounced 1 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel was [eə] 0.34 %. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [eə] was very low.

3) [uə]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [uə] was 3. Rizki pronounced 3 times, Dayatul pronounced 3, Idayatri pronounced pronounced 3 times, Amro pronounced 1, Gusmar pronounced 1, Lina pronounced 1, Ronal pronounced 1, Arizon pronounced 1, Hidia pronounced 1, Yudha pronounced 1 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel was [uə] 0.68 %. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [uə] was very low.

4) [ei]

For analyzis the vowel [ei] was 13. Rizki pronounced 1 times, Dayatul pronounced 1, Idayatri pronounced pronounced 1 times, Amro pronounced 1, Gusmar pronounced 1, Lina pronounced 1, Ronal pronounced 1, Arizon pronounced 1, Hidia pronounced 1, Yudha pronounced 1 times. So the percentage of students who uses vowel was [ei] 0.43 %. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [ei] was very low.

5) [di]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [ei] was 22. Rizki dis not use it, Dayatul pronounced 17, Idayatri pronounced pronounced 15 times, Amro pronounced 10, Gusmar pronounced 10, Lina pronounced 10, Ronal pronounced 10, Arizon pronounced 5, Hidia pronounced 5, Yudha pronounced 5 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel was [di] 7.65 %. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [di] was very low.

6) [oi]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" vowel [oi] was nothing.

7) [əu]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [əu] was 16. Rizki pronounced 3 times, Dayatul pronounced 2, Idayatri pronounced pronounced 3 times, Amro pronounced 3, Gusmar pronounced 3, Lina pronounced 3, Ronal pronounced 4, Arizon did not use it, Hidia pronounced 7, Yudha pronounced 5 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel was [əu] 1.50 %. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [əu] was very low.

8) [ɒu]

In Maherzain's song "I Believe" the vowel [ɒu] was 2. Rizki pronounced 2 times, Dayatul pronounced 2, Idayatri pronounced 1 times, Amro pronounced 2, Gusmar pronounced 2, Lina pronounced 2, Ronal pronounced 2, Arizon pronounced 2 times, Hidia pronounced 2, Yudha pronounced 2 times. So the percentage of students who pronounced vowel was [ɒu] 0.94 %. It can be categorized that the students' vowels ability in pronouncing vowel [ɒu] was very low.

Based on the data above, It could be concluded that the result of the analysis of students' short vowel ability was 56.69%, students' long vowel ability was 32.25% and students' diphthongs ability was 11.54%.

To get the presentation of students' vowel ability in singing Maherzein song "I believe" totality. Researcher made formula to find the mean score. Based on Riduan, the formula is:

$$M = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \frac{\text{Short vowel} + \text{long vowel} + \text{Diphthongs}}{3} \\ &= \frac{56.69\% + 32.25\% + 11.54\%}{3} \\ &= 33.49\% \end{aligned}$$

Based on the test result that was given to the students, to determine the students' vowel ability in singing Maherzein song "I believe" in MTs.S NU Batahan can be seen on the criteria below:

Table 2: Criteria score interpretation

Percentage	Criteria
0% - 20%	Very low
21% - 40%	Low
41% - 60%	Enough
61% - 80%	Good
81% - 100%	Very Good

Based on the calculating score the students' vowel ability in singing Maherzein song "I believe" in MTs.S NU Batahan was 33.49%. So, it can be categorized that the students' vowel ability in singing Maherzein song "I believe" in MTs.S NU Batahan was still low score.

### ***The Students' Difficulties in Pronouncing Vowel in Singing Maherzain Song "I believe" at Grade VIII Mts.s Nu Batahan.***

As mentioned before, the describing students' vowel ability in singing maherzein song "I believe" was still low score. It happened, because of there were some difficulties of students in pronouncing those vowel.

Based on the result of test and interview to grade VIII<sup>2</sup> students at MTs.S NU Batahan. There were some difficulties that usually faced by students in learning vowel. They were:

- a. The students still weak to Pronoun Diphtong "[iə] [eə][uə][ei][di][oi] [əu] [ɒu].

Based on the result of the test they often changed diphthong become short vowel. For example at the second verse in the song lyrics "and you see no hope inside" if it were transcribed, it become [ənd] [jɜ:] [si:] [no] [houp] [in] [sɒit], but the students pronoun the lyrics became [ənd] [jɜ:] [si:]

[no [hop] [in] [sɒt], the diphthong at the word “hope” [hɒp] changed become short vowel [hɒp] and also the diphthong at the word “inside” [in] [sɒt] changed become short vowel [sɒt]. For other example, see appendix III.

Those statement also was corroborated by their English teacher. She said:

”Kesulitan yang sering saya lihat pada anak didik saya ketika pembelajaran bahasa inggris khususnya tentang malafalkan kosakata, mereka sangat sulit untuk melafalkan kata-kata yang ada diphthongnya, contohnya, kata ‘close’ yang dibaca “[kləʊz] menjadi [kloz]”. (the difficulties that often I see at my students when they study English especially about pronunciation, they are so difficult to pronounce the word).

Not only that, the researcher also taken from interviewed with students. One of the students stated:

“Saya sering sulit melafalkan kata-kata yang menggunakan diphthong ”əʊ” bahkan saya sering disuruh mengulang kata-kata tersebut setiap pelajaran bahasa inggris dikelas’. (I often difficult to pronounce the word by using diphtong ”əʊ, even, I often ordered to repeat the words every English lesson).

So, Based on confirmed the result of the test and the result of the interviewed with the teacher and students, it could be concluded that the students still weak to Pronoun diphthongs “[iə] [eə][uə][ei][di][oi] [əu] [ɒu].

b. They often using consonant “r” clearly to changed long vowel ([ə:],[ɒ:][ɔ:])

Based on the result of the test they often using consonant “r” clearly to changed long vowel ([ə:],[ɒ:][ɔ:]). For example at the first verse in the song lyrics “When you’re searching for the light” if it were transcribed it become [Wen] [jɔə][ʃə:tʃɪŋ] [fɔ:] [ðə] [lɒɪt]but the students pronoun the lyrics became [Wen] [jɔ][ʃərʃɪŋ] [fɔr] [ðə] [lɒɪt], the long vowel at the word “searching” [ʃə:tʃɪŋ] changed [ʃərʃɪŋ], they were more showed consonant “r” than changed became long vowel.

Those statement also was corroborated by their English teacher. She stated:

“Dalam pelafalan kosa-kata mereka juga sangat sering memperjelas konsonan “r” ketika melafalkannya, misalnya ketika saya menyuruh mereka melafalkan kata “my heart” kebanyakan mereka selalu memperjelas huruf “r” saat melafalkannya”. (In pronouncing they often pronounce “r” clearly, for example when I ordered them to pronounce the word “my heart” most all of them pronounce “r” clearly).

Not only that, the researcher also taken from interviewed with students. One of the students stated:

“Yang paling susah dalam pelafalan bahasa inggris itu adalah ketika saya disuruh melafalkan kata yang meggunakan huruf “r”, tetapi ketika dilafalkan tidak boleh melafalkannya secara jelas, itu membuat saya sangat sulit dalam berbahasa inggris”. (the most difficult in pronounce English is the word that using consonant “r”, but we can use the consonant “r” clearly, it make me difficult in speaking English).

So, Based on confirmed the result of the test and the result of the interviewed with the teacher and students, it could be concluded that they often using consonant “r” clearly to changed long vowel ([ə:],[ɔ:],[ɔ:]).

c. They were difficult to pronoun the word that consist of double consonant.

Based on the result of the test they were difficult to pronoun the word that consist of double consonant. For example at the second verse in the song lyrics “And let His love flow through” if it were transcribed, it become [ænd] [lɜt] [hiz] [lɒv] [fləʊ] [θru:] but the students pronoun the lyrics became [ænd] [lɜt] [hiz] [lɒv] [fləʊ] [dɾɔg]. The word *Through* changed became *drog*.

Those statement also was corroborated by their English teacher. She stated:

“Selanjutnya kesulitan yang saya temukan pada mereka yaitu ketika melafalkan kata-kata yang menggunakan dabel konsonan atau lebih. Jarang ada yang tepat yang mereka lafalkan ketika saya suruh”. (other difficulties that I have found at my students is they can not pronounce the word that consist of double consonant.

Not only that, the researcher also taken from interviewed with students. One of the students stated:

“Satu hal lagi yang paling sulit ketika melafalkan dabel konsonan, kata-kata nya terlalu sulit untuk dilafalkan, apalagi jika kata-kata yang baru yang membuatnya susah diingat”. (another difficulties that I feel when pronounce two words that have double consonant).

So, based on confirmed the result of the test and the result of the interviewed with the teacher and students, it could be concluded that they were difficult to pronounce the word that have double consonant.

d. Students were still weak in practicing the vowel in daily life.

Based on the result of the test and the score that was gotten by students, could be seen that students still weak in practicing the vowel. The student was still low score.

Those statement also was corroborated by their English teacher. She stated:

“Siswa disini kebanyakan masih kurang termotivasi untuk mempraktikkan cara pengucapan kosa-kata tersebut secara sistematis dalam kehidupannya sehari-hari”. (most of students have little motivation to practice the way to pronounce the word in daily life)

Not only that, the researcher also taken from interviewed with students. One of the students stated that:

“Saya tidak sering mempraktikkan untuk melafalkan kosa-kata bahasa inggris dalam keseharian saya. Karena kebanyakan teman-teman saya juga seperti itu. Kami senang menggunakan bahasa kami sendiri karena dengan begitu lebih mudah diengerti”. (I am not often practice the pronounce English in my daily life, because most of my friends are same with me. We enjoy using our mother tongue, because it is more understood than others).

So, based on confirmed the result of the test and the result of the interviewed with the teacher and students, it could be concluded that students still weak in practicing the vowel in daily life.

- e. Students still weak to pronoun the new sentence with variation vowel. Although the words often repeated by teacher but they are still weak to pronoun the new sentence with variation vowel. For example: In singing Maherzain song” and never would he hurt anything” they were still confuse to pronounced those.

Based on the explanations above, it can be concluded that the pronouncing vowel in singing Maherzein song “I believe” become difficulties for Grade VIII<sup>2</sup> Mts.S Nu Batahan.

The difficulties was happened because there were many students who have not able to pronounced the vowel perfectly. They still shy and not seriously to learn vowels sound when they have learnt about vowel in their class. They were more like to played than listened teachers’ teaching. They were afraid their friends would laugh them when they pronounced the words. Addition they prefer to listen the teacher speak English rather than practicing their pronunciation.

## CONCLUSION

Based on the result of observation, interview and test done by the researcher about the students’ vowel ability in singing Maherzein song “I believe” at MTs.S Nu Batahan. The writer can conclude as follow Firstly, the students’ ability in students’ vowel ability in singing Maherzain song “I believe” at MTs.S Nu Batahan was still low. Secondly, the difficulties that faced by students in pronouncing vowel are the students still weak to Pronoun Diphtong “[iə] [eə][uə][ei][di][oi] [əu] [du]”. They often using consonant “r” clearly to changed long vowel ([ə:],[ɜ:],[ɔ:]),they difficult to pronoun the word that consist of double consonant, students still weak in practicing the vowel in daily life, students still weak to pronoun the new sentence with variation vowel. Finally,the efforts by English teacher to overcome the students difficulties in learning vowel were teacher always make drill and practice more and more, the teacher always repeated the lesson and gave more examples about the vowel, (short vowel, long vowel, and diphthong), the teacher asked the students to practice those vowel in daily life and memorize its, the teacher always asked some students to pronounce the vowel and asked them to make some example and practice them.

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