FOREIGNIZATION AND DOMESTICATION IDEOLOGICAL STRATEGIES IN THE TRANSLATION OF THE LION, THE WITCH, AND THE WARDROBE INTO SANG SINGA, SANG PENYIHIR, DAN LEMARI

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ABSTRACT
This study deals with the ideological tendency applied in The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe by C. S Lewis and its Indonesian translation entitled Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari by Donna Widjajanto. The objectives of this research were to describe the foreignization and domestication ideology and to find out the most dominant ideology used in The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe. Descriptive qualitative method was applied in this study. After collecting the data, then the data was classified and analyzed based on the subcategories of foreignization and domestication. The results of this research shows two findings. First, there were 6 ideological strategies from 11 ideological strategies found on 75 pages, 25 pages in the beginning, 25 pages in the middle, and 25 pages in the last pages of the novel chapters, namely retention-complete, retention-TL adjust, direct translation-calque, direct translation-shifted, substitution-cultural substitution, and substitution-paraphrase with sense transfer. Second, the foreignization ideology is the ideological tendency of the translation. It was proved by the highest percentage of 68.42 % categorized foreignization and 31.5 % categorized domestication.

KEYWORDS: translation, ideology, foreignization, domestication

INTRODUCTION
There are many factors that influence the translators while translating a text. Of the many factors that may affect translation, the notion of ideology transmission through the translated texts has attracted considerable attention from researchers in translation studies, those are...
Being very abstract, ideology is seen nuances of meaning in the text. Based on those definitions, therefore, translation can also articulate, that is produce and reproduce. Ideologies are individual convictions, and as a result, different translators sharing diverse ideologies can translate texts differently. It is possible that translators who support opposing parties will translate discourse differently and will exhibit different attitudes to the ideologies expressed by the source text. In accordance with the explanation above, therefore, in this study the researches would like to find out the ideological tendency, whether it is foreignization or domestication that is used by the author in translating the novel *The Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe* into Indonesian translation entitled *Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari*.

This research focuses on describing and analyzing the translation strategies and the ideological tendency which tend to be foreignized or domesticated. The findings of this research are expected to be useful theoretically and practically. Theoretically, the findings can contribute to the development of science, especially in linguistics. Practically, the findings are expected to be useful for those who are interested in translation studies, especially the foreignization and domestication and become reference for further studies.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Throughout history, written and spoken translations have played a crucial role in interhuman communication, not least in providing access to important texts for scholarship and religious purposes. Yet the study of translation as an academic subject only really began in the second half of the twentieth century. In the English-speaking world, this discipline is now generally known as ‘translation studies’. Translation is the act of translating. It is a written or spoken expression of meaning of a word, speech, book, etc in another language.

This immediately means that the term *translation* encompasses very distinct perspectives. The first sense focuses on the role of translator in taking the original or source text (ST) and turning it into a text in another language, the target text (TT). Translation may consist of word, phrase, sentences, and paragraph which are called form or surface structure. Translation is basically a change of form, the form from which the translation is made will be called the source language and the form into which it is to be changed will be called the receptor or target language. Newmark (1988) defines translation basically as “rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text.”

Translation as a profession has to be seen as a collaborative process between translators, revisers, terminologists, often writers and clients (literary works have to be checked by a second native TL reviser and desirably a native SL speaker), where one works towards a general agreement. Nevertheless, finally, only one person can be responsible for one piece or section of translation, it must have the stamp of one style. Translation is, of course, a rewriting of an original text. All rewritings, whatever their intention, reflect a certain ideology and a poetics...
and as such manipulate literature to function in a given society in a given way (Venuti:1995). Ideology is a construct, thought, concept, theory, or meaning idealized by the society as guide to act internally and a filter to react externally for the betterment of the members.

In other words, ideology is a meaning on which members of the society consciously or unconsciously depend to behave among themselves and towards outsiders. The relation between ideology and language is a construal--semiotic on where at one time ideology determines language use and at another time in its turn language use affects ideology. Ideology is developed and deeply rooted in the practices of the society or community members and specifically realized in text or language use, thus, on any text there is an underlying ideology. Ideology evolves, forms, and is deeply rooted in social practices. One of the social practices is language use or text. This means that the text produced by the speakers or participants in one occasion has been constrained and loaded with the ideology. Saragih (2014) said that ideology is latent in the use of language or texts. Based on those definitions, therefore, translation can also articulate, that is produce and reproduce. Ideologies are individual convictions, and as a result, different translators sharing diverse ideologies can translate texts differently.

It is possible that translators who support opposing parties will translate discourse differently and will exhibit different attitudes to the ideologies expressed by the source text. Therefore, different translations can reflect differences in ideologies, which can potentially surface as differences in superstructure. There are many factors that influence the translators while translating a text. Of the many factors that may affect translation, the notion of ideology transmission through the translated texts has attracted considerable attention from researchers in translation studies.

Schmidt (2013) said that the terms foreignization and domestication were introduced into translation studies by Lawrence Venuti (1995). He also stated that foreignization and domestication are translation strategies, but also ethical categories because they include a certain degree of distortion of the original text. TS is naturally interested in translation strategies and their ethical implications, but the main question here is whether TS can benefit from the foreignization vs. domestication dichotomy, and if it can, in what way. This strategy, Pedersen (2005) called as Venutian scale, ranging from the most foreignizing to the most domesticating strategies. Moreover, Pedersen (2005) said that the more neutral labels ‘Source Language (SL) oriented’ and ‘Target Language (TL) oriented’ will be used rather than the terms foreignization and domestication. Adapting Venuti’s scale, Pedersen’s (2005) model of translation strategies is presented as follows.

Venuti in Katan (1999) stated that foreignization is a mean to take the reader over to the foreign culture, making him or her see the (culture and linguistic) differences. A foreignizing strategy seeks to evoke a sense of the foreign. Foreignization can be done by retaining or importing some essential characteristics or elements or concepts of source culture in the TT. According to Mazi (2003), foreignization in the context of translation is an effort to maintain what is strange and unusual in the context of the reading target readers but it is not unusual, unique, and typical of the culture of the source language.
With this paradigm, a good translation is a translation that retains the style and taste of the cultural language of the source. Hopefully, through such a method, the TT can evoke not only the spirit of the ST but also can enrich the reader’s knowledge about various cultures around the world. Foreignization or source language oriented strategy consists of three subcategories, Retention, Specification and Direct translation.

Retention is the most SL-oriented strategy, as it allows an element from the SL to enter the TT. There are two sub- categories in this strategy namely complete and TL Adjust strategy. The first one holds the same concept of borrowing, which is allowing the element of the SL to enter the TT without changing the word. The second one is described by Pedersen as a strategy that adjusting the word to slightly meet the TL convention. This can be done by adjusting the spelling or dropping the article.

Specification means that the translator keeps the word in its original form from the ST but adding information that is not present in the ST .This is done through either Explicitation or Addition. The first one means expansion of the text, spelling out anything that is implicit in ST while the second means adding TT sense or connotation meaning along with keeping the TT in its original form.

In direct translation, the semantic load of the word is unchanged, nothing is added or subtracted or effort made to transfer connotations. Based on the outcome of the strategy Pedersen divides this strategy into two subcategories, namely Calque and Shifted which both is a literally translation or word for word translation.

Domestication is contradict with the foreignization. According to Venuti (1995), “Domestication involves an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values. Foreign cultural values are excluded, i.e. adapted to fit into the domestic value system. According to Mazi (2003), domestication or localization refers to all changes to all levels of text to create a target audience that comes from another country or living in different geographical areas with experience, socio-cultural background of different cultures can understand the translated text properly. Changes in the translated text as such is something that is perceived by the author as an attempt to men ingkatkat acceptability of the text. In some subtitles novel or other forms of prose, localization efforts, among others by localizing the names of the characters with the use of the name with the pronunciation easier said reader. Another negative consequence of domestication, according to Venuti, is that it makes the translator invisible because the translation reads like an original.” Domestication or target language oriented strategies consist of three subcategories, Generalization, Substitution (cultural substitution, sense transfer and situational paraphrase) and Omission.

Generalization involves replacing a word that refer to something specific to something more general. According to Pedersen, generalization uses “an upward movement on a hyponym scale, producing a TT item that is less specific than the ST.

Substitution involves removing the ST’s word and replacing them with something else, either a
different term or some sort of paraphrase, which does not necessarily involve a cultural term. This strategy consists of two subgroups: cultural substitution that removes the ST and substitute it with a different word of the TT that is expected to be known by the target readers and paraphrase that rephrasing the words of ST to the TT.

Omission is replacing the word of the ST with nothing after rejecting all alternative strategies to save him/her self the trouble of looking up something he/she does not know.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

What are the strategies that are used in the translation of *The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe* and its Indonesian translation entitled *Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari*?

What is the ideological tendency found in *The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe* and its Indonesian translation entitled *Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari*?

**METHODOLOGY**

Descriptive qualitative method was applied in this research. Bodgan and Biklen (1992:30) said, “Qualitative research is descriptive. The data collected are in the form of words or pictures rather than numbers”. Qualitative method describes social phenomena that occur naturally without any attempt to manipulate certain situation under study as in the case with experimental quantitative research. The phenomena that has been studied in this research was the dominant ideology implemented by the translator in translating *The Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe* into the Indonesian translation entitled *Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari*. There is no manipulation during the process and the research findings were presented in the form of descriptive data.

In this research, the researchers used data sheet and notes as the instrument of collecting data. Based on the observation sheet and notes, the researchers written down, classified, and analyzed the data in order to find the ideological tendency implemented in *The Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe*. The data were collected from the novel *The Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe* and its Indonesian translation entitled *Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari* that is written by C. S. Lewis and first published in 1950. It contains 17 chapters in 196 pages and its Indonesian translation entitled *Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari* which is translated by Donna Widjajanto and first published in 2005 by PT Gramedia Pustaka. It contains 17 chapters in 217 pages.

Documentary technique was applied in analyzing the data. This technique was implemented because the source of the data in this research was in the written form. This technique is a technique of analyzing data through written document or archives, books, theories, argument, and so on which are related to the research problem. Documentary technique also means that the data was kept in form of documentation.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study applied qualitative data. The data were taken from analyzing the novel with title *The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe* by C. S Lewis and its Indonesian translation entitled *Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari* by Donna Widjajanto. In collecting the data, the researchers used Simple Random Sampling. “The best known of the probability sampling procedures is simple random sampling. The basic characteristic of simple random sampling is that all members of the population have an equal and independent chance of being included in the random sample” (Ari, et al: 2006).

The first step in drawing a random sample from a population is to assign each member of the population a distinct identification number. In this research, the data were collected was 75 pages from 198 pages by using Random Sampling Technique, they were; 25 pages in the beginning, 25 pages in the middle, and 25 pages in the end that has been selected randomly.

The percentage of each types ideological strategy can be reported as shown in the following table as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Ideology</th>
<th>Total (F)</th>
<th>P= F/N X 100%</th>
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The table above shows that they were 17 sentences have been analyzed with the percentage 62.50% categorized of foreignization, there were the Retention (R) with the total number of 10 sentences with the subcategory: Complete (C) with the total number of 6 sentences and TL Adjust (TL Ad) with the total number of 2 sentences; the Specification (Sp) with the with the subcategory: Explicitation (Ex) is none and the addition (Add) is also none; the Direct Translation (DL) with the total number 3 sentences with the subcategory: Calque (Cq) with the total number 1 sentence and Shifted (Sf) is 1 sentence. The percentage can be resulted that there were 37.50 % categorized domestication, there were the Generalization (Gen) is none, the Substitution with the total number of sentences with the subcategory: the Cultural Substitution (CS) with the total number is 6 sentences and the Paraphrase (Parp) with the total number of
Types of Foreignization

Retention – Complete
Data 1
- ST: And when they had finished the fish, Mrs. Beaver brought unexpectedly out of the oven a great and glorious sticky marmalade roll.
  TT: Dan ketika mereka sudah menghabiskan ikan itu, ibu berang-berang tanpa terduga mengeluarkan dari oven marmalade roll.

Marmalade roll table in The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe is translated in the target language by using retention-complete strategy. The translator borrowed, allowed, and asserted the element of the SL, in this case, marmalade roll into the TL without changing it and it is not replaced by other form in the TL. Marmalade in Oxford Dictionary means as kind of jam made from oranges and roll means as small rounded portion of bread for one person. In TL, it could be translated as roti gulung dengan selai jeruk, but the translator insisted to keep the word in the SL though it may confuse the target reader who does not have knowledge about the marmalade roll.

Retention - TL Adjust
Data 2
- ST: “Now we shan’t be long” he said and immediately put a kettle on.
  TT: “Nah tidak akan lama,” katanya, dan langsung meletakkan ketel diatas perapian.

In the context of The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe, kettle in The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe is translated in the target language by using retention-TL adjust strategy. Kettle is described by Oxford Dictionary as container with a spout, used for boiling water. In Indonesia, the word kettle could be in some meaning, such as ceret dan teko. But in this context, the translator did not translate kettle as ceret or teko but he adjusted the word kettle to the word ketel in TL.

Direct Translation - Calque
Data 3
  TT: “Si Robin!” teriak Lucy.

In the context of The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe, the and cried is translated in the target language by using direct translation- calque strategy. The semantic load of the TL is unchanged, nothing is added or subtracted or effort to made to transfer connotations. The word si refers to Robin and cried translated as teriak and it fits in the Oxford Dictionary that cry means as shout.
Direct Translation – Shifted
Data 4
- ST : He was terribly wounded.  
  TT : Edmund terluka parah.

In the context of The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe, terribly wounded is translated in the target language by using direct translation-shifted strategy. It is quite similar with the calque strategy which the semantic load of the TL is unchanged, nothing is added or subtracted or effort to made to transfer connotations, but in shifted, the TL is made more humble and unobtrusive. In this context, the translator didn’t change the meaning of terribly wounded by adding additional information or by subtracting it but literally translation.

Types of Domestication

Substitution – Cultural Substitution
Data 5
- ST : She began to walk forward, crunch-crunch over the snow and through the wood toward the other light.  
  TT : Dia mulai maju, kres-kres di atas salju dan melalui hutan yang mengikuti cahaya lain.

In the context of The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe, crunch-crunch is translated in the target language by using substitution-cultural substitution strategy that remove the words in ST and substitute it with a different word of the TT. Crunch is described by Oxford Dictionary as crush something noisily. On the other hand, crunch is translated as walking with sound of snap (through the snow). In this context, the translator didn’t translate crunch-crunch as walking with sound of snap but substituted it with kres-kres in the TL. It is expected to be known by the reader that the translator shared the similar semantic features, hoping it will evoke the same readers’ action which in the context, Lucy walked on the snow with sound kres-kres.

Substitution - Paraphrase with Sense Transfer
Data 6
- ST : He was covered with blood, his mouth was open, and his face a nasty green color.  
  TT : Tubuhnya tertutup darah, mulutnya terbuka, dan wajahnya kehijauan.

In the context of The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe, a nasty green in is translated in the target language by using substitution-paraphrase with sense transfer strategy that rephrasing a green nasty color by reducing it into kehijauan. In this context, the translator removed the word a nasty but it sense or relevant connotation is kept by using a paraphrase kehijauan in order to maintain the sense of the TL.
CONCLUSION

Having analyzed all the data, conclusion can be concluded that the types of ideological strategy found in the novel The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe by C. S Lewis and its Indonesian translation entitled Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari by Donna Widjajanto there were 10 sentences or 62.50% categorized of foreignization and 6 sentences or 37.50 % categorized domestication. Foreignization is the dominant kind of ideological strategy found in the novel The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe by C. S Lewis and its Indonesian translation entitled Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari by Donna Widjajanto by the highest percentage 62.50%. For another researcher who wants to carry out further research about translation, it would be better to add the other aspect such as what item that would like to be discussed to a broader finding in translation field.

Limitation of the study

This study is focused on the ideological strategy found in the novel The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe by C. S Lewis and its Indonesian translation entitled Sang Singa, Sang Penyihir, dan Lemari by Donna Widjajanto. This study is focused on types of the ideological strategy.

REFERENCES


COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY TOURIST GUIDES TO FOREIGN TOURIST IN BUKIT LAWANG

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ABSTRACT
This study aims to investigate communication strategies are used by tourist guides and foreign tourists who have different background language and cultures in Bukit Lawang. This study used qualitative research. The source of data was three tourist guides in Bukit Lawang. The data were taken from video record of conversation between tourist guide and foreign tourist and interview of tourist guide. The result of this study found that 37 utterances which contained communication strategies used by tourist guides in Bukit Lawang. There were 5 (13.5%) for avoidance or reduction strategies, 19 (51.3%) achievement or compensatory strategies, 2 (5.5%) stalling or time-gaining strategies, 5 (13.5%) self-monitoring strategies, and 6 (16.2%) interactional strategies. After conducting this study, the master of communication strategies is really necessary for the guides to reach communicative goal.

KEYWORDS: Communication strategies, Communicative competence

INTRODUCTION
The mastery of English becomes very important for those people who are involved in Indonesia’s tourism since English serves to bridge the difference of native language owned by the tour guides and the tourist from abroad. Nevertheless, there will be communication problems in the interaction between those foreign tourists and their tour guides which have different knowledge of culture and language. Sometimes it is difficult for the tourist guides to tell some unfamiliar terminologies which are totally new for the foreigners who do not share the same belief and culture. The guides need to define or describe those terminologies so that they are able to understand. One way that the guides and the tourists use to overcome their communication problems is called communication strategies.

Communication strategies are the realization of the strategic competence which is one of five components of communicative competence. Canale as quoted in Celce Murcia (1995) defines communicative competence as the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication. In addition, Troike (1986) states that communicative competence extends to knowledge and expectation of who may or may not speak in certain setting, when to speak and when to remain silent, whom one may speak to, how one may talk to person of different statuses.
and roles in various context. Cross-cultural differences can and do produce conflict or inhabitation communication. In communication strategies has typically highlighted three functions of strategy use from three different perspectives: Psycholinguistic perspective, Interactional perspective, and communication / maintain perspective.

Furthermore, the skill of mastering English should be accompanied by the skill of mastering the communication strategies because this problem does not only happen to the speakers of English as a foreign language, but even the native speakers also face it. Communication strategies would help these speakers who have different point of view in the culture in understanding each other and also in expressing what each speaker has in his or her mind verbally in the target language. By using these strategies, the communication goal would be achieved effectively. Actually, many tourism places in North Sumatera where a lot of foreign tourists like to visit. After all, there is one special and jungle Sumatera tour and trek. It is Bukit Lawang which location in Bahorok. Those foreign tourists are usually accompanied by Indonesian tour guide and will explain all things related to Bukit Lawang. Needless to say, there will be some unfamiliar terminologies found in the conversation between the tourists and their tour guide.

Therefore, the purpose of this research is to investigate how the communication strategies are used in the interaction between tourist guides and foreign tourists which has difference native language and culture.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Communication strategies are the realization of the strategic competence which is one of five components of communicative competence. Canale was quoted in Murcia (1995) defines “communicative competence as the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication”. Therefore, the skill of mastering English should be accompanied by the skill of mastering the communication strategies because this problem does not only happen to the speakers of English as a foreign language, but even the native speakers also face it. Communication strategies would help these speakers who have different point of view in the culture in understanding each other and also in expressing what each speaker has in his or her mind verbally in the target language. By using these strategies, the communication goal would be achieved effectively.

Conceptualize strategic competence as knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them. This conceptualization has identified several other types of strategies relevant to language learning, language processing, and language production. Communication strategies consist of five types (Celce Murcia, 1995):

a. Avoidance or reduction strategies involve tailoring one's message to one's resources by either replacing messages, avoiding topics, or, as an extreme case, abandoning one's message altogether.
b. Achievement or compensatory strategies involve manipulating available language to reach a communicative goal and this may entail compensating for linguistic deficiencies. These strategies have been the traditional concern of communication strategy research.

c. Stalling or time-gaining strategies include fillers, hesitation devices and gambits as well as repetitions (e.g., repeating what the other has said while thinking). We should note here that several authors draw attention to the danger of L2 learners using taught fillers/gambits inappropriately if the presentation has been superficial and not adequately contextualized.

d. Self-monitoring strategies involve correcting or changing something in one's own speech (seV-repair) as well as rephrasing (and often over-elaborating) one's message to further ensure that it gets through.

e. Interactional strategies, highlights the cooperative aspects of strategy use. Appeals for help are similar to achievement strategies in function but through using them the learner exploits his/her interlocutor's knowledge rather than manipulating his/her own language resources. Meaning negotiation strategies are of various systems, we have divided them into ways of indicating a problem, responding to such an indication, and making comprehension checks.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This study aims to investigate communication strategies used by tourist guide to foreign tourist in Bukit Lawang. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following research question:
1. What communication strategies are used by tourist guides to foreign tourists in Bukit Lawang?
2. What is the most dominantly communication strategies used by tourist guide to foreign tourist in Bukit Lawang?

METHODOLOGY
This study conducted by applying a qualitative research design. Ary (2010) states that the research design is the researcher’s plan how to proceed to gain an understanding of some group or phenomenon in its context.

The data of this research was utterances of tourist guide during communicating with foreign tourist while the source data was three tourist guides. The data were taken from video record of conversation between tourist guide and foreign tourist and interview of tourist guide. This study conducted systematically by following the technique of data collecting and data analysis.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
Types of Communication strategies
1. Avoidance or reduction strategies
This strategy includes topic avoidance, message replacement and message abandonment. In this concept, there were 5 utterances used by tourist guides in conversation between tourist guides and foreign. The speaker or guides used this strategy to avoid talking about certain topic in the conversation. The reason of using this strategy is probably because of the lack of knowledge,
idea, or vocabulary items about the topic area. The speakers might feel that it would be too difficult for them to talk about this certain topic as they would probably get stuck in the middle of the conversation due to their lack of linguistic competence. For example:

Foreign tourist: See use how to you put from the human?

Tour guide: A long time ago people independent center is give for the pesek is the like orang utan.

From the example above, this conversation showed a guide avoid talking about topic in the conversation where a guide might feel that it would be to difficult for him to talk about this certain topic as he would probably get stuck in the middle of conversation. That is why, guide avoid question from foreign that foreign asked something to guide but guide continue to other topic.

2. Achievement or compensatory strategies

In this concept, there were 19 achievement or compensatory strategies used by tourist guide. In this strategy have been the traditional concerns of communication strategy research. The guide used this strategy to compensate the breakdowns in the middle of conversation. instead of abandoning the message or avoiding certain topic of conversation because of their lack of linguistic skill, and the guide try to find a way to convey the message which want to said but keep communicative goal for example:

Tour guide: You have some any questions and there a jungle or and there so many orang utan

From the example above, the utterance there a jungle or and there so many orang utan showed that guide want to explain that many orang utans in the jungle. A guide used this strategy to reach goal in communication even though a guide knew the structure is not correct. In addition a guide used this strategy to share information which aim to satisfy foreign.

3. Stalling or time-gaining strategies

In this concept, there were 2 utterances stalling or time-gaining strategies used by tourist guide in the conversation. In this strategy, the speaker or guide employed to make use of the time while the guide are having difficulties in finding the correct term or constructing a sentence which want to said when the guide were faced in difficulties words, the guide used gambits in there conversation which aim to fill in the gap between the utterances while the guide where taking the time for example:

Tourist: So why, orang utan stay close to the city?
Tour guide: This is like a village. This is like a resort national park. The orang utan home, that one the name is pesek. Is from a park one. You know park one? So that why is the name of orang utan the famous to see a people.

From the example above, the guide was explaining about place of orang utan. In the middle of his explanation, the guide try to stalling time by using gambit you know and it was followed by giving circumlocution so that why is the name of orang utan the famous to see a people.
4. Concept of self-monitoring strategies

In this concept, there were 5 utterances self-monitoring strategies used by tourist guide in the conversation. In this strategy, the guide used to correct their own mistake during the conversation and have initiative to correct it. The guide used self-monitoring as an effort to make the speech clearly for example:

Tourist guide: That one her name pesek. This one of the some orang utanagresif. We have a mina.
Tourist: Mina is the most agresif
Tour guide : You know mina?
Foreign tourist : Yeah, I saw the internet and Jecky is the one of like mina.
Tour guide : You can saw is the mina bites my finger.

From the example above, a guide told about mina and he tried to elaborate pesek, jecky, and mina. A guide used some word to explain mina that mina is orang utan is the most aggresive.

5. Concept of interactional strategies

In this concept, there were 6 utterances interactional strategies used by tourist guide in the conversation. In this strategy, the guide used interactional strategies in their conversation which aim helpful the guide to avoid misunderstanding in the communication. In addition, the guide used this strategy was the utterance is not clearing enough for foreign so that the foreign cannot achieve what the guide mean for example:

Tourist guide: Just the way I think the culture of orang utan similar like a human.
Foreign tourist: Look a similar
Tourist guide : Ya, is similar

From the example above, look a similar the foreign asked for confirmation of the guide’s utterance. The foreign repeated his sentence confirm whether what he hear are the same as what the guide’s mean.

CONCLUSION

Based on the research findings, the process communication strategies used by tourist guide occur during the communication with foreign tourist. In the conversation did not always go as smoothly as we think. In fact, communication strategies had been applied by tourist guides even though they did not know about the theory behind it. Tourist guides used all types of communication strategy during communicate with foreign tourist, namely 5 (13,5%) for avoidance or reduction strategies, 19 (51,3%) achievement or compensatory strategies, 2 (5,5%) stalling or time-gaining strategies, 5 (13,5%) self-monitoring strategies, and 6 (16,2%) interactional strategies. The most dominant types of communication strategies used by tourist guides at Bukit Lawang was achievement or compensatory strategies 19 (51,3%). It means that the most guides used achievement or compensatory strategies to reach a communicative goal.

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IDIOMATICITY AS AN INDEX OF LANGUAGE ATTRITION: EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FROM NEO-ARAMAIC

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ABSTRACT
The present study hypothesizes that language loss unlike language acquisition is a top-down phenomenon. We posit that figurative language in L1, epitomized by idioms, erodes earlier and presumably faster than phonological patterns and lexical items when the linguistic environment is changed. Figurative language competence, as predicted by regression hypothesis, is more susceptible to attrition due to chronologically late acquisition compared to other language skills. Figurative language development is not constrained by the early cognitive development but is rather strengthened by effective use. This study examined the relation between idiom comprehension and first language (L1) attrition in Neo-Aramaic-English (NA-E) bilinguals. 30 NA-E bilinguals and (30) Canadian English (CE) monolinguals were assessed across two tasks: first, to figuratively interpret nondecomposable and decomposable idioms; second, to rate their usage on a frequency scale. CE monolinguals outperformed NA-E bilinguals in interpreting both nondecomposable and decomposable idioms while NA-E bilinguals were better at providing literal interpretations and being unfamiliar with the idioms. The usage-frequency test suggests that NA-E bilinguals were precipitated by their literal interpretations. The results provide further support for the regression hypothesis which entails second language (L2) dominance.

KEYWORDS: Neo-Aramaic; idioms; language attrition; regression hypothesis

INTRODUCTION
The ubiquitous status of idioms as a linguistic and culture-motivated phenomenon has gained interdisciplinary attention from scholars. However, little is known about the relation between idiomaticity and language attrition, since most of the scholarly attention has been focused on the structural and lexical aspects of language. After three decades of assiduous research on language attrition, various tasks and methodologies have been used in the conducted work which has greatly enriched and advanced the field. However, research, more often than not, has been limited to attrition in certain fields of language, such as syntax (de Bot, Gommans, & Rossing, 1991; Altenberg, 1991; Myers-Scotton, 2007; Tsimpli, Sorace, Heycock & Filiaci, 2004), morphology (Häkansson, 1995; Kaufman & Aronoff, 1991), lexical accessibility and lexical retrieval (Ammerlaan, 1996; Olshtain & Barzilay, 1991), and phonetic perception (Ventureyra, Pallier & Yoo, 2004). This limited scope could be partially attributed to the influence of the predominant Chomskyan view which shoehorned idioms into a lexical category. Section (5) will sketch out the main points of the generative approach towards idioms. Apart from scarcity of research tackling figurative competence attrition, another line of research focused only on L2 attrition such as Spanish attrition by English L1 speakers (Bahrick, 1984), German attrition by Turkish L1
speakers (Kuhberg, 1992), English attrition by L1 Hebrew speakers (Olshtain, 1986), and (Berman & Olshtain, 1983), to mention but a few. In section 2, we talk about the ‘regression hypothesis and its development as an offshoot of aphasiac studies. section 3 is an overview of attrition in endangered languages. Section 4 deals with attrition in NA as an endangered language and how attrition is a gradual, progressive process. In section 5, we comment on idiom treatment within the generative model and some analytical issues. Then, in section 6, we talk at some length about Nunberg and colleagues’ notion of compositionality as a framework for idiom analysis. Sections 7 and 8 are dedicated to the methodology and results of the study. We discuss our results in section 9 and then we wrap up with the conclusion in section 10.

Regression hypothesis

When it was first introduced into linguistics, Jakobson’s (1971) ‘regression hypothesis’ was phonologically motivated. Then, it became one of the widely used models in language (L1 & L2) attrition research (for an overview see de Bot & Weltens, 1991; Schmid, 2002; Schmid & Köpke, 2004). Jakobson (1971) pointed out that “[a]phasiac regression has proved to be a mirror of the child’s acquisition of speech sounds; it shows the child’s development in reverse” (p.40). He stated that this kind of regression was by no means limited to the acquisition of phonological patterns but a characteristic feature that could be found in other aspects of the ‘grammatical system’. In line with this argument, the regression hypothesis predicts that language items/skills that are acquired/learned last are very likely to be lost first. In other words, items or skills learned first are usually primitive, easily stored, comprehended and rehearsed. On the contrary, items or skills learned last are complicated, advanced, difficult to store, more susceptible to misinterpretation, and scarcely rehearsed due to time constraint relative to early-learned items or skills. Clark (1972) found that children learn the general sense of a word and then its specific sense. Consistent with this reasoning, in ‘markedness theory’ (Lyons 1977; Cruse 2000), the unmarked member of a pair is usually positive, morphologically unmarked, and more frequently encountered in a wide variety of contexts than its marked counterpart does. By this logic, the marked member is an ideal candidate for attrition. Cruse (2000) expounded that the global properties of the default (i.e. unmarked) member reduce the processing effort required on the part of speaker and hearer.

Knowing the chronological order of figurative competence development in children (Levorato & Cacciari, 1995; Cain, Towes & Knight, 2009), which usually follows phonetic, phonological and syntactic knowledge acquisition, we predict that access to idiomatic knowledge may be easily disrupted and eventually lost in L1 attrition scenarios. A similar effect was found in processing idioms: children found nondecomposable idioms difficult to understand. By the same token, adults took longer to process nondecomposable idioms compared to normally decomposable ones (Gibbs, Nayak, & Cutting 1989; Gibbs & Nayak, 1991).

The analogy between language acquisition in children and language dissolution in adult aphasiac persons as suggested by Jakobson (1971), paved the way for other investigators (Caramazza and Zurif, 1978; Goodglass, 1978; Goodglass, Gleason, & Hyde, 1970) to utilize regression hypothesis in their work in order to gain better understanding of aphasia. Caramazza and Zurif’s (1978) succinctly stated that:
Those aspects of language competence acquired last, or, more precisely, those that are most dependent on other linguistic developments, are likely to be the first to be disrupted consequent to brain damage; those aspects of language competence that are acquired earliest and thus ‘independent’ of later development are likely to be most resistant to effects of brain damage. (p. 145)

However, non-pathological language attrition is an incremental process whereas aphasia usually causes abrupt language loss after a stroke or brain injury (Jordens, de Bot & Trapman, 1989). This claim is tenable in spite of the fact that aphasia, in rare cases, may develop gradually due to a degenerative neurological disease or a slow-growing tumour. Jordens et al. (1989) makes another claim that “local brain damage does not in general lead to global deterioration of cognitive and linguistic skills, but to specific deficits of part of the language system” (p. 180). Contrary to this assumption, ‘global aphasia’ is severe kind of impairment of cognitive abilities that greatly affects the patient’s receptive and expressive skills (“Aphasia,” 2015).

**L1 attrition in an endangered language**

It is important to point out that attrition in L1 functionality might be on a par with other structural aspects of L1 linguistic knowledge. We posit, in line with the regression hypothesis, that idiom acquisition is contingent on previously acquired linguistic knowledge; therefore, it is a corollary that such a skill is more susceptible to gradual erosion, and subsequently attrition, than autonomously acquired lexical items or phonemic segments. Although a considerable number of idiomatic expressions originate from old anecdotes stemming from culture-specific conventions, adult L1 native speaker must have the linguistic ability to tease apart the literal and figurative meanings of the constituent parts of an idiom without knowing its historical roots. L1 native speaker’s duty is not limited to efficiently producing and comprehending idioms in their communicative interactions, but extends to actively participating as progenitors in the process of creating parts of the figurative repertoire, particularly idioms which are essential in acquiring native-like fluency.

L1 system (i.e. morphosyntactic and phonological rules) in young bilinguals is more amenable to attrition than it is in old bilinguals. Structural aspects of language are impervious to attrition in old bilinguals especially when L1 and L2 are typologically different. Further, most of the researched languages in the study of attrition are not endangered, as is the case with NA. Fishman (1971) introduced his 8-category Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS). NA fits in with Fishman’s 7th category: the second generation knows the language but the process of transmitting to their children is troubled (see Lewis & Simons 2010). According to UNESCO’s *Atlas of the world’s languages in danger*, NA is categorized as a definitely endangered language: ‘children no longer learn the language as mother tongue in the home’. We partly agree with this overgeneralized designation, because it does not differentiate between immigrant and non-immigrant environments. Therefore, we prefer to follow Van Els’s (1986) typology of language attrition in terms of which language is lost and the environment in which it is lost (i.e. L1 loss in L2 environment by immigrants). We are aware of the political unrest in that region, particularly in the north of Iraq. Although Iraqi Christian NA native land (Nineveh plain) is in turmoil, children still learn NA from their parents. Unfortunately, unlike Arabic and Kurdish, NA
is not recognized as one of the official languages of Iraq. Home is the only place where NA is used for communication. UNESCO’s definition applies to thousands of NA immigrants who have fled their fatherland. However, the gloomy situation portends major linguistic changes as thousands of NA natives obsess immigration.

The traditional three-generation axiom predicts that the first generation of immigrants maintains L1 very well and learns L2 as a means of communication (Thomason, 2015). The second generation learns L2 and becomes bilingual to varying degrees (balanced or dominant) depending on various factors that overlap and fluctuate intra- and interpersonally, such as the amount of use (input and output), attitude towards L1 and L2, level of proficiency in L1, and identity. However, we believe that maintaining equal levels of proficiency across various domains of language use, even by bilinguals who have polished skills in two languages, is a peculiar trend rather than a customary routine (see Fishman, 1972). Children born in L2 environment (the third generation) are extensively exposed to L2 and thus highly inclined to lose their L1. Gonzo & Saltarelli’s cascade model predicts that the third generation’s L1 proficiency is predestined to be substandard, because they will most likely receive incomplete knowledge from their parents.

Justifying the study
NA is a group of language varieties that are descendants of Middle Aramaic. There are also Jewish NA dialects, but those are outside the scope of this study. North-eastern NA dialects (NENA) are spoken in northern Iraq, northwestern Iran and southeastern Turkey - the study is concerned with one of the NENA dialects. We selected NA-E bilinguals who came from the same geographical area to avoid any dialectological difference that might be an impediment to comprehension and thus negatively affecting the phenomenon under investigation. We tried to control for the linguistic background of our participants by targeting an Iraqi homogeneous group of Chaldean descent living in Canada, which facilitated the process of examining the figurative aspect of idioms in this under-researched variety. It is intriguing to know that the variety under investigation is spoken only; its acquisition is solely contingent on oral transmission from the older generation. The only possible way to learn or acquire NA, as a native-born citizen in the fatherland or a member of the diaspora, is through constant interpersonal communication with other native speakers. In other words, the NA learner cannot simply delve in a dictionary or a grammar book when s/he comes across a new word or an idiom that s/he did not hear before. Consequently, literacy and education, unlike oracy, have no significant role to play in learning or acquiring NA.

The study is motivated by the fact that most of the existing literature on NENA dialects is either descriptive or focused on Jewish dialects (see Cohen, 2012; Hoberman, 1988, 1989; Khan, 2004, 2008, 2009; Kroktoff, 1982 to name but a few). In all fairness, we admit that this trend has been changed by recent work carried out by Coghill and Duetscher (2002), Doran & Khan (2012), and others.

We assume that NA-E adult bilinguals (L1 potential attriters) are not fully proficient L1 users, at least at the level of their figurative language skills, they are prone to attrite their L1, and they hence become linguistically different from other native speakers of their language. For this
reason, we describe the scenario of NA as ‘language attrition’ rather than ‘language shift’. According to Lambert and Freed (1982), language attrition is:

[T]he loss of any language or any portion of a language by an individual or a speech community. It may refer to the declining use of mother tongue skills by those in bilingual situations or among ethnic minorities in (some) language contact situations where one language, for political or social reasons, come to replace another. (p.1)

We believe this description is theoretically motivated, as NA-E bilinguals’ language system seems to be simplistic relative to native speakers of their age. On the other hand, language shift can be defined as a group’s tendency to abandon its L1 and embrace the language of the dominant group (Baker & Jones, 1998; Fishman, 1971; Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1985). Language attrition occurs as an ineluctable result of language shift. Hence, the correlation between language attrition and language shift can be subsumed under the hypernym ‘language loss’ (see de Bot and Weltens1995). For the purpose of this study, we do not intend to make a distinction between language attrition and language loss except that the former is characterized by graduality and partiality whereas the latter can be described as large-scale decadence. Rather, we use language attrition, in its broad sense to cover both lost and defectively acquired portions of a language on the part of L1 speaker and on the part of the (endangered) language itself. In accordance with the three-generation axiom, Gonzo and Saltarelli (1983) stated that even first generation’s L1 is susceptible to attrition over time, which results in a ‘reduced’ L1system. Consequently, the second generation’s L1 undergoes further attrition and, by the same token, the third generation has to grapple with the most attrited form of L1. For Jaspaert, Kroon, and Van Hout (1986) the incomplete intergenerational transfer of language proficiency is rather an imperfect acquisition of some ‘grammatical categories’. We maintain that the portion referred to can be described as lost for two reasons: first, the average age of our L1 NA speakers (27 years) qualifies them to be quite cognizant of the material under investigation (i.e. idioms); second, the idioms used in the study have a high usage frequency among native speakers. This phenomenon can be chalked up to L1 disuse and the great effect of the dominant language (L2) in contact situation.

The linguistic environment, NA attriters find themselves in, offers them neither the opportunity to acquire the figurative competence efficiently nor the social and cultural milieu conducive for developing their L1 in a systematic and consistent manner like other native speakers. Therefore, L1 attrition in this case is an intergenerational decline occurring at the group level rather than a single act of atrophy at the individual level which is more like the concern of L2 loss research. Since the main concern of our study is L1 attrition, it is important to note that language attrition and second language acquisition are two distinct fields of research (see Schmid & Köpke, 2007). We predict that the outcomes of this study are not mere instances of language change but a part of a consistent, progressive pattern that we already noticed in two separate studies on NA animal metaphors and politeness theory (Al-kajela forthcoming). The intergenerational transmission of linguistic competence and cultural conventions is interrupted; hence, the advanced stages of language proficiency (i.e. the figurative aspects of language) cannot be developed properly. For NA-E bilinguals, attaining this kind of knowledge is disturbed due to the lack of incessant qualitative and quantitative L1 use which is triggered by operationalized, efficient contact with
native speakers (see Cook, 2005; Paradis, 2007). Such interruption is not likely to have a great effect on the phonological and morphosyntactic structures of L1; they are less susceptible to attrition. However, it is important to note that the NA-E bilinguals we refer to in this study are the second generation and still have to use their attenuated L1 in communicating with their parents or grandparents who usually have limited knowledge of the majority or dominant language. It has been noted that the use of L1 dwindles through adolescence and adulthood as the second generation becomes more involved in the institutional networks of the dominant group, which demand intensive and highly proficient use of L2 (see Pauwels, 2016).

**Traditional approaches to idioms: a very long row to hoe**

This section and the next one are important adjuncts to the development of our work: idioms are by no means similar to lexical items that are stored in our mental lexicon as suggested by generative grammar theory. We stated above that idioms are first out because they are last in and, accordingly, idiomatic expressions are likely to be more susceptible to attrition than lexical items. The claim that the meaning of an idiom is assigned holistically rather than being a feature of its individual components paved the way for the traditional linguistic view of generative grammar to treat idioms as lexical items characterized by syntactic inflexibility. Undergoing transformations such as passivization, topicalization, quantification and ellipsis without affecting the figurative meaning of idioms was the principal criterion in support of the claim that idioms have no internal composition as stated by (Chomsky, 1980; Fraser, 1970; Katz, 1973).

We are going to review Fraser’s (1970) theoretical work and then shed some light on Chafe’s (1968) treatment within generative semantics theory. Frazer’s model was an extension of Katz and Postal (1963), but more plausible than Weinreich’s (1969) model. Frazer’s (1970) transformational approach introduced a ‘hierarchy of frozenness’ based on the degree of tolerance idioms exhibit while undergoing transformations- idioms were categorized according to their syntactic flexibility. His seven degrees of frozenness ranged from the least frozen or ‘unrestricted’ idioms (L6) such as spill the beans to completely frozen ones (L0 ) as dip into one’s pocket (p.39-41). For Fraser (1970) an idiom is “a constituent or series of constituents for which the semantic interpretation is not a compositional function of the formatives of which it is composed” (p.2). One of the repercussions of this definition is that an idiom becomes unamenable to topicalization which belongs to levels 6 of ‘frozenness hierarchy’. More importantly, Fraser (1970) claimed that level 6 cannot be occupied by idioms, viz., transformations in level 6 such as topicalization are “something impossible for an idiom” (p.19). This claim implicitly gave rise to the idea that generative grammar treats all idioms as a class of arbitrary associations between forms and meanings, which suffer from transformational deficiencies. This seems to go hand in hand with the generative view that the semantic interpretation of the whole is not a function of the semantic interpretation of the parts. Proponents of the standard transformational view used some notorious examples of the structure [V NP] to justify their stance that some transformations are blocked:

1- # The bucket was kicked by the old man. (passivization)  
2- # The breeze, she shot last night. (topicalization)  
3- # She chewed some fat, while the lecture was in progress. (quantification)  
4- # She played the field when she was young, but did not play it any more. (ellipsis)
However, one cannot ignore the existence of a considerable number of [V NP] idioms that undergo transformations without affecting their figurative meaning and that only parts of idioms (not the whole string) demonstrate syntactic flexibility. These parts can be structurally manipulated, which adds a subtle nuance to the original meaning as pointed out by Berman (1974), Nunberg, Sag and Wasow (1994), Vega Moreno (2007) and Wasow, Sag, and Nunberg (1983). The examples below show that individual parts of idioms can be modified, quantified, topicalized, anaphorized, deleted and passivized; they refute the traditional assumption that idioms are lexical items and cannot be internally modified:

5- Leave no legal stone unturned.
6- They promised to toe the parliament line and pass the bill into law.
7- He knew the senior officer who pulled a few strings for him to get that promotion.
8- His brief report has to hit all the high spots.
9- That bandwagon the voters would not climb on unless they receive official assurances.
10- The straw she clutched at did not solve her financial crisis.
11- I thought the line would be drawn at the foreign interference, but it was not.
12- A political pundit speculated that a bombshell would be dropped during the presidential inauguration, and it was.
13- My lawyers will be drummed out of the bar association, but yours will not.
14- The senior counsellor was elbowed out of the office because of political corruption.

In addition, the Chomskyan framework has dubbed idioms such as by and large, trip the light fantastic, kingdom come, etc. syntactically ill-formed, because they are, allegedly, not generated by the base component and thus should be treated and stored as any lexical item in the language. In this vein, Katz and Postal (1963) stated that an empirically adequate syntactic component should not generate such idioms because they are ungrammatical strings. However, they conjectured “that sentences containing such idioms can be generated by the device that gives a syntactic description of the semisentences of the language” (p.281). All in all, Katz and Postal’s nebulous theory takes us back to square one where the semantic component arbitrarily offers two options: one is figurative and the other is literal.

Chafe (1968), a vehement opponent, criticized transformational grammar theory generally and the way idioms were dealt with in particular. Instead of the traditional syntactic treatment of idioms, Chafe (1968) employed his theory of generative semantics to derive idioms and justify their ostensible syntactic deficiencies. In his model, he claimed that each semantic unit (i.e.an idiom) has its ‘literalization’ and ‘symbolization’ rule, the former converts semantic units into literal post-semantic arrangements (of other semantic units) whereas the latter coverts the post-semantic arrangements into phonetic units or sounds. Well-formed idioms such as kick the bucket have a possible semantic arrangement because it has a literal counterpart. On the other hand, ill-formed idioms such as ‘trip the light fantastic’ also have their latent rules, but their literalization rule does not produce possible post-semantic arrangements as they do not have literal counterparts. Regrettably, Chafe’s model differed only procedurally from the Chomskyan syntactic set up, as they both, at the end of the day, agreed that an idiom like kick the bucket is a single semantic or syntactic unit much like the lexical item ‘die’ and that idioms constitute a heterogeneous class of well- and ill-formed ones.
Compositionality and decompositionality: a change of pace

Since neither transformational grammar theory nor the generative semantic framework provided a satisfactory mechanism to deal with idioms as non-arbitrary and non-lexical items, we turn to another widely acknowledged model among linguists working in different fields of research (Cacciari & Glucksberg, 1991; Gibbs, 1994; Gibbs & Nayak, 1989; Gibbs, Nayak & Cutting, 1989; Titone & Connine, 1999). Nunberg (1978) made his mark on the study of idioms by suggesting that the syntactic flexibility and/or inflexibility of idioms is not a function of syntax or semantics, but rather a mapping established by the speakers of a language between these two levels. Nunberg proposed that idioms lie on a continuum of compositionality and each element of an idiom plays a role in its overall meaning. As a result, the syntactic behaviour of an idiom is claimed to be largely determined by its position on the proposed continuum and the assumptions motivated by the beliefs of language users about the contribution of each constituent. According to Nunberg, decompositionality is the speakers’ ability to establish a link stemming from their beliefs between the individual parts of an idiom and the overall idiomatic meaning. Following in Nunberg’s footsteps, Gibbs and Nayak’s (1989) Idiom Decomposition Hypothesis demonstrates the correlation between decomposability and speaker’s ability to establish a link between the constituent parts and the overall meaning of an idiom. To prove his theory, Nunberg compared the syntactic behaviour of two idioms roughly meaning to die: the traditional example kick the bucket with give up the ghost.

15- # Once the bucket has been kicked, there is nothing medical science can do.
16- Once the ghost has been given up, there is nothing medical science can do.

Nunberg suggested that language users’ beliefs and intuitions play an important role in licensing the meaning of such strings, and offer a line of reasoning that best explains their syntactic peculiarity. It is claimed that the idiom in (16) is a two-place relation and the speaker can assign independent referents to the constituent parts of the idiom. People, derived by their beliefs about death, agree to associate ghost with person’s spirit and give up with yield (Nunberg 1978; Nunberg et al. 1994; Vega Moreno 2007). By the same logic, (15) did not accept passivization because people could not assign idiomatic referents to the individual parts of the idiom. The idiom is characterized as a one-place relation in reference to person’s biological state due to death.

To recapitulate, when the speaker is able to discern the relation between the constituent parts of an idiom and its idiomatic referents, then the idiom is normally decomposable. On the other hand, the idiom is nondecomposable when idiomatic referents cannot be assigned to its constituent parts. Contentious ‘abnormally decomposable’ idioms fall between these two poles on Nunberg’s continuum. There has been some disagreement among investigators on this category. For example, Vega Moreno (2007) considers spill the beans a normally decomposable idiom and assigns idiomatic referents to its constituents: spill denotes ‘divulge’ and beans denotes ‘concealed information’. For Gibbs et al. (1989) and Gibbs and Nayak (1989), spill the beans is conceived as an abnormally decomposable idiom. Gibbs and colleagues agree that the relation between spill and ‘divulge’ is direct and an idiomatic referent can be assigned successfully, but they reject the assumption that beans can be treated in the same manner. According to Gibbs et al., and Gibbs, and Nayak, the relation between beans and ‘concealed information’ is
metaphorically motivated and does not license idiomatic referent assignment. It is worth noting that Gibbs and Nayak added another dimension to decompositionality by introducing the concept of ‘semantic field’. Constituent parts of decomposable idioms can be either ‘paradigmatically’ or ‘syntagmatically’ related because they belong to the same semantic field. When a semantic relation between the Constituent parts cannot be established, the idiom is taken to be nondecomposable.

For the purposes of this study, we have employed Gibbs and Nayak’s distinction between decompositional and non-decompositional idioms. For idioms to be considered nondecomposable, they should have their constituent parts in the same semantic field. On the other hand, idioms were considered decomposable if they met the minimum requirement of syntagmatic or paradigmatic relation. This broad categorization is congruent with Nunberg’s characterization.

**METHODOLOGY**

*Experimental design and instrument*

The experiment was designed to measure the influence of second language acquisition (English) on the vitality of first language (Neo-Aramaic). Our study relied on 36 NA idiomatic expressions and their English equivalents. The idioms were divided into two groups: for convenience, the 13 nondecomposable idioms were followed by 23 decomposable ones (see appendix A). However, both groups of idioms were randomly ordered in the survey. We could not have an equal number of both types of idioms for two reasons; first, the difficulty of obtaining equally familiar idioms in both languages; Second, the intricacy of procuring idiomatic expressions with a high degree of matching (non-)decomposability. These idioms were elicited from 10 old native NA speakers through one-on-one interviews. From the collected data, we selected the 36 idioms with the highest level of frequency, which the old native NA speakers rated on a six-point frequency scale. The subjects were asked to interpret the idiomatic expression using plain English. In other words, the survey is an explanation task that will reveal some aspects of participants’ L1 figurative knowledge. We also selected idiomatic expressions that are quite familiar in both cultures, because familiarity is a function of frequency. Familiar idioms are likely to be more frequently encountered and used in daily interactions than less or non-familiar idioms (Schweigert, 1986, 1991). It was quite a challenge to obtain idioms that share semantic and syntactic properties in two typologically and culturally different languages. Therefore, the chosen English idioms were pragmatically equivalent; they conveyed similar, not exact, idiomatic function to that of NA.

We tried to provide English near equivalents that are as familiar as the NA ones. For example, we used 'make a mountain out of a molehill' instead of 'all his geese are swans' as an equivalent for the NA idiom *g-mafir fīle* 'he flies elephants', which is used to refer to someone who exaggerates. There were two versions of the survey: one was composed of 36 transliterations of NA idioms and the other was their corresponding English ones. In order to ensure that NA-E bilinguals comprehend and interpret the idioms by using their L1, the NA idioms were transliterated. This procedure guaranteed that the subjects are native NA speakers and helped
minimize the influence of English. In addition, all the idiomatic expressions were out of context in order to avoid any prompting effects that context usually brings about.

The study examined the usage frequency of these idiomatic expressions; therefore, we constructed a descending frequency scale (Likert scale) to help subjects pick out options that best represent their usage tendency. The participants were asked to rate, on a six-point frequency scale, how often they use these idioms in their daily interactions. Our frequency scale consisted of these items: ‘Always’, ‘Usually’, ‘Frequently’, ‘Rarely’, ‘Never’, and ‘I do not know this expression’. In data analysis, we compared participants' interpretations (idiomatic, literal, no interpretation) of each idiomatic expression among the conditions (decomposable and nondecomposable) to find out whether participants differed significantly in their comprehension of the idioms in question. We also compared participants' ratings on the frequency scale for both decomposable and nondecomposable idioms.

NA-E participants were required to answer questions about their length of stay in country of the dominant language. Subjects of the experimental group (NA-E) and control group (CE) had to answer another question about how often they use their L1 and L2 in their daily interactions. A six-item frequency scale was used for this question: ‘Always’, ‘Usually’, ‘Frequently’, ‘Sometimes’, ‘Rarely’, and ‘Never’. For the control group (CE) this question was used as a filter to rule out answers of monolinguals who did not opt for ‘Always’ on the L1 usage-frequency scale.

Subjects
Two groups of participants took part in the experiment. There were 30 subjects in each group. The first group consisted of NA-E bilinguals (17 females) and the second group was comprised of CE speakers (21 females). Most NA-E bilinguals were either students or had graduated from McMaster University several years earlier, their ages were between 18-35 (mean age: 27), and the average of their exposure to English was 15 years. All of the CE monolingual speakers were undergraduate students at McMaster University and their ages ranged between 18 and 24 (mean age: 24.5). Only responses from subjects who were native speakers of NA and CE were considered in our data, other response from non-native participants were excluded. NA subjects volunteered to participate whereas CE subjects received research credit in one of their linguistics classes upon participation.

Procedure
The study was in the form of an online survey. All the participants had to read and sign a consent form before accessing the survey. The preamble statement and letter of information gave an adequate description of the survey and its objectives. It was emphasized that the participants' task was to provide idiomatic rather than literal interpretation of the expressions in question. We informed the participants that these expressions have meanings that are distinct from the meaning of the constituting words when considered in isolation; therefore, the interpretation should reflect the meaning of the words as a whole rather than discrete unit. Prior to answering the survey questions, participants familiarized themselves with an example that illustrated the difference between literal and idiomatic meanings. The example below, which did not appear in the
The survey should take approximately (30-45) minutes. However, for their convenience, participants did not have to answer all the questions in one session. We collected some demographic information from both groups, such as their age, length of residence in Canada, and native language or L1. There was also a question about how often they use both their native language (L1) and L2 in daily interactions. NA-E bilinguals who did not identify themselves as NA native were eliminated to avoid the possibility of not comprehending the idiom. Similarly, CE speakers whose first language was not English or who were bilinguals were also eliminated in order to block misinterpretations that L2 might invoke. The data were collected with confidentiality and anonymity.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Idiom comprehension test

To analyze our data we used R programming language for statistical computing (Field et al. 2012). Our statistical results were based on Wilcox rank-sum test (i.e. a nonparametric test of two independent samples). We classified the participants' interpretations into three distinct categories as stated above. Each interpretation was considered and analyzed separately to determine to which category it belonged. For correctly interpreting the nondecomposable idiomatic expressions, the analysis yielded a significant difference between both groups at .05 level (Fig. 1). The number of idioms in Figure 1 and subsequent figures refers to the order in which they appeared in (appendix A). CE speakers scored significantly higher (Mdn=86.6) than NA-E bilinguals (Mdn= 36.6), \( W= 141, p=0.00, r= -0.53 \).

NA-E bilinguals exhibited incompetence in identifying the idiomaticity of the nondecomposable idioms, which explains their high scores in the following two conditions, viz., literal and no interpretation. For providing literal interpretations of nondecomposable idioms, NA-E bilinguals
did better ($Mdn=33.3$) than CE speakers ($Mdn=13.3$), $W=37.5$, $p=.02$, $r=-.44$ as shown in (Fig. 2). Apparently, NA-E bilinguals could not perceive the idiomatic meaning and they seemed to be inclined to the suboptimal, failsafe literal interpretation. Furthermore, CE speakers were consistent in providing either correct or incorrect interpretations unlike NA-E bilinguals who showed more unfamiliarity with nondecomposable idiomatic expressions ($Mdn=16.6$), $W=36.5$, $p=.01$, $r=-.45$ (see Fig. 3). Some NA-E bilinguals were quite unfamiliar with these idiomatic expressions; therefore, they designated them as inexplicable.

The two experimental groups demonstrated a similar pattern in their interpretation of decomposable idioms. NA-E bilinguals were not as successful as CE monolinguals in providing felicitous interpretations of this kind of idioms. It is clear that idiom decomposability was a facilitating factor that resulted in 13.4% increase in NA-E bilinguals' figurative interpretations.
while CE monolinguals kept their scores constant at (Mdn=86.6%). However, there was still a significant difference between both groups at .05 level, \( W = 436.6, p = .00, r = -.69 \).

Again, decomposable idioms were responsible for a slight drop (6.7%) in NA-E bilinguals' literal interpretations, which is an index of performance improvement. In spite of the slight conversion (Fig. 5) between NA-E bilinguals and CE monolinguals, there was still a statistically significant difference, \( W = 114.5, p = .00, r = -.60 \).

NA-E bilinguals were less familiar with some decomposable idiomatic expressions which explains their tendency to eschew giving any interpretation more frequently than CE monolinguals. It is worth noting that decomposable idioms were responsible for 3.3% drop in NA-E bilinguals' scores unlike the invariable pattern demonstrated by CE monolinguals (Fig. 6). The Wilcoxon rank sum test showed a significant difference between both groups at .5 threshold, \( W = 162, p = .01, r = -.44 \).
Usage-frequency test
On the scale of frequency, we observed a statistically significant difference in participants' tendency to use decomposable idiomatic expressions in their daily interactions. However, this difference was limited to 'always', 'never', and 'do not know'. For convenience, all the statistical results are summarized in Table 1. Both groups did not demonstrate any considerable inclination to use this kind of idioms, hence the low scores on the scale of frequency. We found that NA-E bilinguals scored slightly higher (Mdn= 6.6) than CE monolinguals (Mdn=0), W= 149, p=.00, r= -.48. In line with the marginal use of 'always', CE monolinguals' employment of decomposable idioms was thin on the ground. They opted to use 'never' more frequently (Mdn= 30) than NA-E bilinguals (Mdn= 16.6), W= 391.5, p=.00, r= -.51. As indicated earlier, NA-E bilinguals did not know some of the idiomatic expressions, which was automatically reflected in their preferences on the frequency scale. In other words, not knowing an idiomatic expression entails the exclusion of its usage altogether, hence the identical values to the previous 'no interpretation' condition (Mdn=3.3), W= 162, p= .01, r=.44.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Frequency</th>
<th>W</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>Mdn% NA-E</th>
<th>Mdn% CE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.48</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>-.24</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.32</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>391.5</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.51</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.44</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We observed more conversion in the usage of the nondecomposable idioms, which was characterized by a slight decrease in frequency. Both groups agreed to consider this kind of idioms less relevant to their daily interactions; therefore, we did not find a statistically significant difference in the participants' ratings for 'always', 'usually', 'sometimes' and 'rarely' (see Table 2). As we pointed out earlier, nondecomposable idioms were more unfamiliar to NA-E bilinguals.
than CE monolinguals and thus the significant difference for their ‘none’ ratings, $W=36.5$, $p=.01$, $r =-.46$. However, there was a statistically significant difference on the lower end of the frequency scale (i.e. 'never'), $W=138.5$, $p=.01$, $r =-.51$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Frequency</th>
<th>Nondecomposable idioms</th>
<th>$W$</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>Mdn% NA-E</th>
<th>Mdn% CE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>86.5</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>84.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>138.5</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.51</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.46</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The experimental group was more inclined to use L2 in daily interactions instead of using L1. There was a significant difference between NA-E bilinguals’ use of L1 and L2 ($p=.02$). NA-E bilinguals scored significantly higher for using L2 by their ratings for ‘always’ and ‘usually’ ($p=.05$, $p=.03$ respectively). Towards the lower end of the frequency scale, L1 showed high ratings only for ‘frequently’ which differed significantly from L2 ratings ($p=.00$). We did not find a significant difference for the other items of the scale.

**Discussion**

The study presented in this article provides empirical evidence in favour of the regression hypothesis and psycholinguistic research on idiom comprehension. We discuss the results of idiom interpretation task then we talk about the implications of idiom usage-frequency test. It is likely that high-frequency L1 idioms were not significantly related to NA-E bilinguals’ figurative interpretation; rather, idiom decomposability was more involved in NA-E bilinguals’ idiomatic capability. For NA-E bilinguals, decomposability correlated with L1 idiom interpretability. We point out that relying on frequency in idiom interpretation is a good indication of being in active contact with the L1 linguistic community. It is clear that NA-E bilinguals’ interpretation mechanism was based mainly on semantic and syntactic cues collected from idiom constituent parts. We noticed that their performance improved on decomposable-idioms task compared to nondecomposable ones, but it was outperformed by the CE monolinguals. In line with Gibbs, Nayak, and Cutting (1989), and Gibbs and Nayak (1991), NA-E bilinguals found decomposable idioms more facile than nondecomposable ones, while frequency was held constant throughout both tasks. As such, NA-English bilinguals did not rely on the frequency of the L1 idiomatic expressions. Lack of reliance on idiom frequency or familiarity entails alienation of NA speakers from their linguistic and cultural environment. However, the highly familiar or high-frequency idioms did play an important role in CE monolinguals’ ability to provide idiomatic interpretation in both decomposable and nondecomposable idiom interpretation task. Again, this could be explained by their constant performance in decomposable and nondecomposable idiom interpretation task.
The decline in NA-E bilinguals’ idiomatic competence was also indicated in their tendency to provide literal instead of idiomatic interpretation for both decomposable and nondecomposable L1 idioms. The same pattern was noticed in their nescience of some idioms altogether, which marks a gap in their figurative development unlike their monolingual peers who did not chalk up a single instance to lack of knowledge. As noted above, NA-E bilinguals failed to correctly interpret more nondecomposable idioms than decomposable ones. However, in both cases their scores were significantly different from CE monolinguals. These results are consistent with the idiom interpretation task and lend support to the regression hypothesis. Ignorance of high-familiarity L1 idioms or failure to provide figurative interpretations of such idioms can be taken as an obvious sign of L1 erosion in contact situation.

At first glance, the results of usage-frequency test of decomposable idioms might seem contradictory. NA-E bilinguals were not able to interpret the idiomatic meaning correctly as often as their CE peers, but for decomposable idioms they opted to use the high-frequency term ‘always’ more often. First, NA-E bilinguals were motivated by the decomposability of the idioms which seemed to facilitate the process of interpretation and result in high-frequency item selection. In addition, a similar idiosyncratic behaviour was not observed when NA-E bilinguals were put on their mettle in the nondecomposable-idiom task due to its difficulty. Although a large proportion of idioms is characterized by colloquialism and informality, it is quite common to find them in the media and literary texts. However, people tend to frequently use them to add a flourish to their speech. They are, therefore, a characteristic feature pertaining to the unique idiolect of every single speaker. Idioms have always been a challenge for linguistic research. There is inconclusive evidence as to the frequency of English idioms (see Strässler 1982). A solid conclusion cannot be reached unless a precise delineation of ‘frequency’ has been agreed upon.

NA-E bilinguals’ L2 leanings revealed that the second generation has stepped into an advanced stage of linguistic transition. Language-use preference played an important role in NA-E bilinguals’ poor interpretation in both tasks. Using L2 received higher ratings for the high-frequency terms ‘always’ and ‘usually’ compared to a low-frequency term ‘frequently’ for L1. That said, it seems that their linguistic competence (grammar, semantics, and phonology) is intact, because they were better than L1 (CE) speakers in providing literal interpretations in both tasks. However, they were conspicuously incompetent in interpreting the figurative meaning of L1 idioms, a functional task that requires continuous use of L1.

CONCLUSION
The study lends support to the regression hypothesis in a language attrition situation. We noticed that a significant part of functional knowledge (i.e. idioms) acquired at later stages of language development is susceptible to progressive attrition before other more independent grammatical and semantic pieces of knowledge. This study points out that idiom mastery is an essential part of developing native-like fluency that requires a great deal of efficient language use. In language contact situation, L1 idiomatic knowledge becomes fuzzier due to the lack of consistent use and the strong effect of L2. Idiom is an amalgam of linguistic, cultural and historical elements, and
only effective interaction with other L1 users can guarantee full access to and good command of this knowledge.

Apart from the need for a dynamic use of L1, developing native-like communicative competence requires acute awareness of the cultural patterns adopted by L1 speakers. In addition to L1 disuse, the poor performance of NA-E bilinguals reflects the effect of L2 (majority language) environment which precludes, to a certain extent, NA-E bilinguals from establishing the required interpersonal contact with other NA speakers to develop L1 idiomatic knowledge. Accordingly, the majority language has nudged NA (minority language) into a state of dormancy. Although the present study contributes to research on L1 attrition in contact situation, it has some limitations. Language attrition studies usually compare a group of bilinguals to native speakers of the same language. This was logistically impossible due to the turmoil in NA native land. Second, the English pragmatic equivalents were confined to the idioms collected from native NA speakers. However, we have to admit that this was, to certain extent, an advantage for NA-E speakers. Third, validating the results of this study will probably require a larger amount of data.

REFERENCES


I would like to thank John Colarusso and Magda Strionska (McMaster University) for their insightful comments on the earlier versions of this research. All remaining errors are very much my own.

APPENDIX (A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Neo-Aramaic nondecomposable idioms (transliteration)</th>
<th>Literal meaning</th>
<th>English pragmatic equivalents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>makh shtetha d-mäya</td>
<td>Like a drink of water</td>
<td>a piece of cake plain sailing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>g-mafir file</td>
<td>He flies elephants</td>
<td>make a mountain out of a molehill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>kālū ḍ-gesa</td>
<td>A bride of plaster</td>
<td>someone who wears a poker face</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>kim-šušhāle</td>
<td>She put him on</td>
<td>give someone the cold shoulder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>meka plīša shinsha</td>
<td>Where did the sun rise?</td>
<td>once in a blue moon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>puqāna ḍ-liya</td>
<td>High nose</td>
<td>nose in the air</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>baqila ḍlā paqala</td>
<td>A fava bean split into two halves</td>
<td>spitting image of someone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>nisī qinla</td>
<td>My body hair stood up</td>
<td>to get goose bumps pimples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>kilmā rāṭheh</td>
<td>His face has blackened/ sooted</td>
<td>have egg on your face</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>afīt min rēshākā</td>
<td>Let things pass over your head</td>
<td>give something a lick and a promise or give something a once-over lightly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>nāthi hūla m-zamānā/gazhdūshe</td>
<td>My ear is buzzing</td>
<td>my ear is burning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>khula ṭīn qitya sharrēh</td>
<td>Did I cut his umbilical cord?</td>
<td>know someone like the back of your hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>idīti hūla bi-khyākā</td>
<td>My hand is itchy</td>
<td>to have an itchy palm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Neo-Aramaic nondecomposable idioms (transliteration)</th>
<th>Literal meaning</th>
<th>English pragmatic equivalents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>hūwīn filīsha</td>
<td>I am demolished or broken</td>
<td>run out of steam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>gma'wer rēsheh b-ku'l mindīt</td>
<td>He sticks his head in everything</td>
<td>a busybody who sticks his nose into everything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>ḍūlē bi-fyāra</td>
<td>He is flying</td>
<td>on top of the world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>la-kaḥlimā</td>
<td>Do not dream</td>
<td>build castles in the air or clouds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>drī enūkā ilēh</td>
<td>Put your eyes on it/him</td>
<td>keep an eye on someone or something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>la-kāre ʻidēh</td>
<td>He does not hold his hand</td>
<td>someone lives beyond their means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>shqūl rāṭūtūk</td>
<td>Take your rest</td>
<td>make yourself at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>kim-ma' wa-ru gā libbīd ārā</td>
<td>He forced us into the heart of the ground</td>
<td>put someone on the spot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>chūchīkka kīmmāmerfl</td>
<td>The sparrow told me</td>
<td>a little bird told me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>la-māchḥīt ḍvānūkā</td>
<td>Do not tire yourself</td>
<td>save your breath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>shqūlā benathān</td>
<td>Leave it between us</td>
<td>Do not spill the beans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>palqīt ḍaqqūkā</td>
<td>Half of your right</td>
<td>serve someone right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>kim-deqālē tābbīt</td>
<td>They slapped a stamp on him</td>
<td>to kick someone out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>rēsheh raqq</td>
<td>His head is hard</td>
<td>he is set in his ways (headstrong)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>lak-khashīkā</td>
<td>He is useless/ not a worthy person</td>
<td>no use to man or beast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>qurīi sūbāthī bathrāh</td>
<td>I bit my fingers after it</td>
<td>finger licking good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>mindf ḍīle b-lībēb hūle l-lishāneh</td>
<td>A thing that is in his heart is on his tongue</td>
<td>wear his heart on his sleeve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>ḍīlētā minnah</td>
<td>He evaded/escape it</td>
<td>get away with something (usually bad)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>maḥkaḥṭeḥ bā-ka'psā ṭē'</td>
<td>His talk does not become two</td>
<td>a man or woman of their word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>sīn qam rēsheh</td>
<td>Go away from my head</td>
<td>get lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>enēh kāntūlā</td>
<td>His eye is hungry</td>
<td>his eyes are bigger than his stomach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>pthūk enūkā</td>
<td>Open your eyes</td>
<td>watch out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>ānnīttā gīlda w-garmmē</td>
<td>She looks like skin and bones</td>
<td>all skin and bones</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE EFFECT OF COLLOCATIONS ON AZARI TURKISH EFL LEARNERS` READING COMPREHENSION

Zahra Kouhi
Islamic Azad University

ABSTRACT
Collocation is one of the most problematic areas in second language learning and it seems that if one wants to improve his or her communication in another language s/he should improve his or her collocation competence. Unfortunately, almost no study has been done in terms of its efficiency among three levels including elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate. The present study aimed at investigating the effect of teaching collocations on Turkish EFL learners` reading comprehension and its efficiency on elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate level. For this purpose, 60 students were chosen from English institutes at elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate levels. Their level of English proficiency was determined on the basis of their scores on a proficiency test. Three intact classes were randomly selected as the experimental group. Due to proven collocation effect on student reading ability, control group was not included in this study. Results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there isn`t any significant differences among the three groups. The findings of the current study shed light on the effect of teaching collocation on EFL learners reading comprehension. The result of this study can be used to inform ESL|EFL teachers and researchers interested in improving their students collocation and have doubt which level in much more effective. The finding that participants in this treatment groups achieved collocation knowledge in all three groups may encourage teachers and researchers in the ESL|EFL field to teach collocation in all three level with confidence that students can benefit from that.

KEYWORDS: Reading Comprehension, Collocation, Idiomatic Expression, Non-idiomatic Expression.

INTRODUCTION
Vocabulary and grammar are both indispensable aspects of knowledge that second language (L2) learners need to acquire. The importance of vocabulary in communication cannot be ignored, as emphatically stated by Wilkins (1972) without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed .The primary concern of L2 vocabulary has largely been single, orthographic words, and Moon (1997) claims that it is natural to focus on the word as the primary unit when discussing vocabulary knowledge, and that dictionaries give an aid to reinforce this focus. It is clear that knowing many words is a merit for all language learners. However, certain learner categories need to attain native-like command of an L2. As a result, especially for advanced learners, e.g. university-level students, teacher students, translators and other professionals, possessing a large vocabulary per se is simply not enough. This has been pointed out by Wray (2002) to know a language you must know not only its individual words, but also how they fit together. Thus, in order to be able to communicate effectively, in addition to knowing many words and their more frequent, core meanings, learners must acquire knowledge.
about the combinatory potential of those words in relation to other words in the language as well. Again, in the words of Moon: —Text studies and corpus studies have revealed the significance and intricacy of the links between words, their strong clustering tendencies and the patterns that are associated with them (1997).

According to Aghbar’s definition (1990), “a collocation refers to two words or more that recurrently co-occur together in the memory of native speakers and are used together with some frequency in both written and spoken discourse. For example, in the sentence “His album come out in the spring”,” “noun”, “album” recurrently co-occurs with the verb “comes out”. Crystal (1997) stated, “They are a type of syntagmatic relation that is predictable to a greater or lesser extent (e.g., the bond between spick and span is stronger than that between letter and pill-box)”.

Most of the vocabulary errors of Iranian EFL learners are related to collocation problems. Intuitively, the majority of sentences formulated by non-native students, including Iranian learners of English as a foreign language, are vocabularies in which could be utilized for conveying meaning rather than looking native like. Some of these grammatical errors are brought about because of teacher's negligence in providing their students with enough collocation materials. Giving priority to collocations, and helping students to in using them correctly, would be a shortcut toward learning English faster and better.

This study is an effort to investigate in which level including (elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate) teaching collocations to Turkish EFL learners affect their reading comprehension ability.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Research conducted over the last three decades has changed our view of reading as a mere process of decoding. As Carrell and Eisterhold (1960) state EFL/ESL reading theory has been influenced during the past decades by Goodman (from the mid- to late 1970s) who views reading as a “guessing game” in which the “reader reconstructs, as best as he can, a message which has been encoded by a writer.” (1983, p. 554) As Grabe describes Goodman’s perception of reading which is seen as an active process of comprehending [where] students need to be taught strategies to read more efficiently (e.g., guess from context, define expectations, make inferences about the text, skim ahead to fill in the context, etc. (1991, p. 377) Paran opposes Godman’s view of reading as an “activity involving constant guesses that are later rejected or confirmed. This means that one does not read all the sentences in the same way, but one relies on a number of words – or ‘cues’ - to get an idea of what kind of sentence (e.g. an explanation) is likely to follow” (1996, p.25). Zhang (1993) explains that Afflarbach compares comprehension process to hypothesis testing (or draft-and-revision) where the reader arrives at the main idea after revising the initial hypothesis, provided the reader has adequate background knowledge.

Moreover, research and practice in TESOL was greatly influenced by Stephen Krashen’s hypotheses on language acquisition, and particularly the effect of “the Schema Theory” on studies dealing with reading comprehension. Today, a growing body of empirical research attests
to the role of schemata in EFL/ESL reading comprehension. Most of the research was made on reading comprehension of the first language. However, insights were adapted to suit SL reading comprehension studies. Most important of all, specific attention is given to interactive approaches to reading, which argue that reading comprehension is a combination of identification and interpretation skills. Grabe (1991) lists the five most important areas of reading which are still prominent: “schema theory, language skills and automaticity, vocabulary development, comprehension strategy training, and reading-writing relations” (p. 375).

There is a wealth of literature on the role of vocabulary knowledge in text comprehension (e.g. Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982, Kameenui, Carnine, & Freschi, 1982; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997, Stahl, 1983). Laufer (1997, p. 20) insists that “it has been consistently demonstrated that reading comprehension is strongly related to vocabulary knowledge, more strongly than to the other components of reading.” Laufer describes this relationship in terms of a one-way phenomenon with reading comprehension benefiting primarily from increased vocabulary knowledge. Right as she is, recent research in L2 reading however, suggests that there is actually a mutual interdependence (or a two-way relationship) between vocabulary development and comprehension (e.g. Koda, 2005; Nation, 2001; Pretorius, 2006; Pulido, 2004; Taraban, Rynearson, & Kerr, 2000).

In fact, Vocabulary has been a topic of interest for many years. The importance of vocabulary to reading success cannot be overstated. In addition to, The National Reading Panel (2000) has named vocabulary one of the five essential elements of reading. Numerous research studies have been conducted in the area of reading, vocabulary, and comprehension instruction. These studies have established that there is a strong connection between reading comprehension and vocabulary (Watts, 1995) however, in the current study the focus is collocation development which is subgroup of vocabulary development.

**Collocation**

It is not an exaggeration to mention that the ways in which collocation has been defined in the literature are quite diverse (see e.g. Fontenelle 1998). Different researchers have tackled the concept in many different ways. Nesselhauf (2004) attribute the divergent use of the term ‘collocation’ to the fact that it has been used by researchers working in many different realms, and that the aims and methods of their investigations have governed the various definitions given.

The word collocation itself can be traced as far back as the 17th century, when it was used by Francis Bacon in his *Natural History* from 1627, but not as a linguistic term. Supposedly, the first time it was used as a linguistic term was more than a century later, in 1750, by Harris, who used it to refer to the linear constellation of, words (Palmer 1933). It was not until the 1930s, however, that the term was used in a way that is reminiscent of the dominant present day use, when Palmer (1931) used it to denote —units of words that are more than single words. This denotation lies close to more recent uses, such as —a natural combination of words (McCarthy & O’Dell (2005), and the way words combine in a language to produce natural sounding speech and writing (*Oxford Collocations Dictionary* 2002).
It will be convenient to acknowledge the fact that collocation, despite its definitional heterogeneity has traditionally been approached from two different aspects in the literature of the second half of the 20th century. In one of them, collocation is intrinsically connected to frequency and statistics, predominantly advocated by scholars working within the fields of Corpus Linguistics and Computational Linguistics.

Despite different definitions of collocation provided by different scholars, it seems to be still some disagreement over its definition. One of the regular definitions of collocation is the strong propensity of one word to co-occur with another word in a particular context (Aghbar 1990; Al-Zahrani 1998; Gitsaki 1999; Nation 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003). Sinclair (1991) argued, a collocation is “either a recurring combination of words that is often arbitrary, or just a recurring combination of a few words without emphasizing its arbitrariness” (p. 123). According to Jacquemin (2001) collocation is “recurrent combinations of words that co-occur more frequently than it would be expected just by chance and that correspond to arbitrary word usage” (p. 58). Cruse (1986) defined collocation as “sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur.” (p. 40). According to Aisenstadt (1981), “Free collocations are combinations of two or more words with free commutability within the grammatical and semantic framework of the language. There are the vast majority of collocations in the language” (p. 59). Free collocations are known as “the least cohesive type of word combinations. The noun ‘murder’, for example, can be used with many verbs to analyze, condemn, and discuss (etc.) a murder.” (Bahns and Eldaw 1993, P. 102).

Restricted collocations are the second type of non-idiomatic combinations. They are expressions whose meanings can be predicted from the meanings of the individual words. “They are used frequently, spring to mind readily, and are psychologically salient (as opposed to free combinations)” (Bahns & Eldaw 1993, P.102).

Benson et al. (1986) arranged restricted collocation into two major classes, lexical collocation and grammatical collocation. Grammatical collocation consists of a noun, an adjective, or a verb plus a preposition or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive or a clause. Lexical collocations consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs.

Now it is turn to take look at some up-to-date empirical studies particularly targeting EFL/ESL learners’ collocational knowledge. Mounya (2010) conducted a study to find the role of teaching collocations in raising foreign language writing proficiency. The sample was composed of two groups, which were chosen randomly. It consisted of forty-eight students whose native language was Arabic and their second Language was French. The experimental group received the treatment while the control group did not. The researcher administered a pre-test to examine students' use of collocations. It illustrated that participants had a limited knowledge of collocations and a wide range of “mis-collocations”. Analysis which was conducted after treatment showed that the participants’ writing proficiency was raised significantly through a clear instruction of collocation. The findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between using collocation and writing proficiency. Alzahrani (1998) explores the productive and receptive knowledge of lexical and grammatical collocations among advanced Arabic-speaking learners of English. Furthermore, he investigates whether the language environment (ESL or EFL) has an influence on the acquisition of collocations.
He also explores whether there is a significant difference between participants’ performances on verb-noun, adjective-noun, and verb-preposition collocations. The participants of the study were 38 Saudi Students at the Institute of Public Administration in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, and 30 Arab students in the Intensive English program at Colorado State University. Three gap-filling tests were used to measure the participants’ productive collocational knowledge. In order to measure their receptive collocational knowledge, Alsakran utilized an appropriateness judgment test. Statistical analysis showed that participants’ learning environment has a strong effect on the acquisition of L2 collocations. The ESL learners had significantly higher scores than the EFL learners. In conclusion, the study revealed a significant difference between the participants’ productive and receptive knowledge of collocations. The participants’ productive knowledge of collocations lagged far behind their receptive collocation knowledge. The results also showed a statistically significant difference between the three types of collocation. The participants performed better on the verb-noun collocations test than on the adjective noun and verb-preposition collocations tests. Finally, the findings revealed that Arabic-speaking Learners of English demonstrated poor knowledge of collocations on all four tests.

In another study, Rahimi and Momeni (2012) investigated the effect of teaching collocations on English language proficiency. The participants of the study were sixty Iranian pre-university students, who were majored in the field of mathematic. Convenient sampling was used to choose the groups from six classes in pre-university centers in a small town in the west of Iran. The participants divided into control and experimental groups arbitrarily including 30 students in each group. Pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design was applied in this study. The researchers taught the words of the reading comprehension passages of a book during 16 weeks to experiment group through using Concordances and corpus-based activities. A traditional instruction of new words such as translation, explanation and definition of the new words was given to control group. The findings of the study revealed that the experimental group had a better performance than the control group. Finally, it was reported that teaching collocations has a positive effect on students’ language proficiency.

Namvar (2012) investigated Iranian male and female postgraduate students’ use of collocations by analyzing the learners’ written work based on multiple-choice tests and a writing task. The samples’ first language was Persian and their foreign language was English. Their level of proficiency was identified as intermediate and above. The researcher used a multiple-choice test of collocation, which consisted of 50 items selected from the Oxford Collocation Dictionary. The test included both lexical and grammatical collocations. The findings of the study revealed that since L1 transfer had a strong effect on the participants’ collocation production, learners had problem with both lexical and grammatical collocations in their writing. Finally, the researcher found a significant correlation between the participants’ language proficiency and their knowledge of collocation.

Another study conducted by Movahediyan Attar and Allami (2013) examines the relationship between teaching collocations and speaking proficiency of EFL Iranian Learners, the relationship between the subjects’ knowledge of collocations and their use of collocate, and students’ attitude towards teaching collocations. A total 80 intermediate students took part in this study. They were
divided into experimental and control group. A collocation test including 30 items and a collocation interview was administered to all participants as a pretest and posttest. Then, *Collocation in Use* was treated to the experimental group. A collocation posttest and interview revealed that the experimental groups’ Speaking proficiency developed in the posttest. The results also showed that the experimental group had a better performance in interview after the instruction of collocation. Furthermore, the student had positive attitudes towards explicit instruction of collocations.

Moreover, Akbari (2008) conducted a quasi-experimental study to examine the effects of collocation instruction on enhancing Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension. Two intact classes were randomly selected as the experimental group and two other classes were selected as the control group. 30 collocations selected from each reading text were taught to the students in the experimental group. Results of paired-sample t-test showed that the students in the experimental group performed better than the control group in reading comprehension. In fact, teaching collocations could play a significant role in enhancing EFL learners’ reading comprehension.

In sum, as the above review indicated, collocation plays an important role in the process of language Learning and teaching. It is very important for EFL learners to improve their fluency, and enhance their communicative competence. Knowing the importance of collocation in all four language skills is a merit in finding new ways and strategies to improve the student’s language proficiency. As shown above, much research has been conducted on the impact of collocation on EFL/ESL learners’ language learning; some of them are conducted to find common collocation errors that language learners make; some other studies have been conducted to focus on the relationship between collocations and language proficiency; however, to the best of the researchers’ knowledge little empirical research has been conducted on its contribution to four language skills.

Zarei (2003) studied Iranian advanced learners’ problems with the production of English collocations. This study was conducted in two phases: extracting Learners’ collocational errors from 2,400 pages of Produced written materials and investigating patterns of 64 learners’ problems in cued production tasks. The results indicated that advanced learners have difficulty with five patterns of collocations. However, the important is when collocations should be taught. In Zinkgraf’s view (2008), it is better to include collocations in learners’ curriculum from the very beginning levels of language learning. As to the most effective techniques which can be used in teaching collocations and formulaic sequences, there is an ongoing hot debate among teachers, researchers, and linguists that, in which level of language proficiency of students collocation should be taught.

As mentioned before, plenty of studies have been carried in realm of collocation from different point of views and aspects but what is considered here is analyzing the effect of teaching collocation on Turkish EFL learners reading comprehension among three levels of language proficiency level including (elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate students).
RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS
This study intended to find answers to the following questions
RQ1. Does a presenting new word through collocation result in a better performance of reading comprehension?
RQ2. If yes, in which level is it more effective, elementary, pre-intermediate or intermediate?

Null Hypotheses
This research focuses on the following research hypotheses:
Teaching collocation will enhance Turkish EFL students reading comprehension ability
Collocation knowledge will be more efficient in intermediate students reading comprehension ability rather than elementary and pre-intermediate students.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants were 60 students registered in an English language school in Ardabil, Iran. Before starting the research, all of them were informed about the study and its purposes. They all were assured that the result of their performance would be kept anonymous. After getting information, they expressed their satisfaction to participate in the study. Twenty Iranian elementary, twenty pre-intermediate and twenty intermediate Turkish EFL learners all females, aged 14 to 22, with the experience of 3 to 5 years of learning English were involved in this study. None of the participants reported that they had been to any English speaking countries. All of the participants were homogenous, which shows the same population. They all received the treatments and those missed the test or treatment, their scores were excluded from analysis.

Material
The material used in this study consisted of a pretest, a post test which was an exact replica of the pretest, and the KEY WORDS FOR FLUENCY books in three levels. The pretest and posttest were teacher made and were designed based on research needs and purposes. Detailed information about materials and course book is provided in the following part.

Proficiency test
Final test were given to learners of this language center after passing each semester. The utilized books were American file books series (fourth edition) and these books test has been designed by the authors of mentioned book. The tests are consisted of 6 parts, including listening, reading, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation and writing. Every correct answer was assigned 1 point and students with 20 correct answer or above were let in to study.

Pretest
To measure the existing knowledge of participants at the very beginning of the study, a test was developed by the researcher. In fact, it was designed to evaluate collocation knowledge within a context. In other words, it was cloze test which is subset of reading comprehension. Also, the test was observed by two language experts and the needed changes were applied. However, it is assumed that, if the pretest contains more items, it will be highly accepted. In this study, due to
investigating three levels of English proficiency, a different test was designed for each level. Each test includes 20 items. They were given 20 minutes to do the test. The reliability of tests was calculated as shown later (See Appendix A). THE KEY WORDS FOR FLUENCY book’s series were used to design these tests.

**Posttest**

To measure the collocation knowledge of participants who attended the treatment sessions, a posttest was administered at the end of the course. Due to analyzing three levels of proficiency, three separate tests were designed. Like the pretest, posttest evaluated collocation knowledge within context. In other words, it was cloze test which is subset of reading comprehension. The time span between the pretest and posttest was 30 days to make sure that other factors haven’t been involved in the result of test. The reliability of tests were calculated (See Appendix B). Also, THE KEY WORDS FOR FLUENCY book’s series were used to design these tests. In addition, tests were observed by two experts and their recommendations were taken into consideration.

**Course book**

KEY WORDS FOR FLUENCY is a book designed for English especially for adult learners of English. The three levels of elementary, intermediate and advanced can be used in sequence or independently. Key words for fluency intermediate level concentrates on those words which students need to communicate in English. It emphasizes those very common words which occur in lots of different contexts and identifies around 150 nouns which are essential for fluency. Each unit deals with one word and on average covers 20 of its most important collocation teaching over 3,000 lexical items. Collocation is the way words combine with other words in predictable ways. Knowing strong and frequent collocation is essential for fluency. Key features of this book include (Vocabulary teaching integrated with grammar, Common expression, all words taught in context, Notes on each word, Full answer key, for class and for self-study, Invaluable for examination preparation Cambridge FCE, CAE, Proficiency and IELTS.

**Procedure and Data Collection**

This study followed a pretest, treatment, and posttest. General Proficiency test hasn’t been used in this study due to two reasons. First, we were dealing with students who have been studying English for several years in this language school and with analyzing their final test of each semester their level of proficiency became clear. Proficiency tests were given from American file series which have worldwide use. In addition, we didn’t want to compare each individual’s performance with each other. In fact an effort has been made to indicate the effect of teaching collocation on EFL learners’ reading comprehension and investigating that in which level it was much more efficient. The next step was to administer the pretest to determine the existing knowledge of participant before receiving any kind of instruction. The students’ scores were collected in each group and tested for normality and homogeneity. After these issues were settled safely, the treatment session began. It consisted of 10 sessions. Each session lasted 30 minutes. In first step, they were taught sets of collocations around one specific topic. The final step of the instruction was to give students some fill-in-the blank exercises which students individually filled. The answered exercises were checked around the class by the direct supervision of the
teacher. The classes were held three times a week so learners had time to review what they had learned.

All of mentioned procedures have been done in three levels of proficiency. As claimed earlier the utilized topics were selected from key words for fluency books in a way that in each unit, collocations around one specific topic were introduced. An attempt has been made to select topics which are same or at least has overlaps with each other. It has been done to prevent interference of other factors such as topic formality into current study. In pre-intermediate level, topics were (finger, doctor, office, journey, house, lesson, photo, meat, river and parents) in intermediate level (head, appointment, symptoms, test, job, trip, home, lesson, computer and internet, meal and dish, water and friend) and finally in upper intermediate level (mind, cause, responsibility, work, place, knowledge, progress, order, circumstances and relationships). After introducing each topic in each unit, some exercises were provided for learners in order to learn collocations better.

The whole instruction of the three separated sets of collocations in three levels of proficiency took 10 sessions; after 10 sessions it was time for assessing the usefulness of instruction in each group. The posttest, as the final leg of our data collection procedure was administrated at this stage. Once again, the participants gathered around in three groups to take part in the posttest. Twenty items were in the posttest as same as the pretest. As practiced in the pretest 20 minutes were given to get the students to complete the test. The answer sheets were scored and readied to be statistically interpreted. Same procedures have been done in each three mentioned groups.

RESULTS AND DISSCUSSION

Pre-test Analysis

This section presents results of the analyzing the data obtained from the study. The means and the standard deviations for the pre-test are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.52</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-intermediate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that elementary group (M=12.52, SD=3.88), pre-intermediate group (M=13.1, SD=2.88) and intermediate group (M=13.6, SD=3.08) have pretty equal means and the participants could be considered as identical in term of collocation knowledge according to each level.
Table 2: Test of Normality (pre-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Komogorov-Smirnov (Statistic)</th>
<th>Komogorov-Smirnov (DF)</th>
<th>Komogorov-Smirnov (Sig.)</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk (Statistic)</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk (DF)</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk (Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.200*</td>
<td>.962</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-intermediate</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.200*</td>
<td>.943</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.200*</td>
<td>.949</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.357</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicates that the normality of scores was calculated. With regard to table, it can be inferred that sig .05 so scores are normal and parametric test including ANOVA should be used.

Table 3 shows the results of one-way ANOVA three participating groups in terms of pretest.

Table 3: One-way ANOVA Results for the Pretest scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SS</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>11.09</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.953</td>
<td>.537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>631.828</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>11.085</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>643.733</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 indicates that there was no statically significant difference between elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate levels, (F=.537, sig <.05).

Posttest Analysis

Table 4.4 depicts descriptive statistics for the scores of the three participating groups on the posttest. It can be inferred from the table that the elementary group (m=15.85, SD=2.94) pre-intermediate (M=15.94, SD=2.45) and intermediate (M=15.05, SD=2.68) have equal means and the participants could be considered as identical in terms of collocation level according to each level.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for the Post-test Scores of the Three Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>2.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-intermediate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.25</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>15.75</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Test of Normality (post-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Komogorov-Smirnov (Statistic)</th>
<th>Komogorov-Smirnov (DF)</th>
<th>Komogorov-Smirnov (Sig.)</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk (Statistic)</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk (DF)</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk (Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.200*</td>
<td>.951</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-intermediate</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.200*</td>
<td>.925</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.919</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.096</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows that the normality of scores was calculated. With regard to table, it can be inferred that sig .05 so scores are normal and parametric test including ANOVA should be used.
However, to make sure this difference reaches statistical significance, another analysis of variance was run. Table 5 indicates the results of one-way ANOVA for the differences among three participating groups in terms of the posttest.

Table 6: One-way ANOVA Results for The Posttest Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>SIG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>12.133</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.067</td>
<td>1.017</td>
<td>.368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>340.050</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>5.966</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>352.183</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that, there wasn't any statistically significant difference between participating groups.

According to ANOVA it can be concluded that, there wasn’t any significant difference among three levels students' performance both in terms of pre-test and post-test.

**Summary of Results**

Descriptive statistic indicates that among the three groups of elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate, all three group's performance doesn’t show any significant mean difference.

This study has investigated the impact of teaching collocation on EFL learners’ reading comprehension ability. Meanwhile an attempt was made to investigate this effect among three levels of proficiency including elementary, intermediate and pre-intermediate. After the introduction in chapter 1 and the review of the most valuable contributions from related fields in chapter 2, the description of the method for data collection and the analysis in chapter 3, chapter 4 presented the results of the study. The final chapter will present the interpretation of the results addressing research questions, provide final conclusion, discuss implication for the field of second language acquisition and pedagogical implication and make recommendations for future research.

In general, learning vocabulary can play a significant role in reading and other components of language. As far as the learners in Iranian contexts concerned, I think the lack of essential vocabulary can be regarded as one of the most common reasons for students’ inability to express themselves in English in Iranian EFL context. Another problem is that students cannot use English outside the classroom in real life situations in spite of studying English for years. Furthermore, they have a lot of problems in finding suitable collocates of words.

Using collocations accurately is necessary in order to produce language with native-like accuracy or near-native competency. However, even advanced ESL/EFL learners have trouble with collocations. Learners in EFL settings typically have problem of lacking exposure to the target language and consequently, they are often not aware of the differences in collocational restrictions between the L1 and the L2. The gap between L1 and L2 interferes with learner’s acquisition of collocations in the target language and might even lead to lexical fossilization’ (Vasiljevic, 2008, p. 3). The other difficulty in learning collocations is that learners knowledge of collocations does not expand in parallel with their knowledge of general vocabulary. Because of
According to what have been mentioned, it's obvious that teaching collocation is essential for EFL learner’s Language but the question is that in which level, it is more effective. The study was carried out to identify the effects of teaching collocations on Turkish EFL learner’s reading comprehension ability. It was founded out that, learners scored better after receiving treatment compared to scores they made in the pre-test.

It can be summarized from the data analysis that teaching vocabulary through collocations is an effective teaching technique. The learners who received treatment had a higher collocation level. It is, thus, undeniable that the ability in using and comprehension collocations can help improving the learner’s general language ability. Taylor (1997) argued that word collocations play a significant role in the learner’s language achievement. She further stated that the learner’s knowledge about other languages beyond English was derived from the learning of word collocations in each language, which can directly lead to overall language proficiency. The findings were generally in line with Lien’s (2003) study in which she also revealed no significant difference observable in the participants’ reading comprehension performances among the three academic levels as a result of different instruction. There is almost lack of literature to be compared with this study.

Two research questions were posed to the current study that will be discussed here. With regard to the first research question whether presenting new words through collocation result in a better performance of reading comprehension or not? With studying review of literature and also comparing their results obtained from the pretest to posttest, it was revealed that the treatment had effect on learners reading comprehension ability. Therefore the first null hypothesis was accepted. And second research question asked in which level it is more effective, elementary, pre-intermediate or intermediate. According to the results obtained from analysis, it can mention that, all three groups had pretty equal performance without any significant difference between them. So the second null hypothesis which said intermediate group will have better performance was rejected. From these results, it can be inferred that teaching collocations in all three levels including elementary, pre-intermediate intermediate is equally effective in students reading comprehension ability. These findings were consistent with the findings of some of previous researches.

The result of this study also supports what Hsu (2010) did in his research. He investigated the effects of direct collocation instruction on Taiwanese college English majors’ reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. He concluded that direct collocation instruction improved the subjects’ vocabulary learning and improved retention. However, the result of our study was against the study done by Altinok (2000). He concluded that teaching words in collocations did not result in better learning for the collocation group in study. Although teaching words in collocations did not produce any statistically significant difference in learning new vocabulary items, she still suggests the idea that collocates of words should be taught when presenting new vocabulary.
CONCLUSION
This study explored the effect of teaching collocation on EFL learners reading comprehension ability among three groups of proficiency including, elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate. The result demonstrated that all the students participated in the three groups improved their collocation knowledge. However, there wasn’t any significant difference among the performances of the three groups. On the whole, the findings of this study support the idea that teaching collocation has great influence on EFL learners reading comprehension. Not to mention, this study has been carried out among Turkish EFL learners.

Limitations of the study
This study investigates the effect of teaching collocation on Azari Turkish EFL learners' reading comprehension. All participapants were selected among females due to not having access to males' classes. The sample size in present study was small and limited to the specific age ranges. Infact, all participants aged from 14_22 . In most of language schools in Iran young people have tendency to take English courses more than adults, so the population contains that age group. As mentioned earlier, the utilized topics were selected from Key Words For Fluency books in a way that in each unit, collocations around one specific topic were introduced. An attempt has been made to select topics which are same or at least has overlaps with each other. It has been done to prevent interference of other factors such as topic formality into current study. The whole instruction of the three separated sets of collocations in three levels of proficiency took 10 sessions which each session's duration was thirty minutes. As it is proved, a wide area of learnig vocabulary and acquiring it is dedicated to collocation, spending enough time is one of neccessitie. Having time limitation was another difficulties of the study. The time span between the pretest and posttest was 30 days to make sure that other factors haven’t been involved in the result of the test. In conclusion, the current study can be carried out in other geographical areas as well as other cultures. Not to mention, validating the results of this study will probably require a larger amount of data.

REFERENCES


Mounya, A. (2010). Teaching lexical collocations to raise proficiency in foreign language writing. (Published Doctoral Dissertation) GUELMA University, Algeria. MA.


### Appendix (A)
#### Reliability Statistics (pre-test)

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### Appendix (B)
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ABSTRACT
This study used the term ‘back-channels’ or ‘back-channeling’ because the recipient turns do not take the conversational floor. The research paper concentrated on analyzing the non-lexical verbal back-channels. In particular, it looked at the two main back-channel utterances, yeah and mm, and their uses in portraying engaged listenership. The analyzed data in the research project consists primarily of the recording of the video of a conversation among Oprah Winfrey (OW) as a host and Will Smith (WS) and Jada Pinkett Smith (JPS) as the guests. And the researcher transcribed the conversation for seven minutes. The Conversation Analysis approach was applied in order to detect significant features such as pitch, stress, overlapping, loudness and intonation.

KEYWORDS: Back-Channeling, The Use of yeah and mm to Portray, Will Smith & Family on Oprah Winfrey Show

INTRODUCTION
In real life communication, there is a constant need for speakers to both self-monitor their own speech production and to monitor the reaction of their interlocutors. There is a need for listeners to ensure that their interpretation of the speaker’s communicative intention in fact matches what he/she wanted to say. And occasionally, there is a need for both speakers and listeners to solve problems as they crop up. In discussing the importance of the listener in a conversation, Zimmermann (1991) claims that the quality of a conversation depends largely on what takes place in the person to whom words are directed. In order to act as an active, supportive and polite listener, one should in general signal an interest in what the speaker is saying, Zimmermann (1991).

In the research, the term ‘engaged listenership’ will be used to describe the desire of the listener to portray active, supportive and polite listenership. Of course, this term does not ignore the fact that listeners are in fact both speakers and listeners, Farr (2003). These comments or listener responses should be given at times when the other person seems to be welcoming it, and in many cases these times are marked by prosodic features of the speaker’s utterances.

Listener responses are often referred to as acknowledgment tokens, Drummond (1993a) or back-channels, Yngve (1970). This study used the term ‘back-channels’ or ‘back-channeling’ because the recipient turns do not take the conversational floor. White (1989) explains that the term
‘back-channel’ refers to the ‘main’ channel being the person who is holding the floor – the speaker – and the ‘back’ channel being the addressed recipient of the talk – the listener – who gives information without claiming the floor. Back-channels are typically mono- or bi-syllabic responses of a restricted number of types, Gardner (2001) such as uh-huh, mm, mhm and yeah, and are also known as response tokens, Gardner (2001), minimal responses, Fellegy (1995), reactive tokens, Young (2004) and continuers, Zimmerman (1993). They “control turn-taking, the negotiation of agreement, the signaling of recognition and comprehension, management of interpersonal relations such as control and affiliation, and the expression of emotion, attitude, and affect,” Ward (2006). The researcher wants to give an insight into the importance of listenership and the ways in which listener can project effective listenership through back-channels. The researcher wants to see interactional data from the Griffith Corpus of Spoken Australian English (GCSAusE), along with a personally collected and transcribed conversation. It will discuss the findings and submit suggestions about the implications, plus recommendations for further research.

PROBLEM OF THE STUDY
From the background of the study the researcher wants to formulated the problem of the study. The problem of the study in this chapter is “Are there any interactional data from the Griffith Corpus of Spoken Australian English (GCSAusE), along with a personally collected and transcribed conversation?

METHODOLOGY
According to Iwasaki (1997) there are three categories in backchannels; there are non-lexical backchannels, phrasal backchannels, and substantive backchannels. A considerable amount of attention has been given to back-channel utterances in particular: yeah and mm, Drummond (1993a, 1993b); Gardner (1997, 2001); Jefferson (1983). Gardner primarily addresses mm and yeah and notes that “such unobtrusive response tokens as yeah, mm hm, okay and mm turn out to be exquisitely complex, in a way that is still becoming apparent” (2001, p.1).

The research paper concentrated on analyzing the non-lexical verbal back-channels. In particular, it looked at the two main back-channel utterances, yeah and mm, and their uses in portraying engaged listenership. The analyzed data in the research project consists primarily of the recording of the video of a conversation among Oprah Winfrey (OW) as a host and Will Smith (WS) and Jada Pinkett Smith (JPS) as the guests. And the researcher transcribed the conversation for seven minutes. The Conversation Analysis approach was applied in order to detect significant features such as pitch, stress, overlapping, loudness and intonation.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
In the research, the analysis of the interactional data yielded three different functions of back-channeling through the use of yeah and mm: continuers, alignment tokens and agreement tokens, which will now be further discussed.
Continuers

The data found that *yeah* and *mm* can both be used as continuers. The use of *yeah* occurred 2 times, whereas *mm* only occurred 2 times.

OW: “People call the Smith is the first family in Hollywood because they can do everything, they can acting, singing, producing, and on and on. What’s the part of master plan do you have?”

WS and JPS: “ *Ou. ou. ou*”

WS: “ *Okay...yeah...yeah....mm...*”

JPS: “ *We’ll do it*”

WS’ utterance ( *okay...yeah...yeah.....mmm*) belongs to continuer because he wants to continue his answer when OW asked them the question. Actually, OW didn’t make the question to the certain person that’s why WS and JPS answer OW’s question together.

OW: “ But I’m sure that you really do the set goal of marriage bussiness plan”

WS: “ *Yes*”.

OW: “ You can read many books about it, marriage bussiness plan”.

WS: “ *You know. We discovered it, mhmm.....*”

( OW looked that WS answered seriously and she wanted to make the situation more relax so she pointed JPS’ shoes that. And WS looked his wife’s shoes and laughed because his wife’s shoes is so fashionable with heel so high).

WS: “ *It’s pretty, almost work out , mnhmm...*”

OW: “ Marriage bussiness plan”. ( OW reminded him about the previous topic).

WS’ utterance here ( *mnhmm..*) also belongs to continuer.

Alignment

OW: “ Tell me about .. so you have marriage bussiness future and also family needings?”

WS: “ *Yeah.., we have family needing at the night, yeah....*”

OW: “ *Very interesting. Yes, do you have a great family needing?*”

WS: “ *Yeah.. It’s a problem to the new kid to talk over, could I...mmhm... this is interesting that happen from first generation to the second generation. When you hear and try to be successful and try to make it happen in the world. First generation is strictly about survival. In these utterances yeah.. belongs to alignment because WS shares the same thought but also continues with more talk to show that OW is actively listening."

Agreement

The use of yeah... as a token of agreement can be seen in the following dialogue:

1. WS: “ *You know, it is like, if we don’t have goal, you know, if we no have purpose for the relationship, it doesn’t much anything.*

JPS: “ *Yeah..*”

2. WS: “ *When you hear and try to be successful and try to make it happen in the world. First generation is strictly about survival*."

OW: “ *Yeah, Yeah.*”

In the first dialogue JPS agree about WS’ statement and in second dialogue OW agree to WS’ statement.
Discussion

The analysis of the interactional data gives an insight into how listeners back-channel by using yeah and mm to portray engaged listenership. The findings of this research article are to some extent cohesive with Gardner’s (2010) findings about yeah and mm. The first significant result is that listeners make more use of yeah as a back-channeling device than mm. One of the reasons for this might be that the use of mm is weaker and more neutral than yeah, Gardner (1997) and that listeners might feel that yeah signals a greater active engagement in the conversation.

Based on the data, we can find three different functions of yeah and mm as a back-channel utterance to signal engaged listenership: continuers, alignment tokens and agreement tokens. Yeah and mm can both function as continuers and can be interchangeable; however, the use of yeah would be less neutral and might signal higher speakership incipiency than mm, Gardner (1997). Also, we have seen that while yeah and mm are both used to express alignment, yeah is used more frequently in this instance. The use of mm as an agreement token has not been found in the data. Another general but important finding is that the back-channel functions that carry yeah and mm can be ambiguous. There is a fine line between these differences and at times they can be difficult to distinguish. This finding is also consistent with those of many researchers who have dealt with back-channels. Looking only at the term ‘back-channeling’ and its different uses that are apparent in the literature Gardner (2001), it is understandable that there is a fine line between the functions of back-channeling. In this view, the distinctions between back-channels seem to blend into each other.

In conclusion, the findings of this research have contributed to the importance of the listener in a conversation. Back-channel utterances are important, as they are one of the few indicators that shed some light on one of the central features in a conversation: the listener.

REFERENCES

APPENDIX
“Will Smith & Family on Oprah Winfrey Show”

OW: “Look at you! This is what you want your mama look like? “Waow, Waow, Waow.” (Oprah give the comments to Jada Pinkett Smith (Will Smith’s wife) appearance).

“People call The Smith is the first family in Hollywood because they can do everything, they can acting, singing, producing, on and on.”

“What’s the part of masterplan do you have?”

WS and JPS: “Ou....Ou...”
WS: “Ok, yeah... yeah... emmm”
JPS: “Well do it.”
OW: “But i’m sure that you really do the set goal of marriage busness plan.”
WS: “Yes”
OW: “You can read many books about it, marriage busness plan.”
WS: “You know. We discover it.”
OW: “Take a look at your shoes. (pointing the JPS’ shoes)
WS: “It’s pretty, almost work out, ehm...”
OW: “Marriage business plan.”

WS: “You know, it is like, if we don’t have goal, you know, if we no have purpose for your relationship, it doesn’t much anything.”

JPS: “Yeah....”

WS: “It’s like (in conclusion we must cafe have a vision in our marriage).
OW: “What is the biggest vision for your marriage? What’s the figure?”
(JPS: “Ou, we have figured that two big being live together.” (explain the figures).

OW: “Tell me about...So you have marriage business future and also family needings”.
WS: “Yeah,we have family needings at the night, yeah...”
OWL: “Very interesting, yes. Do you have a great family needing?”
WS: “Yeah. It’s a problem to the new kid to talk over, could i....err...this is interesting that happen from first generation to the second generation.

When you hear and try to be succesfull and try to make it happen in the world. First generation is strictly about survival.

OWL: “Yeah. yeah”

WS: “You loose or can lsay it so, you know when you are survival generation it tends to loose...”

OWL: “Right”

Note: Time recorded 7 minutes
OW is Oprah Winfrey
WS is Will Smith
JPS is Jada Pinkett Smith
SELF-ASSESSMENT IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Tlemcen University

ABSTRACT
The ability to set one’s own goals and pursue them independently is one of the primary foundation stones of autonomy and, hence, successful EFL learning. This article emphasizes the value of learner self-assessment. The discussion, first, starts with defining self-assessment as one type of alternatives in classroom-based assessment, and the procedures involved when learners engage to assess their performance in the different learning tasks. Then, there is a review of the kinds of learner self-assessment, along with illustrative examples taken from different researchers. Finally, there are some guidelines for teachers to develop learner self-assessment.

KEYWORDS: learner, self-assessment, EFL

INTRODUCTION
Studies of assessment have in recent years witnessed a shift in the focus of attention, from concentration on the properties of types of tests towards greater interest in the interactions between other options in assessment and EFL learning/teaching. The bulk of research centres around tools for collecting data to provide teachers with information about their learners’ developing skills and the effectiveness of their instructions (Katz, 2014). Such options are called: alternatives in classroom assessment. They do not replace tests but they are additional tools that the teacher can have recourse to during the course of their teaching. They involve engaging learners in assessment tasks to help them develop autonomy. Learners become actively involved in searching for their points of strengths/weaknesses and, then, set goals accordingly. One type of alternative in classroom assessment which gives learners the chance to assume greater responsibility is self-assessment, that is viewed as “sine qua non for effective learning” (Black & Wiliam 1998 :26).

DEFINING ALTERNATIVE IN CLASSROOM ASSESSMENT
Brown (2001) defines assessment as any conscious attempt on the part of teacher or student to draw some conclusions on the basis of performance. Katz (2012) provides a detailed definition pointing out that assessment comprises methods to gather data so as to inform decision making. Assessment may be done through tests, journals, conferences, peer assessment, learner self-assessment. Within assessment there is a distinction between assessment of learning (summative) and assessment for learning (formative), respectively known as tests and alternatives in classroom assessment. Tests are formal procedures which are usually administered within specific time limitations. They take place at the end of a course, with special emphasis on the right answer and the product. Alternatives in assessment, on the other, take place during the
process of learning and inform teachers how well students are doing, and whether they need more scaffolding (Brown, 2001). One option in alternative assessment is self-assessment. This latter can be defined as a process during which students “reflect on the quality of their work, judge the degree to which it reflects explicitly stated goals or criteria, and revise their work accordingly” (Andrade, 2010, p. 91).

**STEPS OF SELF-ASSESSMENT**
Learners go through three stages in assessing themselves (Andrade, 2010). The first step is articulating expectations, during which expectations and goals are clearly set by the teacher or the teacher and his students. The second one is critique in terms of the expectations, when learners compare their performance or ability with reference to the articulated expectations. The final step is called revision, and it entails students reflecting on and using their feedback to make changes.

**TASKS FOR SELF-ASSESSMENT**
This section presents some tasks which can be used in self-assessment (Brown, 2001).

*Listening and viewing*: listening/ viewing in order to checking comprehension, setting goals to develop listening

*Speaking*: evaluating one’s oral presentation with reference to fluency accuracy after recording oneself, setting goals for developing speaking.

*Reading*: reading passages and different types of genres to check comprehension questions; setting goals for reading.

*Writing*: revising and proofreading a written work, setting goals for developing writing.

*Pronunciation*: doing exercises of transcription, listening and completing tasks, such as deciding on the pronunciation of “ed” in regular verbs, setting goals for further practice to develop pronunciation.

**TYPES OF SELF-ASSESSMENT**
As far as Brown (2001) is concern, self-assessment may take different forms: self-assessment of specific performance; self-assessment of general ability; goal-setting self-assessment; socio-affective self-assessment. Assessment of specific performance takes place immediately after the learner’s performance of a written or oral production. For example, filling in a checklist after an oral presentation. Figure 1 is an example adapted from Craven (2008) in his Real listening and Speaking.
Assessment of specific performance focuses on relatively short performances. Alternatively, learners may engage in self-assessment of general ability which encompasses a lesson unit over several days. Craven’s (2008) real listening and speaking contains can-do checklist after each unit. Students are asked to think about the extent to which they have reached the desirable competency with respect to specific objectives of the unit. Students are also asked to identify areas where they need more work (See figure 2).

Learners assess themselves with reference to the goals they set periodically. Setting goals and accomplishing them further enhances learners’ intrinsic motivation. For example, student can set a goal of practicing weak and strong form through listening to materials, transcription exercises, self-recodings over two weeks. At the end of this period, he chooses two or three activities
(listening and transcription) to evaluate his ability to produce and detect these pronunciation features.

Finally, self-assessment may also include looking at oneself through psychological lens. Learners can examine socioaffective factors like motivation; anxiety, and any other psychological barriers to learning and, then, they plan how to overcome them. Brown’s strategies of success (2002) includes a number self-assessment questionnaires dealing with different psychological variables like learning styles, motivation, taking risks (See figure 4).

Circle the number that best describes you. Use the following scale:
1 the sentence on the left describes you well.
2 the sentence on the left somewhat describes you.
3 the sentence on the right somewhat describes you.
4 3 the sentence on the right describes you well.

I don’t want to make mistakes because 1 2 3 4 Everyone makes mistakes
people will laugh at me so it’s ok to try out
my English
I must speak perfectly or no one will 1 2 3 4 other people will not care if
understand me I make mistakes

Figure 3: Taking risks (adapted from Brown, 2002, p. 31)

SOME GUIDELINES
Self-assessment requires careful planning. The procedures involve both teacher and learners to work cooperatively to achieve the desired outcome, which is gathering reliable data and improving learning. Brown (2001) and Andrade (2010) suggest the following guidelines:

In order to engage and motivate learners, the teacher should make the purpose of self-assessment clear and explain importance of continuously assessing oneself. This can be done using real-world examples: after cooking a dish for time, one would immediately answer questions like “is it delicious?” “what do I have to do next time?” which ingredients do I have to add or omit?”

Learners should be given clear instructions and clear criteria as to how they are supposed to go through the process of self-assessment. One way to do this is to familiarise learners with process of self-assessment through marking exercises. That is, students are given examples of good and bad work to be evaluated (Brown et al., 1994). Another way is through teacher or other experience learners modelling self-assessment;
Encouraging impartial evaluation: the teacher should help their learners to be objective to achieve the desired outcome of self-assessment. Learners have to avoid being harsh on themselves or very self-flattering.

Learners’ self-assessment should be followed by feedback from the teacher, for example through interviews or conferences, and students’ goal-setting for future actions.

Learners should get the opportunity to revise and improve the task.

CONCLUSION
At the heart of self-assessment lie two elements: autonomy and intrinsic motivation. With respect to the first element, the procedures taken during the process of self-assessment imply that learners gradually become more involved in the learning process, taking, thus, more responsibility for that. In deed, learners who engage in self-assessment often become in a better position to know their weaknesses and strengths; they develop a sense of ownership of the process and they, thus, become committed to the outcomes; they reflect on their performance/ability and estimate how effectively they are, i.e., they become aware of their progress. Once this latter is achieved, the second element– intrinsic motivation, further increases.

BIBLIOGRAPHY
WHICH ONE IS SUPERIOR; THE CAKE APPROACH OR THE SANDWICH APPROACH?
THE EFFECT OF DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT ON EFL UNDERGRADUATES' VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationship between two types of approach which are pertinent to dynamic assessment, namely, the Cake approach and the Sandwich approach, and vocabulary development of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners at Shiraz Azad University. This research targets at figuring out differences between applying these two various approaches of dynamic assessment in relation to their application for boosting the knowledge of vocabulary among the above-mentioned university students. Therefore, to administer both approaches of dynamic assessment, 60 sophomore EFL University learners majoring in 'English Teaching' at the intermediate level of proficiency at Shiraz Azad University are selected as the sample of the study. Then, two procedures for collecting data are administered. The first procedure applies the Sandwich approach, and the pretest-mediation-posttest design (Sandwich model of DA) is used in the study. The participants serving as the first experimental group receives mediation (through giving them one or more synonyms) after pretest. Finally, they are taken a post-test. The second procedure applies the Cake approach, and the pretest-mediation-quiz1-mediation-quiz2-mediation-quiz3-mediation-post-test design (Cake model of DA) is used in this study. One point here is that these three quizzes which are given to the second experimental group are administered after each month. The findings of this study illustrates a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of vocabulary test (504 words) in both groups (through using paired t-test) which shows the improvement of scores after mediation. Furthermore, by applying the independent sample t-test and analyzing the results obtained from both groups, it is revealed that the second experimental group outperformed in their post-test; so, it can be concluded that it is a sign of superiority of the Cake approach of DA to the Sandwich approach.

KEYWORDS: Dynamic Assessment (DA) – The Cake Approach – The Sandwich Approach
INTRODUCTION
Boosting the knowledge of vocabulary has been considered as a strong desire for all second and foreign language teachers and assessors. No one can really deny the role of vocabulary in learning another language. To achieve this goal, researchers and teachers in the domain of teaching and testing have done their best. Dynamic Assessment (DA) emphasizes the need for unifying assessment and instruction. Furthermore, it claims that by providing assistance during learning process, not only can teachers gain useful information regarding learner's performance, but also he/she can be assisted to improve his/her abilities provided that the mediation is finely tuned to his/her learning abilities while engaging in the process of assessment.

In dynamic assessment, interaction between teachers/assessors and learners creates their ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development) where the learners learning potential emerges. In other words, to assess a learner’s learning potential means to create his or her ZPD through the interaction with the teacher/assessor. Lidz and Peña (2009) contended that DA is an approach to individual assessment based on ZPD. The internalization process leading to learner’s potential proficiency involves a transformation shift from interpsychological to intrapsychological planes within social interaction in the ZPD, where the expert (teacher/assessor) and novice (learner) together engage in communication. The dynamic assessor instructs learners on how to perform certain tasks, provides mediated assistance on how to master them, and then measures their progress in learning to solve similar problems (Kirschenbaum, 1998). In other words, dynamic assessment goes beyond the cognitive measure of the one-shot standardized test.

Current developments in dynamic assessment rest primarily on the ideas of both Vygotsky and Feuerstein, as well as models of practice developed by researchers such as Brown and Campione (see reference list). Vygotsky’s emphasis on the importance of social context for the development of higher mental processing is essential to dynamic assessment, since the interactional nature of dynamic assessment simulates the developmental process itself, where the mediator works with the learner to facilitate the learner’s move to a higher level of functioning. Vygotsky’s concept of the “zone of proximal development” (ZPD) describes this collaboration where the conditions for the next steps are created within the interaction. Vygotsky suggested that it was necessary to determine both the zones of actual, as well as proximal, development in order to have a more complete understanding of the child’s abilities.

The ZPD refers to what a learner is able to accomplish with the help of a more experienced collaborator. This contrasts with the “zone of actual development (ZAD),” which is what the learner is able to accomplish independently. This makes it possible to conceptualize assessment in terms of the type of information provided by the procedural models. That is, most procedures provide information about the learner’s ZAD, while dynamic assessment provides information about the learner’s ZPD. To really understand the learner and to be able to plan for instruction, it is necessary to have both sources of information. Promotion of higher mental functions requires that the more experienced collaborator provide leadership within this interaction. This leadership occurs to a large extent through the tools of language, which serves to mediate the transition from external knowledge to internalized mental functioning.
The concept 'Transparency'

Feuerstein took the concepts of Vygotsky even further in providing more precise guidelines regarding the nature of the collaborative interactions that created a zone of proximal development, as well as procedures that were explicitly modified to access these zones in varying content domains. While an ecological approach to assessment might suggest that understanding of even broader contexts than personal interactions are necessary for understanding the functioning of any individual, Feuerstein would claim that these contexts are important in their implications for their impact on the mediational interactions among individuals who serve as transmitters of culture. The broader contexts such as ethnicity, socioeconomic status, biological or health issues would be considered “distal” influences to development, while the actual mediational interactions are “proximal.” Resting on the foundations of Vygotsky and Feuerstein, dynamic assessment can be defined as the creation of a zone of proximal development, within which the assessor provides mediation to promote the higher mental functioning of the learner.

The most general characteristics of dynamic assessment include the interactive role of the assessor, the focus on learner processes and how these interact with process demands of the task, and the typical employment of a pretest-intervention-posttest administration format. Specific procedures differ considerably particularly with regard to the content of the tasks, the degree of standardization of both the tasks and intervention, and the purpose of the procedure. There is continuing discussion about just how far a procedure can deviate from these characteristics and still be considered dynamic. Given these characteristics, the type of information that can be generated by dynamic assessment procedures would include in depth understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of the learner, the responsiveness of the learner to the intervention provided within the procedure, the intensity of effort (or cueing) involved in trying to elicit responsiveness, and the relationship of assessment information to subsequent instruction. It is this last item that attracts many to the idea of dynamic assessment, as assessors are often accused of generating information that is irrelevant for intervention and instruction.

Vocabularies are the essential part of a successful communication. By the help of words, individuals can express themselves, exchange ideas and show feelings and attitudes. According to Schmitt (2000), vocabularies are divided into productive (active) and receptive (passive) categories. Productive vocabularies are the type of words which learners learn through day to day communication and apply them daily in their speaking and writing. By contrast, receptive vocabularies are vital for general comprehension when arising in context. They are not utilized on a daily basis (Schmitt, 2000).

Vocabulary instruction is often a neglected area. Learners always face long lists of vocabularies with or without translations that they have to memorize. In this respect, the study incorporated a more fine-grained and individually negotiated modes of mediation to indicate learners’ mediated and unmediated performances, report their learning potential and uncover evidence of their vocabulary development. ZPD, which is the cornerstone of Vygotsky’s Sociocultural theory, differentiates a learner unmediated and mediated performances. As Poehner and Lantolf (2013) stated, the diagnosis made in DA makes it different from other types of assessment; “collaborative functioning with others is given equal, if not greater, attention” (p. 324). Based on
Vygotsky’s (1987) discussion of the ZPD, learner’s responsiveness to the mediation signifies the development of his/her abilities presenting the processes underlying his/her performances.

Two Approaches to Dynamic Assessment

There are a number of approaches and models that fall under the umbrella term of DA. This is due to the fact that mediation can be implemented in a number of ways. However, Lantolf and Poehner, (2004) identified two general approaches to DA: interventionist and interactionist.

The interventionist type of DA includes intervention from the examiner during the test procedure itself and it is a more formal and standardized approach. During interventionist DA, the examinees are given instruction item by item and if they cannot solve the item correctly, they are given pre-fabricated hints. Poehner (2008) stated that the defining characteristic of interventionist DA is the use of standardized administration procedures and forms of assistance to present easily quantifiable results that can be exploited to make comparisons between and within groups, and can be contrasted with other measures and employed to make predictions about performance on future tests.

Interactionist approach is usually accompanied with the name of Feuerstein. Feuerstein fully integrated assessment and instruction so that one does not exist apart from the other (Poehner, 2008). According to Feuerstein, human cognitive abilities are not fixed and can be modified or developed through intervention. Thus, he criticizes prevailing assumptions about normal distribution of intelligence and traditional psychometric models (Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 2001). One of the concerns in such assessments is the issue of cultural differences, which is also addressed by Feuerstein. In fact, in Feuerstein’s Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) model, the stimulus-response model has been revised so that the child is interacting with a more competent peer who helps the child in any way by selecting, changing, amplifying, elaborating, and interpreting the objects with the child through mediations.

Unlike interventionist orientations to DA, which have a strong propensity toward quantification and psychometrical analysis, interactionist approaches follow Vygotsky’s preference for qualitative assessment of psychological processes and dynamics of their development (Minick, 1987). Indeed, Vygotsky (1998) himself insisted that “we must not measure the child, we must interpret the child” (p.204) and this can only be achieved through interaction and cooperation with the child. Interactionist DA entails mediation emerging from interaction between examiner and examinee. During interactionist DA, leading questions, hints or prompts are not planned in advance; instead, they emerge from mediated dialogue and collaborative interaction.

Interventionist DA is implemented in two formats:

1. The Cake format
2. The Sandwich format

- **Cake Format**

In the cake or layer-cake format, whenever a problem arises, the examiner offers mediation or intervention during the assessment procedure; that is to say that, the examinees perform item by
item presented testing exercises and should they face a problem in doing the activity correctly, they are offered instruction formed in a pre-established list of hints and prompts. Since "the successive hints are presented like successive layers of icing on a cake [and] the number of hints varies across examinees, but not the content of them" (Sternberg & Grigorenko 2002, p.27), this DA orientation is called layer-cake format. It is essential to note that the tasks should have cumulative difficulty and feedback and support should be offered to an individual after the completion of each task to assist him/her identify and overcome his/her errors.

➢ Sandwich Format

The sandwich format resembles traditional experimental research designs in the sense that it implements a pretest to set a preliminary measurement and a posttest to assess the efficiency of treatment; therefore, the administration of mediation process is through "sandwiching" it between pretest and posttest which themselves are implemented non-dynamically. In other words, the learners are given a set of pretest exercises, then instruction is offered based on their needs and feedbacks received from their performance in the pretest, and at last, they are given posttest activities. As the instruction is given between pretest and posttest procedures, it is called sandwiched instruction, and it can be presented both on individuals and in group settings. In the sandwich format, there is a comparison between the performance on the posttest and posttest as to see the extent to which development occurs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of DA is originated from both Vygotsky’s (1978) learning theory and Feuerstein’s (1979) theory of mediated learning experiences. Vygotsky’s (1978) suggests that the development process rather than the product is of great importance. Vygotsky proposed the concept of ZPD. He found that what a child is able to do independently is not the child’s full ability, as his abilities develop through assistance, or mediation offered by another capable person. Vygotsky's notion of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) refers to the gap between what the child can learn unassisted, and what he or she can learn with the help of an adult or a more knowledgeable peer. In other words, ZPD proposes that learning may be greatly facilitated through interactions between students as novices and a more knowledgeable and experienced person such as a teacher. According to Vygotsky, it is impossible to understand a child's potential intellectual development using a one-way assessment. Vygotsky believes that abilities are not innate but are emergent and dynamic (Lidz & Gindis, 2003).

Feuerstein, similar to Vygotsky’s ZPD concept, designed his theory of DA around the theory of mediated learning experience (MLE) and structural cognitive modifiability. The basic assumptions of the MLE are as follows:

1. Human beings possess a unique capacity to modify their cognitive functioning and adapt to changing demands in the environment.
2. Cognitive modifiability is possible disregarding the barriers of age, etiology, and severity of condition.
3. Cognitive modifiability is possible through MLE processes rather than direct unmediated experience (Seok-Hoon, Kheng & Jensen, 2005).

According to Budoff (1987), DA serves as a better tool for classification of students and prediction of their future achievements. This theory investigates how social interactions influence human intellectual development and centralizes on the social nature of the learning process through the notion of the ZPD.

Lidz and Gindis (2003) state, “DA is an approach to understanding individual differences and their implications for instruction that embeds intervention within the assessment procedure, the focus of most dynamic assessment procedures is on the process rather than on the product of learning” (p. 99). In other words, in DA the mediator seeks to improve learner performance through modification of student activity. This interaction focuses on learner behavior and learner receptivity to mediation (Lidz, 1991).

Lidz (1987) defines DA in a specific way which emphasizes the interaction. She proposes that DA is “an interaction between an examiner-as-intervener and a learner-as-active participant, which seeks to estimate the degree of modifiability of the learner and the means by which positive changes in cognitive functioning can be induced and maintained” (p.4). Moreover, Hasson and Joffe (2007) believe that “DA includes a range of methods and materials to assess individuals’ potential for learning. Its aim is to reveal the maximum level of performance by providing mediation in the course of assessment session” (p.10). Furthermore, Kozulin (2003) claims “instead of studying the child’s individual performance dynamic assessment focuses on the difference between performance before and that after the learning or assistance phase” (p.17).

In addition, Lantolf and Poehner (2004) state that DA is a procedure that “integrates assessment and instruction into a seamless, unified activity aimed at promoting learner development through appropriate forms of mediation that are sensitive to the individual’s (or in some cases a group’s) current abilities. In essence, DA is a procedure for simultaneously assessing and promoting development that takes account of the individual’s (or groups’) zone of proximal development” (p.50). Furthermore, Mardani and Tavakoli (2011) stress that DA is a method which reduces the stress by combining teaching and testing.

Mardani and Tavakoli (2011) investigated the role of dynamic assessment in reading comprehension of 30 Iranian male learners. During the mediation phase the researchers followed an interactionist method which was based on cooperative dialog. The findings rejected the null hypothesis of the researchers and they concluded that incorporation of DA as a supplementary procedure to standard testing had positive effects on both test performance and learning of learners.

Shrestha and Coffin (2012) explored the value of tutor mediation in the context of academic writing development among undergraduate business studies learners in open and distance learning. The authors concluded that DA can help to identify and respond to the areas that
learners needed the most support (in this study, managing information flow). However, the authors recognized that the study was limited to a particular sociocultural context in higher education (Open University) and their findings could not be generalized to other contexts. Sadeghi and Khanahmadi (2011) probed the role of mediated learning experience in L2 grammar of Iranian EFL learners. Sixty EFL learners (30 male and 30 female) in two institutes in Iran were the participants of the study. The results showed that the type of assessment–based instruction or mediation (DA based versus NDA-based) made significant difference in the learning of grammar by Iranian EFL learners.

Pishgadam, Barabadi, and Kamrood (2011) examined the effectiveness of using a computerized dynamic reading comprehension test (CDRT) on Iranian EFL learners with a moderate level of proficiency. Findings showed that providing mediation in the form of hints increased significantly the learners’ scores and consequently their reading comprehension. DA seemed to be a bigger help to weaker learners than stronger ones. Naeimi and Duvali (2012) investigated improvements in English Language Training (ELT) university learners’ reading comprehension performance by applying the mediations of a dynamic assessment approach to instruction and assessment. The descriptive and analytic analyses of the results revealed dramatic and measurable progress in participants’ reading comprehension performance.

Language proficiency requires mastery of considerably larger number of words. Schmitt (2008) emphasizes that language learners require large vocabularies to productively use a second language, and as a result high vocabulary targets need to be set and pursued. The body of literature, to the best of our knowledge, has not reported many DA studies of vocabulary development. Generally, three classes of studies can be found. The first category of studies worked with children with learning difficulties (Alony & Kozulin, 2007; Kapantzoglou, Restrepo, & Thompsona, 2012). The second and third categories reported results from children (Burton & Watkins, 2007) and EFL/ESL learners (Shabani, 2014; Taghizadeh & Bahrami, 2014; Wolter & Pikea, 2015), respectively.

The common feature of these studies is the implementation of interventionist approach to DA (e.g. Taghizadeh & Bahrami, 2014 for cake DA format and Kapantzoglou et al., 2012 for sandwich DA format) except for Alony and Kozulin, (2007) who followed the principles of mediated learning experience (Feuerstein, Rand, & Hoffman, 1979) actively supporting the child’s cognitive modifiability. For example, Taghizadeh and Bahrami (2014) combined Budoff’s (1987) Test-Train-Test model, Campione and Brown’s (1987) graduated prompting assessment model and Sternberg and Grigorenko’s (2002) cake format to explore the effect of DA on EFL learners’ lexical inferencing ability. Learners were asked to guess the meaning of unknown words and the instructor mediated them moving from most implicit to the most explicit prompts based on strategies of lexical inferencing. On the other hand, Kapantzoglou et al. (2012) adopted a pretest–teach–posttest design to teach three non-words with three unfamiliar items in single session of 30–40 minutes. Target words were taught using a scripted structured play activity and learners were mediated through learning strategies. The studies argued that DA is a promising method for mediating L2 learners’ vocabulary growth.
THE RESEARCH QUESTION
Does Dynamic Assessment promote English vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners based on a sandwich format or a cake format?

The null hypothesis
There is no significant difference between applying two approaches of DA, namely, the Sandwich approach and the Cake approach, and increasing of EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants in this study comprised of 90 EFL sophomores studying at Islamic Azad university of Shiraz. They were selected based on the convenience sampling procedure. In addition, they were within the age range of 18 to 27, including 34 females and 26 males, majoring in 'English Teaching'. To make sure that they were homogenously proficient, a test of vocabulary which was chosen from the book "TOEFL Barron's" was given to them. Consequently, 60 out of 90 were chosen. In addition, they were mainly university students and were studying English for the purpose of finding a better job or achieving higher degrees in their field. To this end, they were studying the book '504 Words' in order to improve their language proficiency, especially their knowledge of vocabulary. So, they attended the class twice a week for 17 sessions.

Instrument
To collect the quantitative data for the present study, two multiple-choice content-based vocabulary tests were designed as the instrument for assessing the participants' vocabulary knowledge. One test functioned as the pre-test and another as the post-test. The tests were taken from the book '504 words'. So, the items in these tests were valid enough due to the content which they were taught.

Design of the Study
First, a 35- item vocabulary test was designed as a pre-test. Of course, after a pilot study, some items were revised and 5 of them were dropped. Finally, a post-test in parallel with the pre-test in terms of content, length and level of difficulty was developed to measure the influence of the treatment on the participants. For the purpose of data collection on the students' ability in acquiring English words, vocabulary of 30 units of the book '504 words' were chosen. This book was taught during the 17 sessions of one semester.

The sixty participants were equally assigned to two groups namely, 30 in experimental group 1 and 30 in experimental group 2. The learners in these classes learned English as a foreign language. In the first experimental group, vocabulary was taught by offering some but not frequent mediation after pre-test by the teacher. In this study, two procedures for collecting data were administered. The first procedure applies the sandwich approach, and the pretest-mediation-posttest design (Sandwich model of DA) was used.
As Poehner (2008) clearly states "in sandwich format, a mediation phase is sandwiched between pre-testing and post-testing." So, the participants in the first experimental group receive mediation (through giving them one or more synonyms) after pre-test. Dynamic Assessment in the experimental group included mediation between the examiner and the examinee such as giving some definition of vocabularies, offering synonyms, and illustrating the words in the sentences. Finally, they were taken a post-test. The second procedure applied the cake approach, and the pre-test-mediation-quiz1-mediation-quiz2-mediation-quiz3-mediation-post-test design (Cake model of DA) was used in this study. During three months, three quizzes were designed and administered to the second experimental group (one quiz per month). At last, one post-test was designed and the researcher compared the students' performance on pre-tests and post-tests in both groups as to see how much improvement in learning English words had been emerged.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The collected data were analyzed using SPSS. Table 1 shows descriptive statistics for both experimental group 1 and experimental group 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>30</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>12.767</td>
<td>3.44096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PostGroup1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>16.500</td>
<td>2.81315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PreGroup2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>12.533</td>
<td>2.86156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PostGroup2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>17.800</td>
<td>2.02399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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</table>

As shown in Table 1, the two groups had similar means in the pre-test, 12.7667 and 12.5333 in both experimental groups, respectively. So, it is obvious that in the pre-testing stage, both groups were nearly homogeneous with respect to their knowledge of vocabulary. However, after mediation, the difference between the means of the groups was increased dramatically. To achieve the goal of study and obtain a clear picture of the impact of dynamic assessment on the vocabulary learning of EFL sophomores, an independent sample t-test was adopted to analyze the data. Table 2 shows the findings.
The results of the independent sample t-test revealed that the two groups were not different in terms of their performance in the pretest (sig.=.776). However, according to the results, there was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their post-test scores (sig.=.04). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 2, the difference between the pre-test and the post-test was statistically significant (p<0.05). It implies that the treatment in the form of dynamic assessment and mediation after pre-test has been effective in the vocabulary learning of EFL learners. According to this table, one can conclude that the Cake approach is superior to the Sandwich approach due to the fact that gradual and dynamic development of vocabulary learning is consistent to Piaget's developmental stages in the processing of a language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Samples t-test</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PreGroup1</td>
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<tr>
<td>PostGroup1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PreGroup2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PostGroup2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the independent sample t-test revealed that the two groups were not different in terms of their performance in the pretest (sig.=.776). However, according to the results, there was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their post-test scores (sig.=.04). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 2, the difference between the pre-test and the post-test was statistically significant (p<0.05). It implies that the treatment in the form of dynamic assessment and mediation after pre-test has been effective in the vocabulary learning of EFL learners. According to this table, one can conclude that the Cake approach is superior to the Sandwich approach due to the fact that gradual and dynamic development of vocabulary learning is consistent to Piaget's developmental stages in the processing of a language.
A paired sample t-test was run to compare the students’ mean scores of both multiple-choice vocabulary tests including pre-tests and post-tests in both experimental groups, namely, (the first experimental group = the sandwich group, and the second experimental group = the cake group). Table 3 reveals the results of the paired-sample t-test which presents that the two groups had significantly better performance in the post-test compared with the pretest (sig.= .000, \( p < .05 \)). Therefore, it is vivid that both groups of university students improved their performances through the use of both approaches of dynamic assessment. The results obtained from the present study are consistent with the other studies indicating the positive effect of DA on the EFL learners. In other words, dynamic assessment could improve the vocabulary learning of EFL learners. This can strengthen the findings of previous studies done by Albeeva (2008), Pishgadam et al. (2011), Sadeghi et al. (2011) and other researchers who have found positive effects of DA on learning a foreign or second language.

Combining assessment and instruction can be helpful for EFL learners in vocabulary learning. In addition, the researchers agree that non-dynamic tests are unable to show a complete picture of learners’ abilities. They believe that adopting DA in EFL classes has some considerable advantages such as increasing learners’ motivation, reducing the anxiety of taking test, assessing the learners’ understanding, and identifying the areas that learners need more help. DA with its monistic view toward teaching and testing not only assesses the learners’ abilities but also provides them with opportunities for learning and development. EFL teachers, learners, and students can benefit from the results of this study. The findings may encourage teachers to incorporate appropriate techniques for instruction of vocabulary in their classroom instead of applying traditional method. In addition, this work helps the teachers to avoid overestimating and underestimating their students’ abilities.

CONCLUSION
This study included two approaches for assessing the university students' knowledge of vocabulary, namely, the Sandwich approach and the Cake approach. To empirically investigate the effects of DA on vocabulary development of the participants at Shiraz Azad University, the researcher selected 60 sophomores majoring in 'English Teaching'. The results, as reported in Table 2 & 3, demonstrated that DA, as a novel method, is quite successful in enhancing vocabulary development of undergraduates. Outstanding performance of the students in the second experimental group indicated their development. This development was due to their extensive exposure to meditational prompts during this course such as giving definition of the words, offering synonyms, and different examples. So, it was obvious that the Cake approach, due to applying three quizzes before the post-test, revealed significant difference in comparison to the Sandwich approach. Finally, it can be concluded that Dynamic Assessment is in consistent with both Piaget's cognitive development due to gradual stages of learning by giving prompts and mediating and Vygotsky's social development due to considering the teacher as a social mediator in the classroom context who provides interaction between students and himself/herself and tries to reduce the stress of learning new items.
Limitation of the study

As any study has its own shortcomings, the present study suffers from a number of limitations. There are two main limitations for this work as follow: The first limitation was regard to the nature of the first two tests which assess vocabulary development in a multiple-choice format. Multiple-choice nature of the items can bring about guessing opportunity for the learners. Therefore, the students could answer the questions correctly by chance without requiring mediation. The second limitation of this study is following an interventionist approach to DA, thus the learners have access to a fixed set of hints that may not include specific problems that each individual student may face at the time taking the exam.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT
This quantitative research study aimed at investigating the relationship between Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers’ epistemological beliefs and their burnout level. To this end, two scales, Epistemological Beliefs Questionnaire developed by Chan and Elliott (2004) and Maslach Burnout Inventory for teachers developed by Schaufeli and Van Horn (1995), were administered to 80 Iranian EFL teachers to examine their epistemological beliefs as well as their burnout rate. The findings of the study revealed that Iranian EFL teachers tended to endorse, from among the four categories of epistemological beliefs, the innate/fixed ability and certainty knowledge. The findings demonstrated positive relationship between high burnout level and ‘Innate/Fixed ability’ epistemic beliefs of EFL teachers. The results also showed a negative relationship between high rate of burnout and ‘Learning/Effort process’ type of epistemological beliefs of EFL teachers. The study can shed light on the concept of epistemological beliefs of in-service teachers and help them to foster their pedagogical beliefs regarding choosing the method of teaching in a way that diminish their burnout and facilitate their enthusiasm to teaching.

KEYWORDS: epistemological beliefs, burnout, EFL teachers

INTRODUCTION
Due the importance of education in every society, great efforts are always made to ensure that every stakeholder in educational system, specifically teachers and learners, go through the education cycle successfully and reach to the highest point of accountability and efficiency.
Teaching is a demanding career and a lot of social, cultural and affective factors may influence the profession and consequently the performance of teachers. The concept of burnout was first established by Freudenbeger in 1974 as wearing down or depleting energy (Freudenburger & North, 1985). Maslach, one of the pioneering figures studying burnout defines it as a syndrome of physical and emotional exhaustion including the development of negative job attitudes, poor professional self concept and low empathetic concern for clients (Maslach & Pines, 1984). Accordingly, she presents the three dimensions of burnout as Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Reduced Personal Accomplishment. Emotional Exhaustion refers to the feelings of over extension and exhaustion resulting from daily conflict in work. Emotional exhaustion can be seen as the overuse or overwhelming of one’s emotions through extensive demands from others, leading to a feeling of barrenness in which the individual can no longer continue meeting the demands (Hamann & Gordon, 2000). Depersonalization indicates the development of negative attitudes and impersonal behaviors to people in relation to the profession such as students and teachers. Depersonalization is also the emotionally dry and detached manner of relating to others. Depersonalization can cause individuals to feel little or no self-worth, leading to feelings of reduced personal accomplishments, with no desire to accomplish job-related tasks and assignments (Hamann & Gordon, 2000). Depersonalization in teachers is critical to student achievement. If teachers are lacking the desire to professionally accomplish their jobs, students will fail and student achievement will be inadequate (Dworkin, 2001). Personal accomplishment is the sense of personal fulfillment coming with self-esteem that is negatively related to burnout; the more people suffer from burnt out, the worse they feel about their personal accomplishment. Lack of feeling of success and accomplishment among teachers is defined as reduced professional efficacy, which is the negative belief of self capability in classroom. Since burned out teachers negatively affect themselves, their students, and the educational system, it is necessary to scrutinize the issue in pedagogical system and try to diminish it. Dworkin (2001) suggested defining teacher burnout is a pivotal primary step to establishing effective research on teacher burnout. Teacher burnout is the culmination of the same three components, but specifically found in teachers. Yong and Yue (2007) suggested identifying key elements that cause (or lead) to teacher burnout is critical to any research on the topic. Fisher (2011) stated preventing teacher burnout and supporting teachers suffering from burnout is important to student success.

Epistemology refers to a branch of philosophy focused on the nature, methods, limitations, and validity of knowledge (Moser, 1995). Over the centuries, philosophers have engaged in deliberations over the specific nature of knowledge and how it relates to similar notions such as truth, belief, and justification.

Teacher’s beliefs have been viewed as a central part in every pedagogical context and needed to be addressed in the area of most educational reforms (woolfolk-Hoy, Davis & Pape, 2006). Some of these beliefs are about the nature of the knowledge and the process of knowing, which are, as Mori (1999) states, essential in EFL classroom settings. Hofer and Pintrich (1997) also noted that beliefs about the nature of the knowledge and the process of knowing should be considered the core of an individual’s theory, while the other beliefs about learning, teaching and intelligence may be relevant to the core dimensions but are peripheral to an individual’s theory.
RELATED LITERATURE
Olafson and Schraw (2006) determined the epistemological beliefs of elementary teachers and then attempted to look for a correlation between their epistemological beliefs and their actual teaching practices. The results of this study indicated that epistemological beliefs and worldviews are correlated. The contextualized and relativist worldviews were correlated with more sophisticated epistemological beliefs.

Chai and Khine (2008) have reported similar pattern of epistemic beliefs held by Singaporean pre-service teachers. Several variables were found to be correlated with these teachers’ epistemic beliefs such as their ethnicity, gender, major subjects, and teaching experiences. Also Chai, Deng, Qian and Wong (2010) examined the epistemic beliefs held by 445 teacher education students from the South China context and have reported the same results with the pre-service teachers from Hong Kong and Singapore.

Mohammadi, Naderi, Shariyatmadari and Seif Naraghi (2013) investigated the relationship between teachers’ epistemological beliefs and the inclination toward teaching approaches. The findings of this study showed that there is a significant relationship between type of teachers’ epistemological beliefs and their teaching approaches, and that dimensions of epistemological beliefs can predict teaching approaches.

In a study, Landeche (2009) reported no significant correlations between emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and creativity index among teachers in public schools. However, she found a fairly strong relationship between creativity and reduced personal accomplishment. The study of Mukundan and Khanderoo (2009) among 120 English language teachers in Malaysia revealed that emotional exhaustion of female teachers and depersonalization of male teachers were significantly high, while both had significantly a high level of reduced personal accomplishment.

Hosseini Fatemi and Raoufi (2014) examined a relationship between Iranian English language educators’ burnout and teaching style in public schools and private institutions. The findings suggested a significant difference between burnout level and adoption of teaching styles by school and institute teachers.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
Iranian EFL in-service teachers work in a challenging environment where the target language is practiced only within the walls of classrooms and does not have a practical usage beyond the academic and institutional setting. The present study will draw attention to what recognition of epistemological beliefs may achieve for foreign language teaching. The main purpose of the current study is therefore to investigate whether there is any relationship between teachers’ epistemic beliefs and their burnout level. The types of Iranian EFL teachers’ epistemological were also inspected in this study.
RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Based on the objectives of the study, the following research questions have been formulated:
1. Is there a relationship between Iranian EFL in-service teachers’ epistemological beliefs and their burnout level?
2. What epistemological beliefs Iranian EFL in-service teachers hold?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
80 male and female Iranian EFL teachers who were native speakers of Persian were purposively selected from various universities such as Islamic Azad University and some language institutions in Shiraz, Iran (48 males and 42 females). Their teaching experience ranged between 5 to 15 years and their age range was between 25 to 40 years old. The detailed information of the participants is displayed in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sex</th>
<th>Age groups</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Informal Teaching Experiences</th>
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</thead>
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<td>14</td>
<td>&lt;5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>26-35</td>
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<tr>
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<td>29</td>
<td>16-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>&gt;46</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>&gt;26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Distribution of Participants

Instrumentation
Two instruments were used in this research project: The first one is Maslach Burnout Inventory for teachers (MBI_NL_Ed; Schaufeli & Van Horn, 1995), which is used to assess teachers’ burnout level. The second one is Epistemological Beliefs Scale (Chan & Elliott, 2004) which is used to elicit the teachers’ epistemic beliefs. The reliability and validity of both instruments were confirmed.

Maslach Burnout Inventory for Teachers (MBI)
Maslach Burnout Inventory for teachers (MBI_NL_Ed; Schaufeli & Van Horn, 1995) was used to gauge burnout level of the teachers. The instrument consists of 20 items, and is divided into three sub-scales: (1) emotional exhaustion (eight items, maximum score is 48); (2) depersonalization (five items, maximum score is 30) and (3) personal accomplishment (seven items, maximum score is 42). The reliability coefficients for subscales were as follows .81 for emotional exhaustion; .66 for depersonalization; .77 for personal accomplishment. These result indicated that all MBI subscales have high internal consistency.

Epistemological Beliefs Questionnaire (EBQ)
The second instrument utilized in this study was the Epistemological Beliefs Scale (Chan & Elliott, 2004). The scale encompasses thirty items that are rated on a five-point likert scale, ranging from ‘Strongly Disagree’ (1) to ‘Strongly Agree’ (5). It was developed and validated by Chan and Elliott (2004) and was reported to have satisfactory psychometric properties. For
With regard to the second research question, the correlation between teacher burnout level and participants' Innate/Fixed ability beliefs. The internal consistency of the scale was equal to 0.89 in Chan and Elliot’s study, however, in this study, Cronbach alpha showed a reliability of 0.83 for this scale which suggests high internal consistency.

**Data Collection Procedure**

All the data required for the study were gathered by the researcher himself by attending the language universities and institutes where the data were to be collected. The data was collected in two parts. In the first part, the teachers were provided with the objectives of the study and also with the instructions. The teachers were informed that their participation would be entirely voluntary and were assured that the information they provide will be confidential and will be used for research purposes only. The teachers were given as much time as they needed to complete the questionnaires. The instruments were administered to English teachers in one way and that is face-to-face administration (print form).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

To determine the relationship between EFL teacher epistemological beliefs with four different subcategories and their burnout level consisting of three different subcategories, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used. The results in table 2 show that there is positive correlation between teacher burnout level and participants Innate/Fixed ability beliefs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Emotional exhaustion</th>
<th>depersonalization</th>
<th>Low level of personal acc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Innate/Fixed Ability</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.716</td>
<td>.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certainty Knowledge</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Effort/Process</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.614</td>
<td>-.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority/Expert Knowledge</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>-.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to the second research question, the findings of the descriptive statistics showed that Iranian EFL teachers in Iran tended to endorse, from among the four categories of epistemological beliefs, the innate/fixed ability and certainty knowledge. As it can be seen in
Table 3, Innate/Fixed ability and authority/expert knowledge received the highest and the lowest means respectively (4.37 and 2.51).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Innate/Fixed Ability</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certainty Knowledge</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Effort/Process</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority/Expert Knowledge</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>.662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

The findings clearly remind us of the fact that teachers who believe that constructing knowledge is innately fixed in our mind and teachers or learners do not have any freedom to gain the knowledge or change the situation of learning, had a higher burnout level in contrast to those who believe that knowledge is ever changing and every single learner should have the autonomy and can change his or her learning process by much more effort.

The findings of the study are consistent with the work of Kumaravadivelu (2006) and concept of “post-method” era. Language teachers in this era should open the door for creating concepts such as autonomy, awareness, creativity, reflectivity, critical thinking and so on in educational settings. The previous research found that the more the teachers have these concepts and believe in them, the less they would be affected by the burnout syndrome. The missing link in this story would be Epistemological Beliefs. When teachers believe that they do not have any ability to create something new and to change their teaching process, they do not actually believe in creativity and reflectivity and so they will face the burnout syndrome much more easily and sooner. The second research question investigates the type of epistemological beliefs that EFL teachers hold. The findings of the descriptive statistics showed that these teachers tended to hold beliefs about the innate and fixed nature of knowledge. Put another way, teachers believed that knowledge and knowing are innate and that learners cannot produce knowledge of English rather than just receiving it. This may remind us of the modern era of English language teaching (ELT) where, considering the centralized educational system in Iran, language teachers do not have enough autonomy to make decisions or carry out any kind of classroom action research or reflective teaching. As a matter of fact, for the most part, these teachers do not know the fundamental principles of reflective teaching which came into being since the inception of postmodernism. Sadly, there is still ‘a mad scramble’ (Brown, 2002, p. 171) in their search for the best method in Iranian schools and English language institutes.

Consequently, Iranian English teachers are preoccupied with preparing learners for the final exam which is held in a multiple-choice format whose focus is primarily on structures, vocabulary and reading comprehension, ignoring other important skills such as speaking, listening, and writing. The course book used for all students is prescribed by the language
center at the universities and language institutions, leaving language teachers no right to select the materials which they think are best suited to the needs of their learners. Therefore, taken together, it may be argued that the participants felt that, for example, the major role of an English teacher is to “transmit language knowledge to learners through continual practicing”. They embraced the traditional concepts of ‘rote learning’ and ‘memorization’ because they thought that learning occurs when teachers transmit the pre-established knowledge to their learners.

These findings support the previous findings of the study conducted by Ketabi, Zabihi and Ghadiri (2013) that have investigated the types of epistemological beliefs of Iranian EFL teachers and accentuate the point that unfortunately our EFL teachers, even experienced one do live in “traditionalism” era and do not believe in post-method concepts such as autonomy, awareness and critical thinking. The results are in a sharp contrast with the findings of Chan and Elliott (2002). In that specific study the participants who were 385 Hong Kong pre-service teachers believed that knowledge is ever changing. They also believed that knowledge is created through learning processes rather than handed down by authorities. The results of the study clearly showed that EFL teachers in Iran believe that students do not have the freedom to take part in their learning process and must accept everything from their superiors in the educational setting.

CONCLUSION
In light of research findings, it could be concluded that The results of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient proved that those teachers with ‘innate/ fixed ability’ beliefs had a higher rate of burnout and those with ‘learning/effort’ beliefs had a lower level of the burnout syndrome. The results also indicated that there is not any relationship with ‘certainty knowledge’ and ‘authority/experts’ categories and burnout level. Furthermore, the findings of the descriptive statistics proved that majority of teacher who took part in this research project believe that knowledge is an innate/ fixed ability with Mean of 4.37. After that the participants believe in certainty knowledge with Mean of 3.49, knowledge as learning/effort process and the least of them believe in knowledge as transmitted by authority and experts. The results of the study can help EFL teachers, curriculum designers and all the stakeholders in the field to diminish the effect of burnout as a psychological disease and enhance the efficiency of EFL teachers.

Limitation of the Study
The sample size would limit the generalizability of the research study. Also the distribution of participants in different age and teaching experiences were not equal and this also may affect the generalizability of the findings. Furthermore, this study only made use of self-report scales to elicit pre-service teachers’ beliefs and their burnout level and not other ways such as interviews or observations. The participants’ responses to these measures may have been confounded by social desirability or perceptual distortions.

REFERENCES


THE LANGUAGE ATTITUDE OF BALINESE ON THE SECOND GENERATION IMMIGRANT’S PARENTS IN KAMPUNG BALI LANGKAT, NORTH SUMATERA

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ABSTRACT
This study aims to investigate the language attitude of second generation Balinese immigrant’s parents in Kampung Bali Langkat, North Sumatera. This study aims to know what are the characteristics of the language attitude of Balinese on the second generation immigrant’s parents in Kampung Bali Langkat North Sumatera. The sample of (20) Balinese people have been selected. There are four assistants who live in Kampung Bali, North Sumatera. Those assistants have more knowledge of the community. The research method is descriptive qualitative. The data collections were done through observations and interviews. The result of this study shows three characteristics of language attitude on Balinese immigrant’s parent in Kampung Bali Langkat, North Sumatera, namely language loyalty, language pride and awareness of the language norms. There are five participants on language loyalty, three participants on language pride and three participants on awareness of the language norms.

KEYWORDS: language attitude, the characteristics of language attitude, Balinese in Kampung Bali North Sumatera.

INTRODUCTION
There are 746 local languages or vernacular in Indonesia (Pusat Bahasa 2008) with various number of speaker. Balinese language is one of vernacular in Indonesia. To make a language stays exist an area is depend on the attitude of the speakers. According to Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics (1992:1999), language attitude is the attitude which speaker using the other languages or language diversity that have towards on their own language.

Because of Agung Mount erruption in february 1963. Balinese people must immigrant from there islands to go to some islands to make their life better. Previously the people in Kampung Bali North Sumatera five families only, nowadays in 2017 the population is thirty four families.
Although, the immigrant parents is second generation, the attitude in using Balinese language is still continuously. To emphasize the importance of local languages or vernacular, the speaker encourage to use Balinese language in the area although there are minority in there. According to Garvin and Mathiot (1968) there are three characteristic of language attitudes, namely, 1) language loyalty, 2) language pride, 3) awareness of the language norms. Based on the explanations above, the researchers would like to find the characteristic of Balinese language in Kampung Bali North Sumatera.

The researchers focus on describing and analyzing the characteristic of language attitude on Balinese language in Kampung Bali North Sumatera. The findings of this research are expected to be useful theoretically and practically. Theoretically, the findings of the study are useful for the developing of the theory of language attitude especially is characteristic. This research findings will increase the knowledge to add more horizons in language planning issues about the vernacular language. Practically, the result of the study will be useful as a reference for the university student for the next researchers who are interested in conducting any further studies in language attitude.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

**Language Attitude**

The Gace Canadian Dictionary (2000:94) defines attitudes as ‘a way of thinking acting or feeling’. It means that a language attitude is how to think about language, to use the language and feel the language. Actually language is to convey the information to the listener and to know what the speaker means. Depending on the particular listener, a speaker’s accent, speech pattern, vocabulary, intonation, etc. According to Starks&Paltridge (1996), Learning a language is closely related to the attitudes towards the language and Bakers states (1992), attitude refers to ‘a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour. In other words, it’s included internal thought, feelings, and tendencies in attitude towards a context diversity. Although an attitude is personal, it has some origin behaviors.

Fasold (1984) argues that attitudes toward a language are often the reflection of attitudes toward member of various ethnic groups and people’s reaction to language varieties reveal much of their perception of the speakers of these varieties (Edwards, 1982). Speakers of standard varieties are often valued while speakers of non-standard varieties are often disparaged because of their speech.

**The Characteristics of Language Attitude**

Garvin and Mathiot (1968) classified three characteristic of language attitudes, namely:

1) Language loyalty is an attitude that encourages the speaker of language to maintain their language viability from the adverse impact of foreign language. In the other words, it is desire of the speaker to maintain and sustain a language. Even if it necessary to prevent the language from other language’ influence, prevent the interference from foreign language. The loyalty of speaker to use and to maintain the language indicates the positive attitude of the speaker.
Language pride is an attitude that encourages the person or group of people to make the language as a symbol of person identity or as their group identity. And it can also distinguish them from the others groups. The pride of the speakers to use their language indicates the positive attitude of speaker, but if the speaker are no longer proud or shy to use their language, they are already included as peiple who gave negative attitude towards the language.

Awareness of the language norms is an attitude that encourages the use of language carefully, corrective, polite, a descent by the speakers. It encourages the speaker of language to use the language in accordance with applicable norms. The language awareness was reflected in the responsibility, attitude, and feelin of having a language that raises the willingness to foster and develop the language. Awareness of language is and important factor in determining the use of language.

Thus, from the description above can be assumed that language attitude can be seen from their response to encourouge someone to awar that language attitude must be belonged by everyone. The people have the important role to make the language be a symbol an identity of someone. The characteristics of language attitude above should be applied by everyone. They can make the speakers be able to maintain, make the symbol of person identity and speak well.

**Balinese in Langkat, North Sumatera**

The history, Balinese comes to Sumatera Island, especially in Langkat, North Sumatera because of the explosion of Mount Agung in February 1963 will become dark events in the history of Bali. In historical records, the eruption of Mount Agung issued 300 million cubic meters of magma, which makes the sun is reduced and cause the occurrence of a lunar eclipse. The impact of other woods, farmland becomes barren, and the Balinese lose the ir source of income daily. Those days became the most difficult periods in the history of the people of Bali.

As a form of responsibility, the government was planning a future program for Balinese transmigration out of the island in order to get a replacement, land a job and a good life. After waiting for the plan, finally emerged from the company's offer of a rubber plantation (PPN karet) for communities affected by the eruption of Mount Agung, an employment contract for 6 years.

The arrival of the people of Bali to Sumatra, North Sumatra in particular, varying the archipelago tribe who inhabit the province. Traces of the presence of the Balinese people in North Sumatra can be seen in the Desa Paya Tusam Kecamatan Wampu Kabupaten Langkat. I Nengah Sambe is the first generation who inhabited the village of Paya Tusam. At the age of 65 years entered, I Nengah who also plays Stakeholders (traditional chief) Bali tribe in Langkat, tells how the tribe originally inhabited the land langkat Bali.

After the first contracts completed during the past 6 years, most people who live on the estate Bandar Selamat, begging to retreat with honor as plantation workers, and returned to the land of their ancestors in Bali. While some who wanted to continue to live in Sumatra, is planning to establish a Balinese village, where the Balinese people overseas can perform rites and culture just like in Bali with other fellow Balinese people. Then through the organization Parisada Hindu, Balinese people have assigned them to a vacant land that can be occupied by the people of Bali.
The choice finally fell to the wilderness area status Land of the Free State. Balinese people who will inhabit this region are required to pay for the land as belonging to citizens, they can though as a private garden.

Based on the story from I Nengah, Bali tribe originally inhabiting the wilderness is only consist of five families (KK). The fifth of the families are the first generation who inhabited the region Paya Tusam in 1974. Two years later, some other Balinese people who work as agricultural laborers Tanjung Garbus, Deli Serdang, comes with a larger amount to the village, the population of Bali increased to 60 families, finally Tusam Paya village known as Kampung Bali.

Paya Tusam hamlet chief, Nyoma n Sumandro, is the second generation who inhabited in Kampung Bali. Based on his record, saying that the current Nyoman Bali ethnic who inhabited in Paya Tusam only 36 families of 74 families under the auspices. Remaining 38 other families are Javanese who come within the 1980s and 1990s. While Bali residents who originally inhabited the village had left the village and became nomads in the region of Riau, Jambi and Lampung. Although the number of Bali rate less than the Javanese, but these two tribes settlers live peacefully side by side. Even the marriage between the two tribes is also the case, as the experience that has wife Nyoman Javanese women. Commendable how ethnical Bali in langkat continue to maintain their noble traditions and culture on the ground overseas. Confidence to continue to maintain the culture and traditions.

RESEARCH QUESTION
What are the characteristics of the language attitude of Balinese on the second generation immigrant’s parents in Kampung Bali Langkat, North Sumatera?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
The research method of this study was descriptive qualitative. Bogdan and Biglan (1992:30) said, ‘qualitative research is descriptive. The data collection are in the form of words are pictures rather than numbers’. Qualitative method explain the social phenomena that acquire naturally, it doesn’t manipulate the certain situation. The phenomena that has been studied in this study was the characteristic of language attitude that has been used by Balinese people in Kampung Bali North Sumatera.

In this study the researcher used observation and interview as the instrument of collecting data. The observation was used to know or to find the phenomena that occur in Kampung Bali North Sumatera. An interview to search for in that information about that language and this study also used documentary to give visual explanation of the environment when and where the study was conducted.
RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This study applied qualitative data. The data were taken from analyzing the interview from the participants after analyzing the data. The researchers found that there are three characteristics of language attitude namely, 1) language loyalty, 2) language pride, 3) awareness of the language norms.

1. Language loyalty

According to Garvin and Mathiot (1968), Language loyalty is an attitude that encourages the speaker of language to maintain their language viability from the adverse impact of foreign language. The researchers found the data of language loyalty, the following:

Data 1

R : kenapa bapak menggunakan Bahasa Bali? (Why do you use Balinese language?)
IM : ya bahasa itu supaya kita lestarikan lah bahasa bali itu, supaya tidak hilang, nanti anak-anak kita bisa kita ajarkan, supaya tidak hilang lah generasi selanjutnya (we should preserve Balinese language to make it not loss, so that not loss for next generation)

From the dialogue above the speakers encourage to maintain Balinese language by learning their children. this has purpose to make their children know about Balinese language. The speaker expects that their children still perserve their heritage language.

Data 2

R : kalau pada upacara tradisional? (how about traditional ceremony)
INK : menggunakan Bahasa Bali. (using Balinese language)
R : kenapa bapak menggunakan Bahasa Bali? (why do you use Balinese language?)
INK : ya memang keluarga kan orang Bali, kan mengerti bahasa Bali, kalau kita menggunakan bahasa Indonesia kan, gak cocok juga, soalnya bahasa Belinya tau, kalau dengan orang Jawa kan gak mungkin menggunakan Bahasa Bali. (because my family is Balinese, so we understand Balinese language. If we use Bahasa Indonesia, it’s not proper because we know the Balinese language, it’s impossible to use Balinese language.)

From the dialogue above, the respondent expresses that he use Balinese language with his family, from the statement we know that he used Balinese language, although his environment is not all of Balinese people, but he is not influenced with environment. He still loyals to use Balinese language.

Data 3

R : kenapa bapak menggunakan bahasa Bali? (Why do you use Balinese language?)
IWW : karena begini, kenapa saya menggunakan bahasa Bali itu, kan sudah menjadi tradisi tidak boleh dihilangkan daripada tradisi kita, karena kita orang Bali tentu kita bahasa
Bali terhadap keluarga itu. Kalau diluar ya namanya sudah berbaur, ya terutama berbahasa Indonesia. (because, we use Balinese language, it’s our tradition. We may not omit our tradition. Because as a Balinese we have to speak Balinese to our family. If we are outside we can speak Indonesia).

R: apakah semua anak bapak bisa berbahasa Bali? (Can your children speak Balinese?)
IWW: bisa (of course, they can.)

From the dialogue above we know that the speaker thinks, Balinese language is a tradition from their heritage. So he must keep it well. The language is still used or not, it’s depend on our attitude to use it. He maintains strongly the Balinese language in his family to make Balinese language still exist in his environment.

**Data 4**

R: kenapa menggunakan bahasa Bali? (Why do you use Balinese language?)
P: supaya bahasa kita itu tidak hilang, kalau kita bahasa Indonesia kan ntr anak-anak bias tidak tau bahasa Bali, makanya dia bahasa Bali supaya dia mengenal. (so that Balinese language always exist. If we speak Indonesian language, the next generation won’t know Balinese language, that’s why we speak Balinese language so that our children will follow us.)

The data above describes that the speaker thinks about his next generation to use Balinese language, he is loyalty on Balinese language. He thinks, next the generation is the important thing on perserving the language. We can conclude that he has loyalty attitude on his own language.

**Data 5**

R: kenapa bapak menggunakan bahasa Bali? (Why do you use Balinese language?)
NP: bahasa daerah kan biar gak ketinggalan ma anak-anak ini. Anak-anak ini kan gak tau dia, kalau tidak orang tua sendiri ngasi tau kan tentunya anak-anak ini tidak tau. (it’s our mother tongue so that the next generation can speak Balinese language too. Those children won’t know if their parents dont teach the language.)

From the dialogue above the speaker as the parents, he aware that how important the vernacular is and he encourage his children to speak Balinese language by the way of teaching his children. the speaker has loyal attitude on his language because he thinks about next generation to continue their heritage language.

2. **Language pride**

According to Garvin and Mathiot (1968), Language pride is an attitude that encourages of person or group of people to make the language as a symbol of person identity or as their group identity. The researchers found the data of language pride, as following:
From the conversation above, we know that the speaker thinks that Balinese language as his identity. The speaker implements Balinese language in there to show their identity as Balinese people.

Data 2
R :apakah bapak merasa bangga menggunakan bahasa Bali? (Do you feel proud of using Balinese language?)
P :kalau masalah bangga atau tidak, didalam hati saya sendiri perasaan saya sangat bangga. Bisa kami dengan anak kami sama keluarga kami bisa menggunakan bahasa Bali, itu lah kebanggannya. Diluar dari pada ini bahasa Indonesia tetap kita pakai. (it doesn’t matter about pride or not, in my own heart, I’m really proud of it. We always speak Balinese language in our daily life, it’s our pride. But we speak indonesian language outside.)
R :jadi bahasa Bali, bisa menunjukkan bahwa bapak orang Bali ( so, Balinese language can show your identity as a Balinese.)
P :iya (yes)

The dialogue above shows that, the speaker is really proud by using Balinese language, because it will make everyone know that he is Balinese person. He really feels proud by using Balinese language. The speaker has language pride or attitude on Balinese language. The pride comes from inside of him. The statement “didalam hati saya sendiri perasaan saya sangat bangga.” (in my own heart, I’m really proud of it). That statement is a description of his heart situation on Balinese language that he is really proud of it.

Data 3
R :ketika bapak menggunakan bahasa Bali itu, Bapak merasa bangga tidak? Kenapa? (Do you feel proud of using Balinese language? Why?)
IWW :sangat-sangat bangga, karena kita dapat meneruskan dari apa yang sudah diturunkan dari leluhur kita. Itu kan otomatis tidak bisa kita hilangkan, itu identitas kan gitu. (I’m really proud of it. Because we can be inheritance that has been given by ancestors. Automatically it can’t be omitted, it’s our identity.)
R :bentar bahasa Bali itu bisa mengetahui bahasa seseorang itu orang Bali yaa pak. ( so when we are speaking Balinese language it can show that we are a Balinese.)
IWW :iya (yes)

From the dialogue above, the speaker’s statement shows that he is really proud. The statement of “sangat-sangat bangga,............. itu identitas kan gitu” (I’m really happy,.............it’s our identity
3. **Awareness of the Language Norms**

According to Garvin and Mathiot (1968), awareness of the language norms is an attitude that encourages the use of language carefully, corrective, polite, a descent by the speakers. It encourages the speaker of language to use the language in accordance with applicable norms. The researchers have found the awareness of the language norms in *Kampung Bali*, North Sumatera, as following:

**Data 1**

*R*: apakah bapak bangga menggunakan bahasa bali? (are you proud to use Balinese language?)

**INS**: ya bangga, artinya kami ke bali tu harus menggunakan bahasa bali. kan disana menggunakan bahasa Bali halus, bukan bahasa sehari-hari kita gunakan. Ketika saya di Bali saya masih diakui saya bisa bahasa bali halus. (yes, i am. It means when we go to Bali, we must use Balinese language. In there using smooth Balinese language, not daily conversation. when I come to Bali, I am still admitted be able to speak smooth Balinese language)

From the data above, “artinya kami ke bali tu harus menggunakan bahasa bali. kan disana menggunakan bahasa Bali halus, bukan bahasa sehari-hari kita gunakan.” (it means when we go to Bali, we must use Balinese language. In there using smooth Balinese language, not daily conversation) the speaker shows his attitude using Balinese language. He awareness that Balinese language is very important when he comes back to Bali. He thought that daily communication is not enough, everyone should learn smooth Balinese language. That language shows us polite or impolite. The speaker should use smooth Balinese language to communicate to older man.

**Data 2**

*R*: Bahasa apa yang bapak gunakan sehari-hari di kampung Bali? (what language do you use in daily activities in Bali Village?)

**IWW**: ini lah yang sulit saya apakan, sering menggunakan bahasa Indonesia (it is so difficult to say, always using Bahasa Indonesia)

*R*: kalau dikeluarga sendiri pak? (how about in the family?)

**IWW**: kalau dikeluarga sama orang rumah ya bahasa Bali (if in family with my family, I use Balinese language)

*R*: kalau ke tetangga itu? (how about in the neighbor?)

**IWW**: ketetangga itu, tengok-tengok tetangganya. Kalau dia lebih tua dari saya ya, saya menggunakan Bahasa Bali, bahasa Kawi. Kalau sebaya ya menggunakan bahasa pasaran, bukan menggunakan bahasa Indonesia. (in the neighbor, depend on neighbor. If she/he is older than me, I use Balinese language, Kawi language. If we are same age, we use daily language rather than using Bahasa Indonesia).

From the dialogue above, the speaker’s statement “Kalau dia lebih tua dari saya ya, saya menggunakan Bahasa Bali, bahasa Kawi. Kalau sebaya ya menggunakan bahasa pasaran, (If
she/he is older than me, I use Balinese language, Kawi language. If we are same age, we use daily language )“the speaker has language attitude in communicating to someone. There is a special language used for older people. It will show that language is polite or impolite, there is language level in communicating to each other. The speaker must be carefully, with whom he speaks to.

Data 3
R : apa bahasa yang bapak gunakan sehari-hari? (what language do you use in daily activity?)
IWD : kami sama yang lebih tua gunakan bahasa Bali, tapi kalau sebaya kami menggunakan bahasa Indonesia. (if with older man we use Bal language, but if same age we use Bahasa Indonesia)
R : kalau dikeluarga dengan Ibu? (how about with your wife in family?)
IWD : bahasa Indonesia, dari lajang lah, ketemu gunakan Bahasa Indonesia. (Bahasa Indonesia, from teenager, we meet, we use Bahasa Indonesia)
R : kalau ke tetangga pak, gunakan bahasa apa? (How about with neighbor, what language do you use?)
IWD : ya kalau yang lebih tua bahasa Bali, kalau lebih muda bisa menggunakan bahasa Bali ya menggunakan bahasa Bali. terjemahnya tau, mengucapkannya payah gitu. (if older than me, we use Balinese language and younger can use Balinese language I know the meaning, but difficult to speak.)

From speaker explanation above, although he always uses Bahasa Indonesia in daily activity, but he can switch to Balinese language. It’s caused by his attitude to respect the older one. He has polite attitude when communicating to older man. He encourages himself to use Balinese language although he can’t speak Balinese language well.

CONCLUSION
Having analyzed the data, the researchers can conclude that there are three characteristics of language attitude in Kampung Bali Langkat, North Sumatera, namely language loyalty, language pride and awareness of the language norms. After interviewing the speakers, the speakers have good attitude on their venacular language. Those characteristics can help the speakers to maintain their venacular language. Although, sometimes they use Bahasa Indonesia with younger people but the speakers encourage themselves to speak Balinese language with older people. If the speakers use Balinese language with older people, it shows their respectful to older people, so that it makes them spurred especially to young generation to learn and implement Balinese language in daily activity.

Limitation of the study
This study is focussed on language attitude in Kampung Bali Langkat, North Sumatera. There are 20 Balinese speakers as the participants of this study. This study focused on the language attitude and its characteristics.
REFERENCES
LANGUAGE BORROWING AND LANGUAGE CONFLICT IN ANALISA NEWSPAPER

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ABSTRACT

This research deals with language borrowing and language conflict on newspaper. Languages borrow primarily to communicate; borrowing, therefore, occurs out of necessity or need where a language does not have a readily available word for something. Other reasons for borrowing include prestige and foreign influence. Borrowing occurs when speakers of a given language have had some contact with another/other language(s). Usually, borrowed words appear as similar as possible to the source words while at the same time adopting the morphology of the recipient language. In all cases though, borrowing denotes language growth which enhances communication and is continuous. This paper argues that while borrowed words are similar to source words. The present paper sheds some light at the concept of borrowing and displays the major periods of borrowing in the history of English. In addition, it introduces the basic of borrowing.

KEYWORDS: Language borrowing, language conflict, loanword, newspaper

INTRODUCTION

This research paper presents a description and analysis the processes of borrowings and is there any conflict in Analisa Newspaper. Analisa Newspaper that is still published and existed in this modern era especially Indonesia country. One of the interesting things from the Newspaper is that many English words, phrases and sentences that used in every edition. By borrowings, Analisa Newspaper has many vocabularies to express something that is found in Indonesian language. Language borrowing from other to describe objects or strange things which cannot be done by them. Through borrowings, they can fill gaps in the lexicon, or introduce finer distinction of meaning which is not available in native language. For example, Indonesian does not clearly differentiate related nouns and adjectives by morphological means, as English does.

A language can add to the number of words in its lexicon by borrowings vocabulary from other language. For example English has borrowed so extensively from other languages that the English lexicon is like a large mosaic. So, do the other languages also need to borrow words from other to enrich lexicon. Borrowings phenomena are unavoidable in languages. Wardraugh (2000: 37) stated that the motivation for and extend of lexical borrowings depend on a range of social factors that vary from one contact situation to another. Two factors that have been frequently
mentioned are “need” and “prestige”. Most of the borrowings are associated with the “distance” contact seem to be motivated by “the need to designate the things, persons, places, and concepts”. Borrowings phenomena not only occur in English or Indonesian language, but also in every language in the world. As in Javanese language, borrowing is not only found in lexicon form, but also in phrase and sentences. Even the uses of borrowings in all sentences occur in our environment to show speaker ability in foreign language. In this case, prestige is one of the reasons to show that the speakers have high quality in language or they come from higher social class. As Bloomfield (in Wardraugh, 1997: 39) noted, borrowings is usually from a more prestigious into a socially subordinate language. Speaker may find it more sophisticated to borrow from the prestigious or higher level language.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Language Borrowing

Borrowing is involved when single word, phrases, or expressions from one language become part of another language system by being assimilated to its new linguistic structure. Borrowing also called loans words are usually integrated in the grammatical system of the second language in the sense that they are dealt with as if they were part of the lexicon of that language. Gumperz (1982: 66) says the introduction of single words or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one variety into the other. The items in question are incorporated into the grammatical system of the borrowing language. They are treated as part of its lexicon, take on its morphological characteristics and enter into its syntactic structures. For instance, Algerian Arabic is characterized by heavy borrowings from French. Many students use these French loans words to satisfy their needs in scientific and technological domains.

Example: Language borrowing from English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>astronot</td>
<td>astronaut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bisnis</td>
<td>business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diskon</td>
<td>discount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elektronik</td>
<td>electronic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This subchapter discusses the writer’s analysis of the result and discussion. From the research of the descriptive text composition, the result of the analysis is as follows: Language borrowing has been an interest to various fields of linguistics for some time. (Whitney 1875, Desaussure 1915, Sapir 1921, Pedersen 1931, Haugen 1950, Lehmann 1962, Hockett 1979, Anttila 1989). In the study language borrowing, loanwords are only one of the types of borrowings that occur across language boundaries. The speakers of a language have various options when confronted with new items and ideas in another language. Hockett (1958) has organized the options as follows:
Loanword
Speakers may adopt the item or idea and the source language word for each. The borrowed form is a Loanword. These forms now function in the usual grammatical processes, with nouns taking plural and/or possessive forms of the new language and with verbs and adjectives receiving native morphemes as well.

Loanshift
Another process that occurs is that of adapting native words to the new meanings. A good example from the early Christian era in England is Easter, which had earlier been used for a pagan dawn goddess festival. Other Loan shifts in English example: God, heaven, and hell. In pagan England, hell meant ‘pagan underworld’ and heaven meant only ‘sky’ but the introduction of Christianity from abroad caused these words to lose their original meanings in favor new Christian concepts.

Loan-translation
A Loan-translation or Calque occurs when the native language uses an item-for-item native version of the original. "Loanword" itself is a loan-translation of the German lehnwort, marriage of convenience is from the French, and example: from Chinese long time no see.

In this research, the writers only focus for analysing data in Analisa newspaper and limited theory on loanword when confronted with new items and ideas in another language and the data found is most adopted from English.

Language Conflict
The presence of many languages in the same area easily causes conflict. Language conflict arises from the confrontation of different values and attitude structures. It means, if language borrow happen or we use in our daily communication to make conflict or language lose (death). Example: when people always use English borrow so that our local language can be death or lose. Because in our daily activities that we use language borrow and Indonesian so that it makes the local language lose. Language conflict appears when two or more languages that are clearly different confront each other in the social and political field. Language competition is then, driven by individuals organized as groups of language speakers who start having agreements by adopting certain language and rejecting another. Two types of language conflict are generally Distinguishable. But in this journal the writers found kinds of language conflict, they are:

a. Ethnic Language Conflict
Liebkold (1989: 143) declares “when ethnic group identity becomes important for individuals, they may attempt to make themselves favorably distinct on dimensions such as language. According to Gurr (2000), two types of ethnic language conflict are distinguished; internal ethnic language conflict, and external ethnic language conflict or ethno-Political language conflict. The former traditionally exist between linguistic minorities, which differ in norms and values. Gurr (2000: 65) also defines ethno-political conflict as “conflicts in which claims are made by a
national or minority group against the state or against other political actors”. The Berber question in Algeria is one of these cases.

b. Political Language Conflict

One major source of political language conflict is closely related to the unequal distribution of social roles assigned to languages in competition. The dominant language generally tends to reserve certain areas of interest closely related to government, education, economic institutions and media, whereas, the other languages are excluded from the state national agenda. This type is the result of the incompatibility of language attitudes shown between population groups of different socioeconomic structures. Nelde (1987: 35) stated the height of a political language conflict is reached when all conflict factors are combined in a single symbol, language, and quarrels and struggles in very different are as [politics, economics, administration and education] appear under the heading language conflict. Moreover, according to Krebbs (1985), language conflict can operate in two main ways; exploitation conflict and interference conflict. The former refers to an indirect interaction between different groups involved in the conflict. This conflict is characterized by an unstable tension between the conflicting parties without having recourse to violence. The linguistic conflict existing between French and English in public life in Canada. While the latter, refers to a direct interaction also called a violent conflict in which the conflicting parties are in a perpetual state of armed confrontation.

In this research, the writers didn’t find any languages conflict in text Analisa Newspaper. Precisely by borrowing language of few words that found can enrich content of reading and add vocabularies. This is also accepted for citizen or readers because of many readers of Analisa Newspaper come from middle into high social status. It can be seen from the price and the kinds of paper used and the news indeed include most popular hot news or earlier news from production area till mancanegara. In this Analisa Newspaper found enough of language borrowing and it can suggest the reader to use or to adopt language borrowing by reading. The writers also found that there are several words that actually have pure in indonesian language, but in Analisa Newspaper exactly use borrowing language to replace the words in that text. The dominant language generally tends to reserve certain areas of interest closely related to government, education, economic institutions and media etc proved. This is affect or give positif distribution for readers in improving the usage of words in daily language using

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to know language borrowing and language conflict in “Analisa Newspaper”. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are types of language borrowing that we find in “Analisa Newspaper”?
2. What are factors “Analisa Newspaper” use language borrowing?

METHODOLOGY

This study is a descriptive qualitative research, because the writer purposes to describe, analyze and elaborate English borrowing words uses in Analisa Newspaper. The researchers focus in
three fields in Analisa Newspaper. They are, Economic, Health, and Politics. The pages of the newspaper that we analyze are 4 pages. English borrowings words are mostly used in IT rubrics that provide many information about science and technology. The data are in the form of word, phrase and sentences uses in Analisa Newspaper, February 22nd 2016 edition. There are several steps are used for collecting the data are as follows: the writer subscribe the new edition of Newspaper, and reading all of the rubrics. Besides that, the writer gives circle sign to the word, phrase or sentences that contains English words. After finding English word, the researcher writes and collects English word into computer and analyze it. The writer spent two weeks for searching and analyzing the English word uses in Analisa Newspaper. Analisa must borrow English word to fill gaps and to explain something that as not found in Indonesia language.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

English as an international language Indonesian influence in different fields. English borrowing words have Structural Change, there are 3 types of changes to the existing structure in the analysis Newspaper. First, reanalysis which means the form of the structure of the original language could be formed in several ways which later became the form of the new structure. This change is not too far from the original form and still be tracked on a new form as the language of borrowers trying to find the closest form when compared to the original form of the word. An example is the form of the suffix /-tion/ frequently encountered in the Analisa Newspaper.

Data 1
Kinds of sound replacing English borrowing from suffix (t)ion into suffix -asi/si.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Indonesian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>evaluasi</td>
<td>: evaluation / -si / English/ (/l, vəljuˈeijn/)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>produksi</td>
<td>: production / English / (/praˈdəkʃn/)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proporsi</td>
<td>: proportion / English / (/prəpɔˈʃn/)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dekrarasi</td>
<td>: declaration / English / (/dɛkərəʃn/)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hipertensi</td>
<td>: hypertension / English / (/haipəˈtenʃn/)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infeksi</td>
<td>: infection / English / (/ɪnˈfekʃn/)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Form suffix /-ion/ normally be suffix /-si/ adaptation in the form of Indonesian. This happens because the suffix /-si/ more familiar and can be pronounced easily. We could not find the sound /n/ in the rules of sound in Indonesian so this sounds difficult to pronounce so replaced by the suffix /-si/ so that can be pronounced easily.

Another example of a reanalysis of the change in the suffix /-ive/ become suffix /-if/ in the form of Indonesian.

Data 2
Kinds of sound replacing English borrowing from consonant combining v/ve into consonant -f or v/ve into f.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Indonesian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eksekutif</td>
<td>: executive (English) (/igˈzekjətɪv/)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another type of change in the structure is diffusion. Diffusion means the process mimics the shape of the structure of language from another language form to form the shape of the new structure. For example: in the phrase "Economic and social corresponding session never got better" because there are changes in the structure of social word comes from the word social.

The word social in English to function as an adjective, however, said the Indonesian social function as a noun.

Data 3
Another example of the replacement of the consonant / c / into / s / when it is located in front of the letter / I / and / e / that is:

- drastis : drastic (English) (/draːstɪk/)
- sistem : system (English) (/sɪstəm/)
- plastik : plastic (English) (/plæstɪk/)
- produksi : production (English) (/prə’dækʃn/)
- program : programe (English) (/prə’ɡræm/)

Borrowing of English words without experiencing change based on data collected from the Analisa Newspaper which was published in February 2016, the writers conclude that there are two types of English loan word that often appears in this newspaper. First, a word of English absorption without undergoing changes that are directly borrowed from English without undergoing a process of change from its original form; word - a loan word still has the same form used in the newspaper. No change in semantics, structure, and sound. In a sentence - the sentence is no word - a word that uses the English loan word directly on the context in the analysis of newspaper without changing the original shape. English loan word does not create any new meaning in Indonesian and still means something in English, although the English loan word applied in the context of Indonesian.

Data 4
Example:

- bank : bank (English) (/bæŋk/)
- media : media (English) (/miːdiə/)
- gadget : gadget (English) (/ɡædʒɪt/)
- tariff : tariff (English) (/tærɪf/)
- target : target (English) (/taːɡɪt/)
- minimal : minimal (English) (/ˈmɪnɪməl/)
- standard : standard (English) (/ˈstændəd/)
- status : statue (English) (/ˈstætʃuː/)
- mini market : mini market (English) (/ˈmiːni mɑːkit/)
Changes in the structure does not exist in this kind of borrowing because no prefixes and suffixes that are added to this English loan word and still maintain the original structure of the English word. The authors in Analisa Newspaper prefer using this type of loan word in English because there may not be a word in Indonesian which precisely expresses the idea as in English. If forced to use the word in Indonesian, the word of this uptake may be meaningless or does not fit in replacing the original word. The second type is a loan word loan word English change language where the word uptake undergoes changes before being used in a sentence in Indonesian. This process includes changes in semantics, structure, and sound. Said - said such criticism (English: critique), politics (English: politics), and conflict (English: conflict) is a loan word in English that changes of form.

Data 5

Types of sound replacing English borrowing from consonant c into k

- ekonomi : economy (English) (/iˈkəʊnəmɪ/)
- faktor : factor (English) (/fæktə(r)/)
- fokus : focus (English) (/fɔrkəs/)
- konkret : concrete (English) (/kənkrɛt/)
- komisioner : commissioner (English) (/kəmɪˈʃənə(r)/)
- kanker : cancer (English) (/ˈkænsə(r)/)

The word economi, concrete, commisioner, etc translated into the word Ekonomi, Konkret, Komisionerin Indonesian text (Analisa Newspaper). The meanings of those words are similar. In this case, the translator translated the word by changing the consonant -c into -k. But it has the same sound /k/. But its not same in case happened in the word cancer, when the sounds become Kanker, etc.

Data 6

Kinds of sound replacing English borrowing from consonant -y of the sound /i/ into vowel -i

- tragedi : tragedy (English) (/trəˈdʒədɪ/)
- ideologi : Ideology (English) (/aɪˈdɪələdʒi/)
- filosofi : philosophy (English) (/fɪləˈsofɪ/)
- kompani : company (English) (/ˈkɒmpəni/)

The word tragedy, Ideology, and philosophy translated into the word Tragedi, Ideologi, and Filosofi in Indonesian text (Analisa Newspaper). The meanings of those words are similar. In this case, the translator translated the word by changing the consonant -y into -i. But it has the same sound /i/.

Kinds of sound replacing English borrowing from suffix -ent/ant into -en/an. For example argument into argumen and dominant into dominan. But in this newspaper, the writers didn’t find any English borrowing with this kind of sound.
Kinds of sound replacing English borrowing from double consonant into one consonant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Indonesian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>process</td>
<td>Proses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>business</td>
<td>Bisnis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>access</td>
<td>Akses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>programme</td>
<td>Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sterile</td>
<td>Sterile</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The word process, business, and access in English text is translated into the word Proses, Bisnis, and Akses in Indonesian text. The meanings of those words are similar. In this case, the translator translated the word by changing double consonant into one consonant. It has been acceptable by Analisa newspaper readers.

Based on the discussion in the English Borrowing (Loan word) Analisa Newspaper, the researcher concludes that there are two types of English loan word that often appears in the analysis of the Newspaper, the first English loan word that is directly borrowed from English unchanged from its original form. Second, the English loan word that changed the language by changing the original form which was later adapted into Indonesian. The changes include a change in structure and sound. The use of English loan word in editorial Analisa Newspaper because there is no term in the Indonesian language that is suitable express ideas according to their original meaning.

CONCLUSION

Based on the discussion in the English Borrowing (Loan word) Analisa Newspaper, the researcher concludes that there are two types of English loan word that often appears in the analysis of the Newspaper. This change is not too far from the original form and still be tracked on a new form as the language of borrowers trying to find the closest form when compared to the original form of the word. In this research, the writers didn’t find any languages conflict in text Analisa Newspaper. Precisely by borrowing language of few words that found can enrich content of reading and add vocabularies.

Limitation of the study

The researchers focus in three fields in Analisa Newspaper. They are, Economic, Health, and Politics. The pages of the newspaper that we analyze are 4 pages. English borrowings words are mostly used in IT rubrics that provide many information about science and technology. The data are in the form of word, phrase and sentences uses in Analisa Newspaper, February 22nd 2016 edition.

REFERENCES


THE COMPARATIVE EFFECT OF DICTO-GLOSS AND PARTIAL-DICTATION ON EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT
The present study focused on dicto-gloss and partial dictation as potential listening activities to promote L2 listening comprehension and aimed at comparing the effects of dicto-gloss and partial dictation on L2 listening comprehension. The participants of the study included 60 English as a foreign language (EFL) learners at the elementary level studying at Kish Language institute in Tehran within the age range of 18 to 25. Dicto-gloss was operationalized through the 4 stages of preparation, dictation and note taking, reconstruction of text based on notes and finally analyzing and correction. Partial dictation was operationalized through getting students complete a text with blanks based on the listening recording. By adopting a pretest and posttest design the effects of dicto-gloss and partial dictation on listening comprehension were examined and the effects of the two types of treatments on listening comprehension were compared using independent samples t-test. The results of statistical analysis rejected the null hypothesis of the study and indicated that dicto-gloss was a more effective technique than partial dictation in enhancing the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. Based on the findings of the present study, language teachers are encouraged to take advantage of the benefits of dicto-glass for teaching L2 listening. Teacher trainers may also intend to prepare language teachers for using dicto-gloss in their language classrooms.

KEYWORDS: L2 listening, listening comprehension, dicto-gloss, partial dictation

INTRODUCTION
As discussed by some researchers (e.g., Dunkel, 1991; Hargie, 2010; Rost, 2001; Vandergrift, 2007; Verederber & Sellnow, 2011), in the context of language learning and teaching, listening is viewed as one of the essential language skills learners should master since it provides them with the ability to get access to the necessary input based on the objectives of language learning. As a matter of fact, listening is one of the pivotal tools L2 learners can use to promote their general knowledge as well as linguistic knowledge. In a same vein, Nunan (2003)
asserts that learning would be aborted if the learner fail to understand the input at the right level. The investigations carried out on listening comprehension (Delmonte, 2008; Farshid & Farshid, 2010; Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002; Ndforchu, 2011) reveal that dictation can play a part in enhancing this skill. Literature shows different dictation techniques some of which are as follows: standard or full dictation, dicto-comp, partial dictation, and dicto-gloss (Nation & Newton, 2009). Consequently, this study seeks to examine the potential impact of two different techniques of dictation, namely, Dicto-gloss and partial dictation on learners’ listening comprehension performance.

Richards, Platt, and platt (1992) define dictation as a technique implemented in language teaching and testing in which a text is being read loudly with pauses and learners must write whatever they hear. The reason for administering dictation in classes is to practice listening with the whole class in a short amount of time and force students to listen carefully (Davis, 1995). In the ensuing years and with the emergence of the Audio-Lingual method, dictation was marginalized. The same was true for other techniques related to the grammar translation and direct methods. Today, with the popularity of a more integrative approach to foreign language instruction and learning, dictation has come to regain its former popularity. Lightfoot (2006) believes that dictation in its simplest form involves reading some text aloud followed by the listener's writing down what is being said. Yoshida (1981), reported a positive correlations among dictation and test results. He claims that dictation can be considered as a good teaching strategy. He reported that dictation indicates listening ability of learners and there are two main types of dictation.

In dictogloss, the learners must attract the main idea of a statement or a part. Dictogloss contains various techniques. In the sentence-level dictogloss, learners hear the sentences only one time and they expected to write down the words they remember and reconstruct the sentences accurately. When this process is done for the first time, the second reading would be allowed by teachers and learners would notify that they have to pay enough attention in the first reading as well as the rest. This practice is suitable for low intermediate or high beginner levels. Students can work in pairs or groups of three or four while reconstructing the sentences. Sometimes teachers ask learners to write their statements on the board in order to have a discussion over it. Dictogloss uses dictation activity which has an interactive nature and produces a reconstructed version of the text at the end and it was introduced by Wajnryb (1990) as a method of teaching grammar which is alternative. Preparation, dictation, reconstruction and analysis and correction are the four elementary steps of the original dictogloss (Vasiljevic, 2010). Teachers can employ dictogloss to establish a collaborative atmosphere in the L2 classroom (Nassaji & fotos, 2011). Rhuth Wajnryb (1990) put forth the concept of dictogloss for the first time. Dictogloss is a classroom procedure used for the instruction of grammar (kid, 1992). Dictogloss creates a context where learners' grammatical competence is expanded, thanks to the productive use of grammar. The current study does not put emphasis on the grammatical point but on the listening. According to wajnryb (as cited by Nassaji, 2000) the learners become involved in the process of decision making and hypothesis procedures thereby they improve their perception of the language they used.
Partial Dictation

In this type of dictation, chunks, words or phrases of language have been removed and students must listen and fill the blanks. Partial dictation expects the students to fill the blanks so it does not require too much attention while writing, the correction of spelling is possible and pair work is encouraged during this process. It possess structures which students would be able to recognize them but they cannot produce the same structures. Partial dictation is another branch of dictation technique which was developed by Johansson in Sweden. It is a combination of dictation and cloze procedure. It is like standard dictation in which every aspect, except that the students are provided with the written material as well as reading procedure; while in the given passage some words are deleted (Oller, 1979).

In a study Rahimi (2008) sought to examine the impact of dictation on the improvement of language proficiency. The results revealed improvement in both experimental and control group on the whole of proficiency test. The experimental group showed enhancements in listening comprehension, reading, vocabulary and grammar while the control group showed enhancement only in vocabulary part of the test. Chun (2010) conducted a case study of long-term dictation tasks using rapid speech and investigated the impact of dictation of rapid speech on listening skill enhancement and the impact of dictation on students speaking and listening ability. Fifty TESL students participated in this study and they practiced listening within dictation two times a week through twelve weeks. They gained significant strategies dealing with TOEFL and dictation scores by practice. Three questionnaire were filled by the students which revealed the way dictation improved speaking and listening skills.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following question was raised:
Q: Is there any significant difference between the effect of dicto-gloss and partial dictation on EFL learners’ listening comprehension performance?

Based on the above research question, the following null hypothesis was stated:
H0: There is no significant difference between the effect of dicto-gloss and partial dictation on EFL learners’ listening comprehension performance.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The initial participants of the current study were 90 EFL learners at the elementary level studying at Kish Language institute in Tehran. These participants were selected non-randomly due to availability and manageability reasons. All the participants were female learners and within the age range of 18 to 25. To homogenize and select the participants, the researcher piloted a KET test on 30 elementary students. The researcher rated the speaking section of the test along with her colleague who was the supervisor and teacher with more than 10 years of experience. Then the researcher gave the piloted KET test to the 90 elementary students and based on Standard deviation and means of the scores selected only those participants whose scores lay within the
range of +/- one standard deviation from the mean. This led to the selection of 60 homogenized learners in terms of overall language proficiency. After selecting the 60 homogenous students, they were equally divided into two experimental groups consisting of 30 learners each.

**Instrumentation**
The following instruments and materials were used in the present study:

**Key English Test (KET)**
KET was used as an instrument to choose a homogenized sample of students in terms of language proficiency. KET is a Cambridge English test for elementary level which is divided into 3 sections a description of which follows.

**Reading and Writing**
The first part of this test was reading and writing which had to be answered in 1 hour 10 minutes. This section had 6 parts including 40 questions for reading and 3 parts for writing. This section accounted for 50% of the total marks for the test. Reading and writing for this test had different types of questions and texts in each part. In the first part of reading there were 5 questions with 8 notices from (A - H) which students had to read and mark the correct letter on their answer sheet. Part 2 of this section had 5 questions which students had to choose the best word (A, B, C) for each space. For part 3 students had to complete the five conversations for questions 11-15 (A, B, C) and for questions 16-20 they had to complete the conversation and mark the correct letter A-H and part four was a reading test with multiple choice questions that covered questions 21 to 27. Questions 28 to 35 was a cloze test and the last part of the reading questions 36 to 40 checked their knowledge regarding the words and the first letter was already there. 1 mark was considered for each question. To check the writing ability students had to read two informal letters and complete the letters according to their knowledge and for questions 51 - 55 they read the notes and filled the information. As for the last part they had to read one note from the new pen friend and write a note in response.

**Listening**
This section had 5 parts in which students had to listen to each question twice. Students had to answer the questions in 30 minutes which included 8 minutes to write their answers on the answer sheet. This part had 25 questions and one mark was considered for each question. In the first part, there were 5 multiple choice questions and students listened and chose the correct picture. In part 2 there were 5 questions which students listened and chose the answer among 8 items. For part 3 there were 5 questions which they had to listen and choose the correct answer and for part four and five questions 16-25, students had to listen and complete the questions.1 mark was considered for each question.

**Speaking Rating Scale**
Two examiners checked the speaking. One of the examiners was the interlocutor and the other one was the rater. This part consisted of 2 sections. At first the interlocutor asked some primary questions related to the name and family and education background and some questions related to the present and previous experiences of learning English. For part 2, each student was given one
card and there were some key words and the other card had the answers. The interlocutor gave the examinees the instructions and they had to follow the instructions and answer each other’s questions. One of the examiners was supposed to rate the performance of the examinees and the other one rated the test according to the following criteria: Grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. They considered 20 marks for this section.

**Listening Post Test**

A listening post test of another version of KET was given to learners. This test was administered at the end of the course.

**Course book**

The course book which was used in this research is called New Headway Elementary 4th edition by Liz and John Soars and Amanda Maris. There are 12 units in the book. This book was for four terms. Three units were thought in each term during 19 sessions which each session lasted 90 minutes. This book had a work book a CD Rom and a video software for each lesson which focused on the four skills and sub skills and an MP3 as well. Each unit had 8 pages and consisted of speaking, reading, writing and listening. Units 10-12 were taught to the learners during this research study.

**Procedure**

Initially, 90 elementary EFL learners were selected randomly and given AKET the results of which were used to choose a homogenized sample of 60 learners whose scores fell within the range of +/-one standard deviation from the mean. The researcher then divided the participants into two experimental groups with 30 participants in each. To assure that, the participants on both groups were not significantly different in terms of listening comprehension performance prior to the main study, the listening comprehension scores on KET used for homogeneity purposes were analyzed using an independent samples t-test. She allocated 9 out of the 19 sessions of the course to the treatment in each experimental group. To do so, dicto-gloss and partial dictation, as the treatment were practiced every other session in each class with the teacher introducing the tasks to the participants in each group in the first session.

In this study 10 texts were used. In the dicto-gloss group the teacher went through four stages in the classroom: preparation to give the learners information about the topic of the text and presentation of some of the vocabulary items used in the targeted text. Dictation, when the learner heard the text and took fragmentary notes for the reconstruction. As for the next phase, the learners reconstructed the text on the basis of the fragments recorded in stage 2 and the last stage was analyzing and correction, when learners analyzed and corrected their texts. For the preparation stage, the teacher prepared learners by exploiting warm up for the subject matter and made them receptive to the listening in the text stage and choose the interesting topic and involve them in the discussion by asking questions and engage them.

The researcher pre-taught any unknown or difficult vocabularies related to the text and wrote on the board and made sure that the learners knew what they were supposed to do. The next step was cleaning the board before actual listening. In this way the listening part of task was challenging.
The second stage which was dictation, learners listened to the recording of the text three times without any pauses. The first time, they just listened and got a general feeling of the text, for the second and the third times, they took down notes. At the conclusion of the dictation, learners went through the third stage reconstruction. The learners were put into groups of three and asked to reconstruct the text in about 10 minutes. Learners produced their own written version of the text from their shared resources. The purpose of reconstruction was retaining the meaning and form of the original text but it was not a word-for-word copy of the text they listened to. Instead, students worked in groups to create a cohesive text with correct grammar. In the final stage, the learners spent about 10 minutes analyzing and correcting their texts, they compared the reconstructions of other learners and the original text and made any necessary corrections.

As for the partial group, the structure was explained to the students and they were made aware of the topic of the passage or conversation to activate their background knowledge. Then they listened to the whole passage or conversation without any pauses. Second, the text was duplicated with blanks for the words or structures that were important and the students were provided with an incomplete written text. The audio was replayed and the students wrote down in the deleted parts what they had heard. In the third stage, they listened again to the whole passage or conversation to check what they had written. After the dictation, they checked their writing against the audio script. Sometimes after checking their dictation, participants listened to the audio again while looking at their dictation and they were asked to pay special attention to their mistakes and correct their errors.

Having finished the treatment, the researcher gave the participants in both groups the listening posttest from another version of KET the scores of which were used to investigate the research question.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In this section the results of data analyses carried out to investigate the null hypothesis of the study are reported.

Participants’ Listening comprehension at the beginning of experiment
To establish the homogeneity of participants in terms of listening comprehension, the listening comprehension scores of the two groups were compared using independent samples t test. Table 1 shows the results of independent samples t-test between the two groups of the study in terms of listening comprehension.
Table 1: Results of test of Normality, Homogeneity of Variances and Independent Samples Test for Listening Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dicto-gloss</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial dictation</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.181</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 1 the significant levels of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for dicogloss and partial groups were greater than the confidence level of 0.05 and accordingly data were normally distributed. Another consideration was the homogeneity of variances which was checked through consulting the Levene’s test of equality of variances. According to Levene’s test result the two groups of the study had equal variances (F=0.002, P=0.96). Thus, t value was found 0.94 with significant value of 0.35 which means that the two groups are not significantly different in terms of listening comprehension.

Answering the Research Question

After the participants of the study received the treatment, they took a listening posttest to observe the effect of treatment on their listening comprehension scores. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the two groups of the study in listening posttest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening Post</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dicto-gloss</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.8667</td>
<td>3.37060</td>
<td>.61538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial dictation</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18.1333</td>
<td>3.09319</td>
<td>.56474</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the descriptive statistics, dicogloss group had a mean score of 19.86 (SD=3.37) and partial group had a mean score of 18.13 (SD=3.09). There was some difference between the two mean score but it could not be considered statistically significant. To determine the significant of the difference independent samples t-test was run on the posttest scores between the two groups. Table 3 shows the results of independent samples t-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dicto-gloss</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial dictation</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.206</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 3 the significant levels of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for dicogloss and partial groups were greater than the confidence level of 0.05 and accordingly data were normally distributed.
Homogeneity of variances was also checked through consulting the Levene’s test of equality of variances. According to Levene’ test result the two groups of the study had equal variances ($F=0.08$, $P=0.78$). Thus, t value was found $2.07$ with significant value of $0.04$ which means that the two groups are significantly different in terms of listening comprehension. Therefore the null hypothesis of the study was rejected and it was concluded there are significant difference between the effect of dicto-gloss and partial dictation on listening comprehension of EFL learners.

The present study was an attempt to understand how listening comprehension can be enhanced. To this end the effect of two kinds of listening instruction, namely, dicto-gloss and partial dictation were measured and compared. Before starting the experimentation it was made sure that two groups of the study were homogenized in terms of language proficiency and listening comprehension to get free from any threats due to possible differences between the groups in terms of language and listening comprehension. After the treatment, the group that received dicto-gloss procedure scored higher that the group receiving partial dictation ($M=19.86 > M=18.13$). The result of independent samples t test also indicated that the mean difference between the two groups was significant ($T=2.07$, $P=0.04$). Thus, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected and significant difference was found between dicto-gloss and partial dictation in terms of their effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. The present finding supports the previous findings regarding the effectiveness of dictation method (Afsharrad and Sadeghi Benis, 2014; Faghani, 2015; Savignon, 1982).

Moreover, the finding of the present study is in line with the study by Vasiljevic (2010). Vasiljevic (2010) showed that dicto-gloss provides language decoding and encoding which improves students’ communication and listening skills. He argued that dicto-gloss enables learners to produce a correct and appropriate text and to focus on their choices. He further clarified that this procedure improves learners’ self-confidence and encourages learners to focus on the process of language acquisition and how to achieve it more effectively.

The finding of the study regarding the better effect of dicto-gloss on listening comprehension can theoretically be justified too. As stated before, in the dicto-gloss, students need to take notes and pay close attention to important information in the listening and then need to collaborate with peers to reconstruct the heard story. Therefore, in the note taking stage, students’ attention is stimulated which is important in learning. According to noticing hypothesis, input does not turn into intake for language learning unless it is noticed, or in other words, learner get an awareness and consciousness of what he is going to learn (Schmidt, 1990, 2001).

According to Katz and Blyth (2007), dictogloss is a “a consciousness-raising activity with a meta linguistic aim can be used to provide meta talk that concentrated on different targeted items within the text (grammatical , pragmatic, rhetorical, etc.)”(p. 45). As Katz and Blyth maintain dictogloss is a well- established dictation-based activity which aim is developing conscious listening skills in addition to awareness of phrase and sentence structures. According to Kiddey and Waring (2001) dictogloss helps teacher to see or assesses some of the learners’ skills or understanding.
Moreover, the collaboration taking place between the peers is also conductive in helping students to better learn. Teachers can employ dictogloss to establish a collaborative atmosphere in the L2 classroom (Nassaji & fotos, 2011). It should be remembered that there is a strong theoretical background for collaboration and peer interaction in education. According to Lingley (2005), though collaboration individuals are made ready to function beyond linguistic comfort zone and further extend their zone of proximal development (ZPD). In the view of Vygotsky, (1978), Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is defined as the gap between the current developmental level as measured by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as measured through problem solving with the help from adult dynamic assessment or in collaboration with the peers who are more capable. According to the conclusion reached by Halliday and Hasan (1989), learning as a social process puts emphasis on the interaction and the context in the process of learning. Consequently, the findings of this study can possibly be attributed to the fact that the interaction among different students may have possibly resulted in better performance. As mentioned by Lingley (2005), the Halliday’s “social-semiotic perspective” incorporates Vygotsky’s “sociocultural theory” based on which peer feedback can be placed. According to Vygotsky (cited in O’Donoghue & Clarke, 2010), the presence and involvement of a more knowledgeable peer can support the learning process.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine any significant difference between the effect of dictogloss and partial dictation on EFL learners’ listening comprehension performance. The results of independent samples t-test indicated that dictogloss proved more effective than partial dictation in terms of the participants’ listening comprehension performance. Certain implications for language teaching and classrooms can be suggested based on what was found in the current study. First of all, language teachers are encouraged to take advantage of the benefits of dictogloss for teaching L2 listening. Second, teacher trainers need to prepare the language teachers for using dictoglass in their language classrooms. Language teaching courses can also update their language skill syllabuses based on more local preferences grounded in research. The use of more research based teaching also requires some decisions made by policy makers and accordingly they are also encouraged to pay more attention to the results of local research in the area of L2 skills.

This study like most empirical studies was not free from limitations. During conducting this study the researcher encountered two limitations. First of all, due to the regulation of the language school, the researcher did not have any access to male participants; therefore, the findings of this research may not be generalized to male students. The other limitation was the matter of age of learners, since the researcher had only access to adults. Thus, the findings of this study may not be generalized to teenagers.

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THE COMPARATIVE IMPACT OF CONCEPT MAPPING STRATEGIES ON FIELD DEPENDENT AND FIELD INDEPENDENT EFL LEARNERS’ VOCABULARY ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT
This study aimed to investigate the comparative impact of concept mapping techniques on field dependent (FD) and field independent (FI) EFL learners’ vocabulary achievement. To this end, 66 EFL learners at the third grade of high school were selected on the basis of their performance on the Key English Test (KET) and a Group Imbedded Figure Test (GEFT) to assign groups as field dependent and field independent participants. To ensure the homogeneity of the participants regarding vocabulary, prior to the study, a piloted vocabulary achievement test was given to the participants too. Both groups experienced concept mapping techniques. At the end of the course, an independent sample t-test was run between the obtained means of the two groups on a piloted researcher-made post-test on vocabulary achievement to determine whether there was any significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the post-test. The results revealed no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. However, by implementing concept maps techniques language learners indicated their thoughts and their way of thinking through the process of making maps to reap the reward; meaningful and systematic learning.

KEYWORDS: concept mapping, field dependent, field independent, vocabulary achievement

INTRODUCTION
Authentic communication requires EFL learners to use words both accurately and appropriately. As Boonkongsan and Intaraprasert (2014) emphasize, in English as a second language or English as a foreign language, vocabulary is the vital part of the four language skills; listening, speaking, writing and reading. New word learning includes “an ongoing elaboration of knowledge about the word and the ability to use it” (Wesche & Paribakht 2000, p. 197). According to Nation (2000) learning new words is a cumulative process in which words are set up and improved as they come together; in primary steps of learning, learning connected words is
not suitable for learners. Research reveals that there is a close relationship between personality traits and vocabulary achievement (Chang, Weng & Zakharova 2013; Rostampour & Niroomand, 2014). Reviewing the literature has indicated that field dependence (FD)/field independence (FI) is one of the most favoured and studied cognitive/learning style dimensions.

Chinien and Boutin (1993) asserted that field dependence/independence, “which constitutes an important aspect of individual differences among students regarding the way they acquire and process information, appears to hold promising potential for the design and development of effective instructional material” (p.307). On the basis of different characteristics of FD and FI persons in performing activities and tasks, it seems that considering learners’ learning styles and adjusting the teaching strategies based on individual differences among the learners is a must. Concept mapping as a teaching strategy has widely been in the review of literature in the education field (Adesope & Nesbit 2013; Chabeli 2010; Liu, Chen and Chang 2010; Maas & Leauby 2014; Nosratinia, Mirsafaee and Shakeri 2013; Novak 2010). Concept mapping is a procedure for ‘meaning making’ (Cañas, et.al. 2002) ‘meaning construction’ (Da Costa, Da Rocha and Favero 2004), and ‘knowledge construction’ (Da Rocha et.al. 2004). Stoyanov and Kommers (2006) claim that concept map is the sole mapping technique that lets “different formats of spatial organization of ideas” and as the sole mapping technique that provides learners with using “any sort of labelled idiosyncratic links” (p. 302).

It needs to be acknowledged that, to date, there are not enough studies and findings about addressing concept mapping and vocabulary achievement considering field dependence/independence learning styles.

**Vocabulary Achievement**

Harmer (1991) argued that “If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh” (p.153). Singleton (1999) asserted, to learn a foreign or second language it is important to have a ‘nitty-gritty’ of the lexicon not mastery in grammatical rules. Moreover, Bromely (2007) considers vocabulary as “a principle contributor to comprehension, fluency, and achievement” (p.528). All in all, Richards and Renandya (2002) believed that lexicon is a fundamental part for being a proficient in speaking, writing, reading and listening.

**Vocabulary Learning Strategies**

In a general view, language learning strategies could play the role as facilitators of the language learning process (Oxford 1990, & Griffiths 2008). On the other hand, according to Cameron (2001) vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) are activities that are taken to comprehend and retain lexicon.

Takač (2008) argued that vocabulary learning strategies are specific strategies that are applied in only vocabulary achievement of the second and/or foreign language. In this regard, Gu (2003) stressed VLS include strategies for ‘using’ as well as ‘knowing a word’. Moreover, using a strategy mostly indicates the way and quality of learning new vocabulary. ‘Each strategy a
A learner uses will determine to a large extent how and how well a new word is learned’ (p.4). VLS have some traits to be useful and practical.

**Concept Mapping**

Development of concept maps in 1972 was done in the course of Novak’s research program at Cornell university where he tried to understand changes in children’s knowledge especially knowledge of science (Coffey et.al. 2003; Novak & Canas, 2007). Valadares (2013) claims that Novak has made concept mapping more humanistic rather than cognitivist. Concept mapping ‘in its pure Novakian - style, is thus, a human activity – a means of modelling knowledge by humans in a form that is easily understood by other humans, not by machines’ (Canas & Carvalho, 2004). Canas and Carvalho (2004) introduced concept map as “a graphical representation of a person’s (or group of persons’) understanding of a domain” or “a knowledge representation scheme” (p.1). Chiou (2008) went further and introduced concept mapping as ‘a meta-learning strategy’ that learners apply to enhance their learning freely (p.376). According to Canas and Novak (2013), concept maps have specific characteristics that distinguish them from other knowledge representation tools; Namely, Propositional Structure. Canas and Carvalho (2004) believed that, this structure makes a distinction between concept map and other tools such as mind map and brain map. Canas and Novak (2013) introduced another feature of concept mapping; hierarchical structure: Keeping the concept maps hierarchal with a single root makes it easier for the learner to grasp how concept maps are constructed. Focus question is the other characteristic of concept maps. It is the way to describe the context for a concept map in order to solve the problem (Canas and Novak 2013). Cross-Link is the other significant characteristic of concept maps that Canas and Novak (2013) introduced it as a linkage among concepts in different parts of a concept map. Concept mapping can be used for several purposes (Plotnick 1997, p.2): to generate ideas (brainstorming); to design complex structures (long texts, hypermedia, large web sites); to communicate complex ideas; to aid learning by explicitly integrating new and old knowledge; and to assess understanding or diagnose misunderstanding. Thus, presenting invisible and indirect conceptual sentences and texts clearly is the main advantage of concept mapping leading to promotion in the process of acquiring knowledge meaningfully (Åhlberg 2013). To accelerate meaningful learning Coffey et.al (2003) pointed out that, the “process of concept mapping for educational purposes can foster the learning of well-integrated structural knowledge as opposed to the memorization of fragmentary, unintegrated facts” (p.7). Some approaches of concept map have been considered: Learner –constructed concept map (Ruiz-Primo, 2000), Expert skeleton concept map (Novak & Canas 2008), Pre-selected map, seeded map (Oliver, 2008), and collaborative concept map (Gao et.al 2007).

Concept mapping as a useful technique has been widely used in educational disciplines, for instance, teaching enhancement (Hay, Kinchin and Lygo-Baker 2008), instructional strategy (Udeani & Okafor 2012), as a way on identifying slow learners and adopting effective methods of tackling their problems. Business (Rysssel et al. 2008), nursing (All & Havens 1997; Chabeli 2010; Ghojazadeh et al. 2014; Harpaz, Balik and Ehrenfeld 2004), biology (Dhaaka 2012; Kinchin 2000; ), pharmacy communication courses (Hill 2004), as a new method of assessment (Brüssow & Wilkinson 2007; Jennings 2012; Ruiz-Palominio & Martinez-Canas 2013; Williams 2004), a strategy for promoting meaningful learning in medical education (Hoffman, Trott and
Neely 2002; Pinto & Zeitz 1997), listening comprehension (Sabbaghan & Ansarian 2013), and reading comprehension (Saeedi et al. 2013). Research has also been conducted on concept mapping which prepares the college to manage the resulting curricular materials (McDaniel, Roth and Miller 2005), and research tool (Iuli & Helldén 2004).

**Personality Traits**

There is a classification of individual differences, concepts like “level of knowledge, cognitive styles, learning styles, personality traits to list but a few” (Stoyanov & Kommers 2006, p. 303).

**Field Dependence and Field Independence**

Cognitive style refers to a different strategy each person uses for encoding, storing and presenting (Atkinson 2004). Allinson & Hayes (2012) went on further and asserted that cognitive style is as “an individual’s preferred way of gathering, processing and evaluating data” (p. 2). Considering the cognitive or learning styles suggested by authors such as Dunn and Dunn’s leaning styles (1978), Howard Gardner’s Multiple Intelligence theory (1983), Kolb’s learning styles (1985), Witkin, et.al. (1977), FD/FI cognitive style has been largely studied in literature (Chapelle & Heift 2009; Danili & Reid 2006; Davis 2006; Goode, Goddard and Pascual-Leone 2002; Holmes, Liden and Shin 2013; Hudson, Li and Matin 2006; Rittschof 2010; Thomas & McKay 2010; Tinajero et al. 2012). According to Frank and Keene (1993) ‘the construct of FD/FI refers to the stable and pervasive preference of individuals for analytical or global information processing’ (p. 14). Unlike FD person, FI one can easily distinguish a stimulus from their surroundings (Leventhal & Sisco 1996). The other difference is that FD person is more sociable than FI one, so it may have an impression on selecting different major in university and occupation too (Ford et al. 2002). In contrast to the FI people, FD ones prefer group work and follow the group instruction. Therefore, the FI learners are self-reliant while FD learners are not (Chapelle & Heift 2009).

Khodadady & Zeinali (2012) investigated the relationship between field dependence, independence learning style and the international English language testing system (IELTS) listening comprehension. They found out that FI learners outperformed in listening comprehension and their tasks and did the best in fill-in -the -gap questions, in contrast, FD learners had a good performance on multiple choice and matching tasks. In sum, in researches (Maas & Leauby 2014; Cyr & All 2009), the focus of the study was on usage and effectiveness of concept mapping in different types of educational field. However, the effect of concept mapping as an instructional strategy on FD and FI EFL learners’ vocabulary achievement has not been explored yet.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

The following research question was raised:

Is there any significant difference between the impact of concept mapping on field dependent and field independent EFL learners’ vocabulary achievement?
METHODOLOGY

Participants
A piloted KET was administered on 120 participants. Then, 90 participants whose score fell within one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. The Group Imbedded Figure Test (GEFT) was administered to classify the participants into two groups of 33 FD and FI EFL learners as well. Afterwards, a piloted researchers-made pre-treatment vocabulary achievement test was administered to ascertain that the participants did not have any familiarity to the target words taught in the treatment phase.

Instruments
To fulfill the purpose of the present study the following instruments were applied:

KET Language Proficiency Test
In order to homogenize the language proficiency of the participants, the researchers administered the Key English Test (KET), developed in 2009. the level of the exam (KET) was A2 of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). It is the first level Cambridge ESOL exam. The test composed of three parts. The total time of the exam is one hour and fifty minutes.

Two Researchers-made Tests of vocabulary achievement
A researchers-made test of vocabulary achievement was conducted in the pre-treatment phase, the test had 40 items including target words regarding the content, English vocabulary in Use. It is worth mentioning that before the administration of the test it was piloted on 40 additional participants with almost similar characteristics to the target group. In piloting stage the reliability of the test turned out to be 0.81 and 10 items known by the target group were removed and 30 items were selected for the treatment phase. After the treatment, a parallel researchers-made test was applied in the post-treatment test. Prior to the administration, the test was piloted. So 40 additional participants with almost similar characteristics to those in the study were involved in the pilot test. In the piloting stage the reliability of the test turned out to be 0.89. The time allocated for each test was 20 minutes.

The Group Imbedded Figure Test (GEFT)
To shed light into the cognitive traits of the participants in terms of field dependent (FD) and field independent (FI), The Group Imbedded Figures Test (GEFT) (Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, & Karp, 1971) was administered. Accordingly, the test was comprised of a booklet containing 25 complex geometric designs, sorted into three sections. The task consisted of finding and marking the indicated simple designs within the complex designs. The alpha coefficient of the GEFT test had been reported as 0.82. the maximum score would be 18. Those who scored above 11 were FI students and those who scored below were FD students. The time allocated for the test was 25 minutes.

Textbook
The learners’s course book was “English Vocabulary in Use” (pre-intermediate & intermediate) by Stuart Redman; Cambridge University Press (2003). The selected material from the book was applied during the treatment phase.
Procedure
To accomplish the objective of the study, a piloted KET was administered on 120 participants. Then, 90 participants whose score fell within one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. The Group Imbedded Figure Test (GEFT) was administered to classify the participants into two groups of 33 FD and FI EFL learners. Afterwards, a piloted researchers-made pre-treatment vocabulary achievement test was administered to ascertain that the participants did not have any familiarity to the target words taught in the treatment phase. Then the treatment sessions; concept mapping as an instruction tool was introduced to both experimental groups in ten 50 minute-sessions during a five-week period excluding the pre and post-test sessions. Novak and Gowin (1984)’s basic guidelines for the construction of a concept map were adopted.

Table 1: Novak and Gowin (1984)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brainstorming Phase:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Start by defining the main topic, also called the focus question. Enclose this main topic in a circle or a box.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Once the main topic is defined, the next step is to identify and make a list of the most important concepts associated with the topic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>Organization Phase:</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. Next, decide the order of those concepts, going from the most abstract concepts to the most specific ones (top to bottom). Organize those concepts in the mapping workspace in a hierarchical arrangement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linking Phase:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. The next step is the addition of links to form an initial concept map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Then relationships among the concepts are described by adding linking phrases to the map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Once this is done, cross links, which link concepts from different areas or sub-domains of the map, are identified.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>Finalizing Phase:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. For completeness, the map is reviewed to identify possible improvements or changes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the treatment phases, which included 30 words, in each session about 5 words were taught. At the very first session the researchers used an example to get the participants familiar with the concept-mapping technique. In fact, the participants practiced the guidelines of the technique (Novak and Gowin 1984) to be able to use it as their learning strategy. Figure 1 illustrates concept map example. In this example the researchers provided the participants with a concept (a noun) for example “housing”, then they drew a circle on top of the board and wrote
the concept in it and then they asked some questions for brainstorming and thinking about the concept such as: Do you live in a house or an apartment? Or talked about the rooms in each to motivate participants to take part in the activity, then different concepts or ideas from participants were received such as “house”, “apartment” “bedroom”, kitchen”, and so on, related to the concept. Next stage was the linking phase where the researchers found relationships among concepts by connecting them with labelled lines. In the last stage, the researchers and participants reviewed the map and made some changes if necessary.

From the second session the participants put to practical use Learner – Constructed concept maps by themselves according to the received and practiced guidelines. They did it in about five to ten minutes. While monitoring, the researchers kept helping if needed. The researchers checked the maps and asked some questions to ascertain whether the participants had known the meaning of the word and also the relation among the concepts. Every session before starting the new lesson, the researchers had a review of the previous sessions. The researchers asked the participants to make a sentence or a phrase with the already learned vocabulary. Then the researchers started teaching new vocabularies by providing participants with a new topic and giving some definitions of the new words. After the treatment phase, a piloted post- treatment vocabulary achievement test was administered to both experimental groups on the 11th session.

Finally, after the piloted post- treatment test, the researchers administered the questionnaire on the participants’ attitude toward concept mapping to assess their attitudes and feedback.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Key English Test (KET)

After being piloted on 40 participants with rather similar characteristics to the target group, the KET was administered to check the homogeneity of the participants in terms of their language proficiency. The reliability of the test was estimated by KR-21 formula as it is presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KET test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>KR-21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>28.65</td>
<td>8.232</td>
<td>67.772</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Then both the KET and the GEFT questionnaire, were administered. 66 participants were divided into two experimental groups of FD and FI. An independent t-test was run to compare the FD and FI groups’ means on the KET in order to prove that they were at the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study. Based on the results displayed in Table 3 it can be claimed that the FD (M = 28.54, SD = 7.46) and FI (M = 28.70, SD = 5.86) groups had almost the same means on the KET.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KET test</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FD</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28.45</td>
<td>7.463</td>
<td>1.299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FI</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28.70</td>
<td>5.860</td>
<td>1.020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, to check the normality of distribution of scores, the skewness and kurtosis ratios were calculated. The results are displayed in Table 4 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Skewness Statistic</th>
<th>Skewness Std. Error</th>
<th>Kurtosis Statistic</th>
<th>Kurtosis Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FD</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.525</td>
<td>.409</td>
<td>-1.743</td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-.361</td>
<td>.409</td>
<td>-1.803</td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the independent t-test (t (64) = .14, p = .884, r = .017 representing a weak effect size) (Table 5) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups’ mean scores on the KET. Thus it can be claimed that they were at the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study.
Table 5: Independent Sample Test, KET by main group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>2.897</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>60.593</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene’s F = 2.89, p = .094). That is why the first row of table 5, i.e. “Equal variances assumed” was reported.

**Vocabulary Achievement Test**

The next step was to pilot the researchers-made vocabulary pre-treatment test on the pilot group in order to calculate the reliability of the test. As shown in table 6 the reliability of the test on piloting stage was 0.81.

Table 6: descriptive statistics of vocabulary pre-treatment test in piloting stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>KR-21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Test</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>17.90</td>
<td>5.523</td>
<td>30.507</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Post-Test**

After applying concept mapping techniques through the treatment phase in the two groups of FD and FI, a formerly piloted vocabulary test parallel with the pre-treatment vocabulary test; was given to the participants of the two groups as a post-treatment test. In the piloting stage the reliability of the test was estimated 0.89. Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics and the reliability of the post-treatment test in the piloting stage.

Table 7: Descriptive statistics of the post-treatment test in piloting stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>KR-21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Test</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>23.10</td>
<td>9.535</td>
<td>90.921</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the administration of the test, an independent t-test was run to compare the FD and FI participants’ means on the vocabulary in order to probe the research question posed in this study. Based on the results displayed in table 8 it can be claimed that the FI participants’ (M = 25.36, SD = 5.81) had a higher mean on the vocabulary test than the FD group (M = 22.18, SD = 7.34).

Table 8: Descriptive statistics of the post-treatment test in main groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Test</td>
<td>FI</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22.18</td>
<td>7.342</td>
<td>1.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FD</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25.36</td>
<td>5.814</td>
<td>1.012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Also to check the normality of the distribution of scores, the skewness and kurtosis ratios were calculated. The results are displayed in table 9 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Std.Error</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>Std.Error</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FD</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-0.324</td>
<td>0.409</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>-0.169</td>
<td>0.798</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-0.645</td>
<td>0.409</td>
<td>-1.58</td>
<td>0.896</td>
<td>0.798</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the independent t-test (t (64) = 1.95, p = .054, r = .23 representing a weak effect size) (table 10) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups’ mean scores on the vocabulary test. Thus the null-hypothesis was supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>T</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>2.369</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>1.952</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>3.182</td>
<td>1.630</td>
<td>-.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>1.952</td>
<td>60.806</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>3.182</td>
<td>1.630</td>
<td>-.078</td>
<td>6.442</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met (Levene’s F = 2.36, p = .129). That is why the second row of table 10, i.e. “Equal variances not assumed” was reported.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

According to the findings of the study it has been ascertained that implementing concept map techniques in two groups of FD and FI EFL learners’ vocabulary development had no significantly different effect. However, the comparison of the means of experimental groups in the post and pre-treatment phases of the study indicated that concept-mapping has been effective in improving vocabulary achievement of the participants. This outcome is consistent with the findings of Chang Chiou (2008). In this study, the researcher examined the impact of concept mapping as a strategy on university students’, enrolled in an advanced accounting course, learning achievement and interests. In this study students were divided into two groups of experimental and control group. Concept mapping was implemented in treatment group and traditional expository teaching method in control group. The results showed that concept mapping as a meaningful learning strategy enhanced learning achievement in treatment group and outperformed their counterparts. Chiou found out that the majority of learners in treatment group were pleased using concept mapping as an assistive learning strategy. Moreover, Tabatabaei and Khalili (2014) investigated the effect of concept mapping on Iranian pre-
intermediate L2 reading comprehension. The 30 participants took part in the English language classes. They completed two thirty-minutes reading comprehension tests as the pre-test and the post-test. After the treatment phase the results of Wilcoxon Sign Rank test revealed that the participants in concept mapping group outperformed in post-test than in pre-test administration.

Using and implementing concept map as a meaningful learning tool in the classroom, students are able to represent their way of thinking and learning meaningfully through linking their prior knowledge with the existing ones, and constructing their new knowledge linking to their long term memory. By using concept map techniques students can link concepts and ideas meaningfully and also act autonomously in the learning process too. Furthermore, students are able to interact with each other by comparing their maps; sharing their ideas through visual representation of ideas and concepts too.

In addition, concept mapping technique can be implemented as a self-assessment tool. While constructing a map students link concepts and ideas meaningfully, they can observe and analyze their thinking process and monitor making a map. Teachers can assess students’ learning process by comparing their works before and after implementation of concept mapping techniques. Different learning settings can be provided with students implementing concept map techniques such as; collaborative construction of concept maps, or as an individual construction of concept maps as well.

Moreover, using concept map techniques in curriculum design of text books can be applied by material developers implementing and recommending different types of concept map techniques and strategies for vocabulary development of variety of not only specific vocabulary books but also four-skilled course books.

In the present study, in spite of the positive effect of concept mapping techniques on vocabulary achievement it seems that applying concept maps on two groups of FD and FI had no significant comparative effect and both groups had the benefit of implementing of concept mapping techniques in treatment phase.

**Suggestions for further research**

According to the findings of the present study the following suggestions are recommended for further studies:

a) In this study the participants ranging between 16 to 17 years as teenagers, further research can be carried out using concept maps on adult groups.

b) In this study due to the existing prohibitions against coeducation in the language school the participants were only female students. Future research can be conducted applying concept map techniques on male students too.

c) In this study only hand-made concept maps were applied while there is another type of concept map; computer-assisted concept map which may be time saving, so future study can be investigated using computer-assisted concept map that may or may not have different results.
d) The focus of the present study was on the effect of concept map techniques on EFL learners’ vocabulary achievement. So another study can be done on other skills such as writing, speaking, reading or listening.

e) The subjects of this study were two groups of field dependent and field independent as cognitive style, the future research can take into consideration other types of cognitive styles.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF ORAL AND WRITTEN SUMMARIES OF SHORT STORIES ON LEARNING TRANSITION MARKERS AMONG EFL LEARNERS: THE CASE OF WRITING ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY

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ABSTRACT
The present study was an attempt to investigate the effect of oral and written summaries of short stories on learning transition markers (TMs) in writing argumentative essays among English as foreign language (EFL) learners. To this end, 90 economic students were selected among 120 learners who enrolled in EGP courses through a homogeneity test. Then, the participants were randomly divided into two experimental groups called oral and written and a control group. Three groups were asked to write an argumentative essay on the given topics as a pre-test at the beginning of the treatment period. Oral group received the treatment on reading the story and do the exercises. Then they were asked to retell the story summary in the classroom orally. The written group did the same but the presentation of the activity was in the summary of the written form. The control group received regular classroom in reading comprehension such as reading short stories, working on vocabularies and answering the reading comprehension questions. The short stories included transition markers which were implicitly taught among all the three groups. The materials and time allocated to all groups were similar. After ten sessions of the treatment, the three groups were asked to write a post-test argumentative essay on one of the given topics to evaluate students' writing argumentative essays while the scores noticed their uses of transition markers in their writing in order to investigate if there was any significant difference among the three groups. Results showed that the written group who wrote summaries of short stories used transitions in their writing effectively more than the other groups. In effect, conducting ANCOVA test analysis led to significant difference between oral and written group on using transition markers in writing argumentative essays. This study may help EFL teachers to teach TMs more effectively through written tasks.

KEYWORDS: Oral and Written Summaries, Short Stories, TMs, Argumentative Essays
INTRODUCTION

Writing, among other language skills, is the most difficult skill for teaching and learning. According to Lindsay and Knight (2007) writing is the process of combing letters in a particular order to form words, phrases, clauses, and sentences and put sentences together to make a coherent text. Kamari (2012) classified writing as narrative, expository, descriptive, persuasive and argumentative. The focus of this study is on argumentative writing.

Wu (2012) considers the argumentative essay is the most common genre that undergraduate students have to write. According to Wood (2001), argumentative essay it’s a kind of writing that writers states a claim by evidence in order to convince the audience.

Most teachers in English class focus on grammar rather than structure of essays in their teaching writing. Actually, writing is not considered as a communication in learning and teaching process. So there are many sentences that are not easy to understand. A common problem in their writing is that there are no logical relations between sentences. There are different ways to solve this problem such as using Transition Markers.

Transitions as one of the most used interactional meta-discourse are used to arrange propositions in the text and involve the reader (Burneikaite, 2009). According to (Parrot, 2004), transitions are words and phrases which indicate relationships and sequences as "textual discourse and markers" and their main functions and numbering and ordering points, adding something, linking similar things together, generalizing, exemplifying and narrowing down, re-stating and rounding off. Bikeline (2008) said that using of connectors is one of the ways of ensure cohesion. By connectors, the listeners or the reader can connect units together and make sense of the text (Altenbuerg & Tapper, 1998, p.80). Short story and literature as a whole expand language awareness. Custodio and Sutton (1998, p.20) explained that short stories as genre of literature can open horizons of possibility, allowing students to question, interpret, connect and explore. With short stories, instructors can teach literacy, cultural, and higher –order thing aspects (Erkaya, 2005). A story can provide an authentic context for presenting grammar and holds and focuses students' attention in a way that no other techniques can (Soleimani & Khandan, 2013).

Many EFL learners have writing difficulty. Most of students are unable to write a connected essay after graduation from universities while they can read well. In Iran, most of students do not have a lot of opportunities to practice writing just in the writing class and just English major students are requested to take English writing classes. In this study, the researcher attempts to consider the effect of oral and written summaries of short stories for effective awareness of TMs in writing argumentative essays.

Although several works (e.g. Bahrami, 2012; Tavanapour & Gorjian, 2014) have been done about TMs but very few studies have been conducted to investigate the role of oral and written summaries of short stories on learning TMs in writing argumentative essay among EFL learners.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Chen (2009) investigated the effect of story summarizing on English writing class. In this study, students took an English writing class for the first time before entering college. The students were asked to summarize a story when they were accustomed to composing their writing in English. The researcher understood that writing a complete composition is difficult for beginner writers. Therefore, instead of creating brand writing, the author gave her students a short story and then reproduced it using their own words. After, two semesters practicing, most students made great progress on their writing composition. At the end of the second semester, students were given open-ended questioners to understand their perspective of story summarizing in writing class. Among 21 students, one of them had negative attitude and others had positive attitude toward story summarizing that had positive effect on English writing.

Abo Skhela (2010) conducted a study at Gaza Middle Governorate in order to find whether using storytelling techniques enhance listening comprehension. This study consisted of 74 female students. They were divided into two groups; experimental and control group. In experimental class, instruction was by storytelling, while in control group, traditional method was used. Eight stories, which represent the proposed program, were used to measure the four sub-skills; predicting, telling the main idea, recognizing characters and summarizing the events. The pre-test and post-test were used as instrumentations to collect data. The results showed that there were significant differences in the listening comprehension due to storytelling techniques. Therefore, storytelling can be used as a technique to enhance listening comprehension sub-skills.

Ghasemi and Hajizadeh (2011) studied the effect of teaching L2 reading comprehension through story. They proposed that short story can provide EFL learner a suitable study resource which is both delightful and instructive to improve their linguistic proficiency and reading comprehension. They concluded that the exposure of students to literature as EFL material can ensure that they enjoy, understand and appreciate a life like material while they are improving their linguistic proficiency.

Mubarak Pathan (2012) examined the advantages of using short stories in ELT class and Libyan EFL learners’ attitude towards them for improving reading comprehension skills. 50 students participated in this study as participants. These students were given questionnaires to find out their perceptions towards reading comprehension, the kind of material used for reading comprehension and their perceptions towards short stories. After collecting data about their perceptions, the researcher taught reading comprehension by short stories for three months. After that, the participants were offered another questionnaire to find out their attitude towards teaching reading comprehension by short stories. From the investigation, it was observed that the Libyan EFL learners have positive attitudes towards use of short stories. Also, it showed that if short stories were selected appropriately, not only they can develop reading comprehension but also socio-cultural, moral and other personal traits of Libyan EFL learners.

Another study was conducted by Kharaghani (2013) on the effect of short stories on reading comprehension. It was conducted in Azad University of Mashhad. It was done with help of 100 students. They were divided into two groups of fifty students. One group was instructed by
reading-based textbook, while the other group by short stories as the texts to be covered in their classrooms during the course. At the end of course, a reading comprehension text was given to the students that included of both reading passage similar to the pre-university textbook and pieces of short stories. Also, it was followed by a questionnaire which administered to the participants to tape their personal feelings toward these two types of text. Results showed that the group which received short stories as reading text outperformed the other group.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

Is there any difference between oral and written summaries of short stories in developing writing argumentative essay?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The participants in this study were 120 learners who enrolled in English General Purposes (EGP) at Abadan Azad University. All participants were the sophomore of economic students. The homogeneity test developed by Richards, Lesley, Hansen, Sandy and Zukowski (2008), i.e. "Interchange passages placement and evaluation package" administered to 120 students to indicate their homogeneity level. Then 90 students whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as the participants of this study. Ages of them were about 20 to 30 and they included both males and females. The participants were randomly divided into three groups: Two experimental groups called oral and written and a control group. Each group included 30 students.

**Instrumentation**

In this study several instruments were used in the process of the development. First, the participants were taken a homogenous test in order to determine their homogeneity of the groups at the intermediate level based on "Interchange passages placement and evaluation package" extracted from (Richards et al, 2008). There were 50 multiple-choice items of grammar in the test. Its reliability was computed through KR-21 to make sure of the sample homogeneity. The second instrument was pre-test which measured the students' argumentative essay before the treatment. The test included two topics. Each of the students was asked to choose one of the topics and write an argumentative essay which included at least 150 words. The third instrument was a post-test to see if there was any improvement in learners' argumentative writing ability after treatment. It included two topics. And each of the students was also asked to choose one of the topics and write an argumentative essay which included at least 150 words. Therefore, students progress in argumentative writing was evaluated according to the proper use of transitions in their argumentative writing. The total score of the pre-test and post-test was 20. The essays were scored by two raters. They scored the pre-test and post-test by using the checklist extracted from Rassouli and Abbasvandi (2013). And, inter-rater reliability of the pre-test and post-test of essay type tests were computed through Pearson correlation coefficient.
Materials
In this study material that was used for three groups consisted of short stories from Step to Understanding (Hill, 2004). This book included four levels: introductory, elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels. Short stories for this study were from Intermediate level. Each unit in addition to short story included some exercises for checking learners understanding on each short story.

Procedure
120 male and female economic students who studied English for General Purposes at Abadan Azad University were selected for this study. The subjects were taken a test in order to determine their homogeneity regarding their levels of proficiency at the intermediate level based on "Interchange passages placement and evaluation packages" from Richards (2008). Students whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected and they were divided into two experimental groups of oral and written and a control group.

After homogeneity test, a pre-test of essay writing was administered to show learners knowledge of using TMs in their writing. They were assigned to write an argumentative essay included at least 150 words in their essay. The course was about 12 sessions; the first and last sessions were administered the pre-test and post-test. Each session was about 60 minutes. The teacher taught a short story from Steps to Understanding (Hill, 2004). Oral group after reading the story and doing exercises they were asked to retell the story summary in the classroom orally. The written group received the treatment the same as oral group but the presentation of the activity was in the summary of the written form. The control group received regular classroom in reading comprehension such as reading the text, working on vocabularies and answering the reading comprehension. The participants of control group were not asked to make a summary of short story. Each short story included some transition markers which were implicitly taught among all the groups. After ten sessions, all groups were asked to write an argumentative essay as a post-test to evaluate student’s writing argumentative essays through the using of transition markers in their writing in order to investigate if there was any significant difference among the three groups. Therefore, the students' argumentative essays were evaluated in terms of the proper use of TMs in their writing. Two raters read the student’s essays and then score them by using the checklist extracted from Rassouli and Abbasvandi (2013) in order to account for inter-rater reliability. In other word, each participant was scored two times. The average of their scores to each essay was considered as the final score for each participant's essay. All of the scores were listed and analyzed through the descriptive and inferential statistics.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
To answer the research question of the study, the researchers had to compare the written group (WG), spoken group (SG), and control group (CG), for which a one-way ANOVA could be used. However, to control for any possible differences between the WG, SG, and CG learners prior to the commencement of the intervention, one-way ANCOVA was conducted. This way the researchers could control for any possible differences between the three groups on the pretest and then compare their posttest scores. The results of the ANCOVA test are presented below:
Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the Posttest Scores of the WG, SG, and CG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WG</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.85</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.70</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.31</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Such descriptive statistics as mean and standard deviation are shown for the three groups of learners in Table 1. The posttest mean score of the WG ($M = 17.85$) was the highest mean score out there, with the posttest mean score of the CG ($M = 13.31$) being the lowest mean score, and the SG learners’ mean score in between ($M = 15.70$). To find out whether the differences among the three groups of learners were of statistical significance or not, the researchers needed to look down the Sig (2-tailed) column across the row in which Groups is placed in the ANCOVA table below:

Table 2: Results of One-Way ANCOVA for Comparing Posttest Scores of the WG, SG, and CG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>308.63</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>102.87</td>
<td>75.93</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>266.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>266.50</td>
<td>196.70</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>278.99</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>139.49</td>
<td>102.96</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>116.51</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22390.00</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>425.15</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2, if you find Groups in the leftmost column and read across this row, under Sig. column, you can find the $p$ value, which should be compared against the significance level. The $p$ value here was smaller than the specified level of significance (.000 < .05), indicating that being in different groups did affect the posttest scores of the WG, SG, and CG learners. Under Partial Eta Squared, the relevant value was .70, which shows that being in different groups accounted for 70% of the variance in the posttest scores of the learners in the three groups. The exact location of the differences among the three groups is shown in the post hoc test table below:

Table 3: Post Hoc Test Results for Comparing the Posttest Scores of the WG, SG, and CG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>2.13*</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>-2.13*</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>-4.50</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-5.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WG</td>
<td>-2.37*</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the pair-wise comparisons of the three groups of learners. The difference between the WG learners ($M = 17.85$) and SG learners ($M = 15.70$) was statistically significant ($p = .000 < .05$), and so was the difference between the WG and CG ($M = 13.31$). Additionally, the
difference between SG and CG reached statistical significance. The differences among the three groups of learners are also displayed in Figure 1 below:

![Figure 1: The Posttest Mean Scores of the WG, SG, and CG Learners](image)

As it could be seen in Figure 1, on the posttest, the WG learners significantly outperformed the SG learners, who in turn excelled those in the CG significantly.

**Discussion**

This section of study presents a discussion on obtained results to answer the question. The research question and its answer are as follows:

Is there any difference between oral and written summaries of short stories in developing writing argumentative essay?

After analyzing data, the results showed that there was a significant difference among student’s writing in the posttest. According to table 2, the result of the posttest showed that all groups were not homogenous at the end of the treatment period. Thus there was a difference among the three groups. To know how significant this change was and how difference they behaved in learning TMs in writing argumentative essays, table 3, is useful. In this table, two experimental groups and the control group compared with each other. There was a significant difference between oral and written summaries of short stories in learning TMs and using them in writing argumentative essays. Therefore, the research null hypothesis was rejected. The group of written summaries of short stories outperformed than the oral and control groups. As it is observable, writing summaries of short stories was beneficial for learning TMs in argumentative essays because written group was significantly different from oral and control groups. Also, oral summaries were useful but not as much as written summaries because they performed summaries of short stories orally and they did not have any writing activity. This finding is agree with Hidi and Anderson (1986) that stated that “writing a summary is very special activity in that quality of production depends not only on one’s ability to write but also in the extent to which the original material to be summarized is comprehended” (p. 475). Also, this agrees with Kamil’s
SUMMARIZATION is an effective learning strategy that can help students to construct and retain a succinct summary of important propositions from text (Pakzadian, 2012). Meyers (2006, p.231) states that summarizing is an important professional skill and it is often assigned in college’s composition course and it play important role in essay examination. What obtained in this study is in contrast with Feng (2010) who reported impact of instruction of discourse connectives on success in language writing.

CONCLUSION
In this study, the researcher employed oral and written summaries of short stories but participants in the control group were not asked to tell summary and teacher taught TMs during answering reading comprehension questions. After the post test, the results indicated that written and oral summaries have different effect on learning transition markers in argumentative essays. Both of them beneficial for learning TMs in argumentative essays but written group outperform than oral group. One possible reason can be due to the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) because speaking in front of other learners may raise stress, anxiety, making mistakes and shyness. Also another factor might be due to number of the students and time limitation. As it was mentioned, every group included 30 students and it took a lot of time to ask every student to tell the summary orally. Therefore, the conclusions can be made are written summaries of short stories should be more highly emphasized than oral summaries and teaching TMs traditionally where using TMs in argumentative essays is the focus of the study.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study is to identify the types of compliment’s topic and the responses based on the gender. It also explores about the analysis of compliment on the uploaded photos in the social media: facebook. A qualitative research was conducted in this study. To analyse the data, the qualitative content analysis was used in this study. The sources are 3 females photos and 3 males photos in the social media “facebook” which were chosen randomly and should be consist of more than one compliment. The researcher analysed the data by taking the screenshot of the uploaded photos then categorizing the topics and each responses based on the gender. The biggest total of compliment topic is the appearance which are done by female-female, female-male, male-male, and male-female. The total is 22 compliment. For the equal status, the female-female give the highest proportion on the appearance topics. Ten compliments for female-female and six compliments for male-male. While for the unequal status both female-male or male-female gave the same proportion on appearance topics. For the responses, the complimentee usually did the acceptance which its total is 13. The complimentee did 5 appreciation responses and 8 agreement responses. For the rejection, the complimentee did 6 denial and 2 idiomatic rejection. Finally, this study discusses the implications of these findings for cross-cultural communication, and suggest the incorporation of semantics into foreign and second language teaching.

KEYWORD: compliment, responses, screenshot, gender, social media, facebook, uploaded-photo, complimentee.

INTRODUCTION
The ways of the gender’s communication have been observed by the researchers in the last decade. Their communication sometimes goes to the pragmatics meaning. What the people say have another meaning from what they want to mean in fact. This is also happened in giving the compliment to their peers, their family and their colleague. Holmes argued a compliment is “a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker,
usually the person addressed, for some ‘good’ (possession, characteristic, skill, etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer” (1988: 446). But Brown and Levinson (1987) make reference to compliments as positive politeness strategies which are directed at (1) approving of the hearer’s appearance, personality, possessions and needs as well as at (2) his or her desire of being treated as a member of a group rather than as a single individual.

In giving compliments, there are some the important functions. Manes and Wolfson (1980: 124) stated that the most important function of compliments is to establish, reinforce and maintain solidarity and social rapport, as well as to ensure that the interaction proceeds smoothly between the speaker and the addressee. Holmes (1988: 447) holds a similar view and proposes that compliments function as “social lubricates” which “increase or consolidate the solidarity” between the interlocutors. She, however, proposes two additional functions of compliment exchanges: compliments can serve as politeness strategies (pre-sequences) before face threatening acts, what is more, compliments themselves may even function as face threatening acts, for instance, as signs of the complimenter’s jealousy with regard to the complimentee’s possessions. In general, compliments are found to be multifunctional speech acts and the following summary from Holmes (1995) lists their functions as identified by different analysis: (1) to express solidarity (2) to express positive evaluation, admiration, appreciation or praise (3) to express envy or desire for hearer’s possessions (4) as verbal harassment. This illustrates the possible negative functions of compliments and the fact that they might also convey a hint of sarcasm or insult that results in the interlocutor’s loss of face. Wolfson (1983) points out that compliments are also used as conversation starters and, in particular contexts, they can strengthen or weaken other speech acts such as criticism, apologies, greetings and the expression of gratitude. It is a played-out result of a reciprocal negotiation between the speaker’s illocution and the addressee’s perlocution — and the consequent reaction of the addressee (by means of a compliment response, or, in face to face communication, by a gesture, or, less frequently, by a communicative silence) (Válková:2013). The aim of complimenting is to attribute something praiseworthy to the addressee(s) so that they can experience being liked and appreciated.

Gender has the variation way in giving compliment’s topic. The Taylor studies (2006) found that males give the female a higher proportion on appearance than skills and female did opposite; giving males a higher proportion on skills than appearance. The other aspect of the topics are about the possessions and the personality. In contrast, Sun’s (2002) found that both women and men compliment more frequently on performance than on appearance. In Holmes’ New Zealand data, compliments between status unequals are more likely to relate to ability/performance (54%) rather than appearance (27%); while, between status equals, compliments on appearance (57%) are much more common than on ability/performance (25%) (Holmes, 1988). From the result shown, the gender influence the topics of compliment.

When complementing, the parts of compliment that complementer say and the response of the complementees is usually different. In the complimenter’s part, attention getters can be greetings, forms of address, or combinations of both. The compliment base consists of two parts, i.e. the object of complimenting (either explicitor contextretrievable; either referring to a simple, concrete item, as in thisblouse, or to a whole event, as in the way you dress) and an evaluative
standpoint. A request is an optional addition of details about the object of the compliment, often used to reinforce the explicatory force of the compliment proper, or, in the case of insincere compliments, to pretend deep interest on the part of the complimenter in the object of the compliment.

In general, Pomerantz (1978) proposes the following two conditions that is used to respond the complement: (1.) agree with the speaker(2) avoid self-praise. But according to Válková (2013), compliment responses can be divided into three broad categories according to the strategies applied: accept, reject and deflect/evade. In acceptance complement’s response, there are two kinds of responses. They are appreciation (e.g. thank you) and agreement (e.g. I like it too). In rejection, there are Denial (e.g., No, I didn’t do it well) and Idiomatic rejection (an idiomatic phrase that is routinely used to refuse a compliment) (e.g. ‘you praise me too much’. The last is deflect/evade which are explanatory comment (e.g., A friend gave it to me) and switch of focus (e.g., Have some more since you like it). The responses also can be classified into two ways, verbal and non verbal. In the communication, the non verbal ways can be shown as a smile and a nod (Herbert, 1989). The complementee also shows the response by ignoring it (silence).

Facebook has been regarded as “the world’s most frequently visited website” claiming over 1.4 billion active users globally as of April 2015 (Facebook statistics, 2015). Many people use Facebook to communicate each other both male and female especially in giving and responding the compliments about theirs. Furthermore this study is aimed to identify the topics of compliment expression and the responses in social media “Facebook” based on the gender.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. Yule (2008:100) stated that “Linguistic semantics deals with the conventional meaning conveyed by the use words, phrases, and sentences of a language”. It is fact that meaning is a part of language, but this definition has not been clearly delineated and given treatment in the study of language until very recently. “Linguists have contributed primary to the study of the core meaning or the sense of individual words” (Ahmadin, 2008:19).

According to the story of semantics, meanings are ideas or concepts that are able to be transferred from the speaker's mind to the hearer's mind by embodying them, as it were, in the forms of one language or another. There are three main ways in which linguists and philosophers have attempted to construct explanations of meaning in natural language:

1. By defining the nature of word meaning. It describes that the word meaning is taken as the construct in terms of which sentence meaning and communication can be explained;
2. By defining the nature of sentence meaning. It is a sentence meaning which is taken as basic with words characterized in terms of systematic contribution they make to sentence meaning;
3. By explaining the process of communication. It means that both sentence and word meaning are explained in terms of the ways in which sentence and words are used in the act of communication (Kempson, 1977: 11).

Compliment

Giving Compliment

One sometimes like to see how do another people look like, what do they like to do, and what do they have. She/ he show their solidarity by showing their attention to them. The attention is like giving them a compliment. Compliment are used to negotiate with an addressee in order to make people feel good (Herbert, 1986). When one is giving a compliment to someone, it means that she/ he is valuing what they look at them. Holmes (1995: 117) states that a compliment is a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed fo some ‘good’ (possesion, characteritic, skill, etc) which is positively valued by the speaker or the hearer. While Sun (2002) stated that the majority of compliment focus on a few broad topics: appearance, ability, possessions, aspects of personality and performance.

Valcova (2013) said that a compliment is a played-out result of a reciprocal negotiation between the speaker's illocution and the addressee’s perlocution and it is the consequent reaction of the addressee (by means of a compliment response, or, in face to face communication, by a gesture, or, less frequently, by a communicative silence). Even though its function is to build the solidarity between the complimenter and the complimentee mainly, but in some context, but in some context compliments serve as praise and encouragement. Herbert (1990) argues that instead of offering solidarity, compliments are likely to reflect the relationship between the complimenter and the complimentee, because praise is often directed towards the subordinate or less powerful participant. Holmes (1995) classify the functions of the compliment into several functions:

1. to express solidarity
2. to express positive evaluation, admiration, appreciation or praise
3. to express envy or desire for hearer's possessions
4. as verbal harassment.

Responding the Compliment

People are different in responding the compliment given. Sun (2013) stated that responding to compliments appropriately is equally important in maintaining rapport or positive face of both the speaker and the addressee. A response is an expected reaction (further specification) of the complimentee by which the speech act set of complimenting is completed, either simply, by confirming the acceptance of the compliment that has been offered (Thank you), or by diminishing the appraised quality of the object itself (This old thing, I got it at a bargain basement sale!), or in a less polite way, by rejecting the compliment (Valcova, 2013). He also divided the compliment responses in general into three broad categories according to the strategies applied:

1. accept
2. reject
3. deflect/evade
Spencer-Oatey and Ng’s (2002) modified this simple classification and added several sub-categories. The categories and the sub-categories are:

**Acceptance**
- a. Appreciation; e.g., Thanks
- b. Agreement; e.g., I like it, too

**Rejection/Non-acceptance**
- a. Denial; e.g., No, I didn’t do it well
- b. Idiomatic rejection (an idiomatic phrase that is routinely used to refuse a compliment); e.g., you praise me too much.

**Self-praise Avoidance/Acceptance with Amendment**
- a. Explanatory comment; e.g., A friend gave it to me.
- b. Switch of focus; e.g., Have some more since you like it.

In responding the compliment, either accepting or rejecting, sometimes the complimentee respond in different ways. Some of the people usually respond by ignoring (i.e silence) and by non-verbal reaction (i.e smile, nod) (Bielewicz-Kunc, 2010). But the complimentee must be careful in responding the the compliment because can hurt someone who gives the compliment. Brown and Levinson’s (1987) said that failing to do so may ‘hurt the speaker’s face’ and hence, compliment responses can be seen as potential FTAs.

**Gender and Compliment**

Gender can not be seperated from communication in human life. How do gender both males and female talk and express their thought through language are interested to discuss. They sometimes like to give the positive comment, like to criticize, like to judge, and like to suggest each other in the form of compliment. Both male and female are easy to value what they look at. The notion of gender differences in complimenting behavior has received much attention (Herbert, 1990). For English, it has been reported that women receive more compliments. And it is specifically the case that compliments between women are the most frequent, followed by compliments given by men to women (Holmes 1995: 122–123). In general, compliments between English speaking men are said to be rare, and it has been concluded that mensimply compliment less. For English, it has also been claimed that men compliment on different topics than do women and that men receive different compliments than women (Holmes 1995: 131).

**Social Media: (Facebook)**

Social media is the ultimate phenomenon in human interaction practices. Modern society worldwide have been powerfully moved into the digital era for mass communication on social media. Social media is Internet-based applications that function on “the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0” which enable user-generated content to be created and exchanged (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010).

Facebook is involved into the social media net. Among scholars, Facebook is popularly known as a platform that offers endless opportunity for individuals to engage in self-presentation and impression management (SPIM) acts. Impression management through images entails the uploading of photos, videos or audio and the changing of profile photos. Managing impression...
through texts includes creating profile with details of the user, updating status with information that gives a glimpse into the users’ mind, and engaging in conversations on wall posts. Other linguistic markers such as speech acts have also been investigated to see its relation to the presentation of self in social media. Carr et al. (2012) found that expressive followed by assertive speech acts have been used most commonly in Facebook status messages. Ilyas and Khushi (2012) similarly illustrated that Facebook status updates were mostly constructed with expressive, assertive and directive speech acts. In a study by Appling et al. (2013), the use of speech acts in Facebook status updates could actually determine personality traits of writers. The relationship between status updates and the general being of Facebook users were also observed in the use of positive and negative words in messages (Kramer, 2010).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. What are types of compliment’s topic used by male and female users?
2. How do male and female users respond to the compliments?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
This study is a qualitative research. When analysing the data, the researcher used qualitative content analysis. A total of 6 uploaded photos (3 males’ photos and 3 females’ photos) were retrieved from the Facebook walls from different ages and time. The participants were Facebook users whose walls were conveniently accessible to the researcher. The data were recruited within the researcher’s own networks and the networks of friends which consist of more than one compliment. When analysing the data the researcher is interested to take the Sun’s theory (2002). He stated that the compliment is categorised into some topics; appearance, ability, possessions, aspects of personality and performance. While for the responds, she analysed based on Spencer-Oatey and Ng’s theory (2002) that divided the responses based on the categories and sub-categories: (1) Acceptance (Appreciation and Agreement); (2) Rejection/Non-acceptance (Denial and Idiomatic rejection (an idiomatic phrase that is routinely used to refuse a compliment); (3) Self-praise Avoidance/Acceptance with Amendment (Explanatory comment and Switch of focus). The captured pictures and the captured comments were saved as the documentation of this study.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
Result
Based on the observation, the findings are drawn as following:

A. The complimenter’s utterances are analyzed based on the gender’s compliment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Female-Female</th>
<th>Female-Male</th>
<th>Male-Male</th>
<th>Male-Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills/Ability</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality/Performance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the table, when giving a compliment on the photo, the biggest total of compliment topic is the appearance which are done by female-female, female-male, male-male, and male female. The total is 22 compliment. The result is 10 compliment for female-female and 6 compliment for male-male. The female-female give the highest number on the appearance topic. And for the fewest result is on skill/ability topics. While possession and the performance give the same result.

### B. The Parts of complimentee’s responses on the compliments expression.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Photos</th>
<th>Acceptance</th>
<th>Rejection</th>
<th>Self-praise Acceptance with Amendment</th>
<th>Avoidance/ Switch of focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Photo 1 (female)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo 2 (Female)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (Acceptance with Amendment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo 3 (Female)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo 4 (Female)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 (Self-praise avoidance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo 5 (Male)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo 6 (Male)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Self-praise Avoidance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo 7 (Male)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo 8 (Male)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In responding the compliment of the photo, the complimentee usually did the acceptance. The total of the acceptance is 13. The complimentee did 5 appreciation responses and 8 agreement responses. For the rejection, the complimentee did 6 denial and 2 idiomatic rejection. The last categories of the responseis self-praise avoidance/ acceptance with amendment. The total of the last categories is 5. The sub-categories of the self-praise avoidance/ acceptance with amendment is 1 explanatory comment, 1 self-praise avoidance and 2 switch of focus. All of the switch of focus response is the self-praise avoidance.

### Discussion

This study aims to identify the topic of the compliments based on the gender and the response of the complimentee on the photo that is uploaded by the Facebook user. Based on the findings, the gender gave the different numbers of the topics. The previous data based on the Parisi and
Wogan’s study (2006) showed that the majority topic is dominated by the skill topic. The data shown that 66.67% compliment topics is on the skill topic. Then the females received a significantly higher proportion of compliments on appearance from males than males received from females: 60.53% of all compliment given by males to females concerned personal appearance, whereas only 29.27% of the compliments from females to males concerned appearance. In Holmes’ New Zealand data, compliments between status unequals are more likely to relate to ability/performance (54%) rather than appearance (27%); while, between status equals, compliments on appearance (57%) are much more common than on ability/performance (25%) (Holmes, 1988). As the comparison, in this study, the appearance topic is dominantly used whether it is complimented by equal status, female-female or male-male. But in this study, for the unequal status, female-male or male-female also gave the high proportion on appearance which has the same number. Shortly, for whole the total, the appearance topic is the biggest number. This is happened because in the Photo 5 (male’s photo), the complimentee ignored the complimenter by not responding it. Another reason may be influenced by the cultural bias and the educational background. Indonesia people like much more complimenting on the appearance than the people’s skill or the people’s performance. They also like to compliment the equal status because they do not want to be known as a flirtatious person.

In the total of the compliment’s responses, this study tends to use the acceptance as the responses. The agreement take higher proportion than the appreciation. From the data shown above, the Facebook user who are Indonesia people are rare to give an appreciation. This may be caused by the culture bias. They also have a high self-confidence especially the female. For the gender who used the appreciation response usually the people who have a higher status.

CONCLUSION
The study shows that gender did not give the difference in complimenting someone on the people’s appearance. The main problem may be the culture which gives a big influence on the people’s compliment. Indonesia people like to compliment on what they have looked good. In responding the compliments, the agreement is much more usually done by the complimentee rather than appreciate what the complimenter said to them. By showing the agreement responses, it proofs that the complimentees have a high self-confidence. Not only the gender and the culture, but also the level status determine how is the response used by the complementee.

Limitation of the Study
This study potentially focused on analysing the types of compliment’s topic and the responses based on the gender of uploaded photos in the social media, Facebook. In order to see the responses, the comments of the photos should be consisted of more than one compliment. The data were analysed through the Sun’s theory (2002) who stated that the compliment topics are categorized into appearance, ability, possessions, aspects of personality and performance. While the responses are divided based on the categories and sub-categories: (1) Acceptance (Appreciation and Agreement); (2) Rejection/Non-acceptance (Denial and Idiomatic rejection (an idiomatic phrase that is routinely used to refuse a compliment); (3) Self-praise Avoidance/Acceptance with Amendment (Explanatory comment and Switch of focus) (Spencer-Oatey and
Ng’s’ theory, 2002). The sources of the data were 3 females photos and 3 males photos which were chosen randomly.

REFERENCES
Herbert, R.K .(1986). Say “thank you”- or something. American Speech,61,76-88
APPENDICES OF FEMALES PHOTOS

1. PHOTO 1

The compliment is appearance, it is complimented by a woman

The responses are acceptance ; Agreement.

The response of the complement is the acceptance: agreement. It is responded by appreciation.

This is kind of the complement of the appearance.

It is categorized as the possession complement which is complemented by the woman

This response is rejection: idiomatic rejection that is done by the woman

This response is the rejection: denial that is done by the woman

The compliment is possession which is done by the woman

The woman gives the performance compliment to the woman.

This response is self-praise avoidance, the sub categories is switch of focus.
2. PHOTO 2

The complimenter complimented on her appearance.

In this response, the type of the response is acceptance with amandement which is explanatory comment.

The complimenter complimented the appearance of the photo of the woman.

The woman in this foto gave the agreement response.
The complimenter complimented both her appearance and the possession.

The complimentercomplimented her appearance.

This response is appreciation.

She complimented on her appearance.

She accepted her compliment. The types of the respond is agreement.

The complementer complimented on her performance.

She rejected the compliment. The type of the response is denial.
The topic of this compliment is appearance because she took her face photo.

She rejected the compliment by using self-avoidance but giving explanatory comment.

The compliment er use the topic of appearance.

She complimented about her appearance.

She complimented on her face (appearance).

She agreed that the black clothes was beautiful. It means she used an agreement response.
She gave her appreciation to the complimentee.

She rejected the compliment by using the idiomatic rejection.

The appearance topic is used by the complimenter.

The denial response is used by the complimentee when responding the compliment.

She complimented about her possession. Because she complimented about her bag.

He complimented about her appearance.

She used the switch of focus as the response to the compliment.
APPENDICES OF MALES PHOTOS

1. PHOTO 5

The topic of the compliment is about his performance.

He accepted her compliment. The type of the response is agreement.

The complimenter gave a compliment about his appearance.

He complimented on his ability.
2. PHOTO 6

She complimented on his appearance. Because the photo showed his face.

She complimented on his appearance. Because the photo showed his face.

She complimented on his appearance. Because the photo showed his face.

He responded the previous compliment by switching the focus.

He responded the previous compliment by giving the explanatory comment.

He responded the previous compliment by giving the explanatory comment.

He responded the previous compliment by switching the focus (acceptance amendment).

He responded the previous compliment by switching the focus (acceptance amendment).

He responded the previous compliment by switching the focus (acceptance amendment).
3. PHOTO 7

**Bima Rama**
Ngeri tampilan tuh kay nucleic syahputra....yo
13 Mei jam 23:26 • Suka

**Sunandar Pinim**

**Meep**
facebook.com
13 Mei jam 23:28 • Suka • 1 like

**Sunandar Pinim**
Hahahahaha nga salah tuh fren Bima Rama.
13 Mei jam 23:29 • Suka

**Bima Rama**
Orang translok itu identik dgn ganteng teman
13 Mei jam 23:40 • Suka • 1 like

**Sunandar Pinim**
Hahahaha gt ya fren
13 Mei jam 23:41 • Suka

**Herwin Win**
Yeees, ,
14 Mei jam 01:13 • Suka

**Sunandar Pinim**
Apa yg yesss bang
14 Mei jam 01:15 • Suka

**Herwin Win**
Maantap gy foto kmu.. Ganteng&gaul...
14 Mei jam 01:17 • Suka

**Sunandar Pinim**
Terimakasih bang
14 Mei jam 01:18 • Suka

He complimented on his appearance.

He respond by showing his laughing emoticon. Actually he rejected the complementsor’s compliment. The type of rejection is idiomatic rejection.

He accepted his compliment. The type of the acceptance is appreciation.

He complimented on his appearance and his performance.
He complimented on his ability/his skill.

She also complimented on his ability/his skill.

He used denial as a rejection response.

He complained on his appearance.

He appreciated the complimenter’s by using appreciation response.

She used the topic of appearance when giving a compliment.

He used denial as a response of rejection.
TRANSLATION STRATEGIES OF SHEILA CHEASBRO’S POEM AT SMP MAHAD MUHAMMAD SAMAN ISLAMIC BOARDING SCHOOL

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ABSTRACT
This article is entitled Translation Strategies of Sheila cheasBro’s poem. The objective of this study is to find out what translation strategy applied by the students in SMP Mahad Muhammad saman. This Article was a qualitative research. Every act of translation is mingled with some problems and challenges. Poetry translation may be more challenging than other types of translation due to the importance of both form and content in the type of interpretation and response evoked in the audience. In poetry translation one of the most essential issues to be addressed by the translator is whether to prefer the form over the content or vice versa. There are 12 Lines in the poem which analyzed and classified according to the translation strategies composed by students. The result shows that there are 3 translation strategies applied by the students in order to translate the poems. The 1st translation strategy is translation using literal translation strategy it is applied 25 times (50%). The 2nd translation strategy is translation by using Interpretation which is applied 15 times (30%). The 3rd translation strategy is translation by using Blank verse which is applied 10 times (20 %). In conclusion it can be concluded that the dominant translation strategy applied by the translator in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem is Literal translation strategy.

KEYWORDS: Poem, Translation strategy, Literal strategies, Interpretation strategies and Blank verse strategies.

INTRODUCTION
Recently translation has become a very interesting field and challenging object to study because in this globalization era a lot of literary works such as books, movies, song and poetry is translated to many languages, especially in English. Translating literary works into English is a way to immediately introduce literary works to a much broader audience and Moreover English
is a global language the language which the world’s most widely spoken that’s why it is important for us to master English. By mastering English language it will allow us to access unlimited amount of information written in English and enjoyed unlimited amount of entertainment such as movies from Hollywood, English song and literature. A lot of literary works such as novel and poem have been translated to English in order to introduce the works to global market. However, Translation is not a simple process by translating word by word using dictionary, it is a process which requires a lot of cultural awareness and understanding.

Poetry is an imaginative awareness of experience expressed through meaning, sound, and rhythmic language choices so as to evoke an emotional response. Poetry has been known to employ meter and rhyme, but this is by no means necessary. Poetry is an ancient form that has gone through numerous and drastic reinvention over time. The very nature of poetry as an authentic and individual mode of expression makes it nearly impossible to define.

One of the challenging materials to be translated by a professional translator is poems. Translating poems are considered to be one of the most complicated types of translation because poetry has unique structures and aesthetic values such as rhyme, meter, rhythm, metaphor hyperbole and devices such as assonance, alliteration and onomatopoeia which can’t be find in daily language conversation and make poems different from another literary works. That’s what makes translating poems as a complex and thrilling project for students to do.

There are many expert proposed different definitions about translation. One of the most prominent definitions of translation is given by an English professor of translation at The University of Surrey named Peter Newmark (1988: 5) who defines translation as “rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text”. His definition focused on rendering meaning of the source language text into the target language text as what is intended by the author. Moreover, translation is a process which not only deals with language it is also deals with culture aspects. Kridalaksana, an expert in translation theory states on his book (1983:128), “Translation is a transfer of an intercultural of an inter language in terms of grammatical and lexical by maintaining its intended meaning, its form and its impact. Based on the definition above it can be concluded that his view about translation is a process of transferring message not only the language itself but also the cultures.

According to the definition given by two experts above, it can be concluded that the point of translation is to render the message from the source language (SL) into target language (TL) which requires cultural awareness and understanding.

There are several things that need to be considered in translating activity one of them is the choice of word the translator use to translate the text so the result of the translation will be accurate, clear, natural and effective. So, the message from the Source language (SL) can be perfectly transferred in the Target language (SL) and the text has a good degree of readability.

In translating literary works, the role of a professional translator is very important because a translator is a mediator between cultures. So, a translator has to be a competent person who
masters both the source language and the target language and have awareness of the culture both
the source and target language reader so the translator will be able to translate a text based on the
the culture of the target readers. The most important thing is a translator should have empathy for his
target reader. For example a text translated for elementary school student should be simple and
easy to understand and a text translated for university students must be suited to their level of
comprehension.

One of the challenging materials to be translated by a professional translator is poems. Translating poems is considered to be one of the most complicated types of translation because
poetry has unique structures and aesthetic values such as rhyme, meter, rhythm, metaphor
hyperbole and devices such as assonance, alliteration and onomatopoeia which can’t be find in
daily language conversation and make poems different from another literary works. That’s what
makes translating poems as a complex and thrilling project for students to do.

In this study the researchers interested in analyzing poem written by Sheila Cheasbro, title of her poem is “Thanks” and translated by students in the third grade in SMP Mahad Muhammad
Saman. There are two classes at third grade. One class for male students and one class for female
students every class consists of twenty five students, but the researchers chose twenty five female
students from class IX A as the data source. The reason why the writer chose poem written by Sheila cheasbro is because she is well known as a living legend and one of the best
American poet. His poetry has drawn many praise and admiration from public. A number of his
poems have become highly popular after being set to music, while many of his works also widely
distributed on social media. One of the reasons why she is very famous is because his ability to
uses simple and endearing language in his work. she is one of American talented writer which a
lot of his works has been translated into English. Why researcher took SMP Mahad Muhammad
Saman’s Students to translate that poem because the first, the reseacher is one of english teacher
there, so she know the ability of his students in english subject. The second why did reseacher
choose junior high school for his research, because she want to know the result of students
translation.

In this study, the researcher wants to find out what strategies are used to translate poem written by Sheila cheasbro entitled Thanks. Thanks tells about friendship.

The translation strategies used in this study are translation strategies from Belgian theorist
Andre Alphons Lafevere. He notes three strategies of translation for translating poems. There are
translation strategies: Blankverse Strategires, Literal Strategy and interpretation strategies.
Comparing to the other translation strategies, the strategies from Andre Lafevere is the most
suitable strategies to analyze the translation of poems and song lyrics.
One of the best known and interesting catalogues of methods employed by translators of poetry
is that made by Andre Lefevere (Bassnett 81-2):
- **Literal translation** (word-for-word translation distorts the original sense and syntax).
- **Blank verse translation** (restrictions imposed upon the translator, but greater
  accuracy and higher degree of literalness).
• Interpretation translation (the substance of the original is retained but the form is destroyed).

THANKS
by Sheila Cheasbro
You're my friend because you're always there,
If there's sadness around or in the air,
At night, in the morning or anytime of day,
You're there to cheer me up and chase the sadness away.
I just want to thank you for all you've done,
You've helped me through a lot, you're really number one.
Thanks for all the good times that we share,
It shows that you're one who really does care.
Thanks for being there when time got rough,
You make it easier when times get too tough.
Thanks for being there each and every day,
Thanks for being you in that very special way.

Terima Kasih
Oleh Sheila Cheasbro
Kau temanku karena kau selalu ada,
Jika ada kesedihan di sekitar atau di udara,
Pada malam, pagi atau sepanjang hari,
Kau berada di sana untuk menghiburku dan mengejar kesedihan pergi menjauh.
Aku hanya ingin berterima kasih untuk semua yang telah Kau lakukan,
Kau telah banyak membantuku, Kau benar-benar nomor satu.
Terima kasih untuk semua waktu menyenangkan yang kita bagi,
Ini menunjukkan bahwa Kau adalah orang yang sungguh-sungguh peduli.
Terima kasih untuk berada di sana ketika waktu menjadi kejam,
Kau membuatnya lebih mudah ketika waktu menjadi terlalu sulit
Terima kasih untuk selalu ada setiap hari,
Terima kasih karena Kau ada dalam cara yang sangat istimewa.

RESEARCH QUESTION
What are the translation strategies of Sheila Cheasbro’s poem by the students at Mahad Muhammad Saman in third grade?
METHODOLOGY

Research Design
The research design to analyze the problem in this study was qualitative research. Qualitative research was the method to describe the subject or the object of the research based on the fact or reality. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), qualitative method focuses on interpretation of phenomena in their natural settings to make sense in terms of the meanings people bring to these settings. Qualitative research has the natural setting as the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument. Researchers entered and spends considerable time in the location. Qualitative research is frequently called naturalistic because the researcher frequents places where the events he or she is interested in naturally occurs. The descriptive study was used to get certain information about certain phenomenon that happened when a research is being conducted. On the other words, it is intended to describe the variable or condition that really occurred in a certain situation.

Unit of Analysis
The unit of analysis of this study was the textual elements and the translation strategies used in every stanza of the poem entitled thanks by sheila cheasbro

Source of Data
The data of this study were taken from the poem in bilingual version. The researcher takes poem entitle poem “Thanks” who is written by Sheila cheasbro. and translated by SMP Mahad Muhammad Saman’s Students in the third grade that consists twenty five students. Reading the data These step was reading the poem written by Sheila Cheasbro as the source data, and then compared it with its translation, Identifying the data The next step of data collection was identifying the data, the researchers identified the data into each stanza of the poem.

Technique of Data Collection
The data collection of this study used documentation method. The researcher collected the data from the students in SMP Mahad Muhammad Saman.  
1. Choosing the data
The researchers found poem book by Sheila cheasloro from e-book on the internet and then the researcher chose from the total of poem in that book.
2. Reading the data
The second step was reading the poem written by Sheila cheasloro as the source data, and then compared it with its translation.
3. Identifying the data
The next step of data collection was identifying the data, the researchers identified the data into each stanza of the poem.

Technique of Data Analysis
This study used qualitative method of research, In the research, the researcher analyzed the data using the following steps:
1. Dividing the poems into stanzas.
2. Comparing the data between Indonesian and English version
RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Findings
According to Andre Alphons Lefevere, there are 3 translation strategies which can be applied in translating poem. The translation strategies are literal translation, Blank verseTranslation and interpretation translation. However, in translating Sheila cheasbro’s poem the researcher found that there are only 3 strategies applied. The following tables below, Presents the amount and percentage of each translation strategy applied by the Students or translator in translating Sheila Cheasbro poem.

Table1: The Percentage of Translation Strategies Applied in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem by students in the grade at SMP Mahad Muhammad Saman

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Translation strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%) F/N x 100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Literal translation</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Blank verse translation</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Interpretation Translation</td>
<td>1555</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Data</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows the amount and percentage of 3 translation strategies applied by the students in order to translate Sheila cheasbro’s poem. Those are literal translation which applied 25 times (50%), Interpretation which applied 15 times (30%), Blank verse strategy which was applied 10 times (20%). It can be concluded that the dominant translation strategy applied by the translator is the Literal translation strategies which take 50% or applied 25 times.

Discussion
According to the findings, the discussion about the applied translation strategies in translating Sheila cheasloro’s poem can be given as follows:
From the 12 lines of poem, there were 3 translation strategies applied by the students to translate Sheila cheasloro’s poem into TL. Those translation strategies: Literal translation strategy, Interpretation strategy and Blank verse translation strategy.

Translation using Literal translation
Based on the data finding, the translator applied the literal translation to translate 12 lines of poem by Sheila Cheasbro. This translation strategy focuses on transferring words for words.
Data 1: The Translation Strategies (Literal Strategy) Applied in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Stanza</th>
<th>Translation Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>You make it easier when times, get too tought</td>
<td>Literal translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Kamu membuat kemudahan ketika waktu menjadi kelam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data 2: The Translation Strategies (Literal Strategy) Applied in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Stanza</th>
<th>Translation Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>Thanks for being you in that very special way</td>
<td>Literal translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Terima kasih karena kamu ada di setiap cara Special</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The strategy that is used in translating the line above is literal translation. In the line above each element of the word is translated according to the meaning or the meaning closest to the context of the sentence, the words rearranged, and there are some words that deliberately omitted by the translator.

Translation using Literal translation Blank Verse Translation Strategy

Data 3: The Translation Strategies (Blank Verse Strategy) Applied in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Stanza</th>
<th>Translation Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>You are my friend because you’re always there</td>
<td>Blank Verse Translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Kamu adalah temanku karena kamu selalu ada</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data 4: The Translation Strategies (Blank Verse Strategy) Applied in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Stanza</th>
<th>Translation Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>At night, in the morning or any time of day</td>
<td>Blank Verse Translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Dimalam, dipagi hari atau sepanjang hari</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Blank verse is an unrhymed translation which emphasizes the meaning of the original poem. There is rhyme detected in the Source Language. But, in the Target Language there is no case of rhyme has been detected. However, the message of the poem from the source language is delivery well conveyed into the target language. Translation by unrhymed lines is blank verse translation. Using this method can give greater accuracy and higher degree of literalness.
Data 5: The Translation Strategies (Interpretation) Applied in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Stanza</th>
<th>Translation Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>It shows that you are one who really does care</td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Ini menunjukan semua kalau kamu menjadi nomor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data 6: The Translation Strategies (Interpretation Strategy) Applied in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Stanza</th>
<th>Translation Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>Thanks for being there each and everyday</td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Terima kasih untuk keberadaanmu setiap hari</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are a lot of words or sentence in the original poem have become shorter in the English poem.

CONCLUSION
The objective of this analysis is to find out what is the translation strategy applied by the students in SMP Mahad Muhammad Saman in translating Sheila Cheasbro’s poem. Based on the objective, some conclusions can be given below. Based on the data finding, there are 3 translation strategies by Andre Lefevere which are applied by the translator or students to translate Sheila Cheasloro’s poem. Those translation strategies are literal translation strategy, interpretation strategy and blank verse translation. The literal translation was applied by the translator to translate 25 (50%) lines. The interpretation strategy applied by the translator to translate 15 (30%) cases of pure idioms. The blank verse translation strategy applied by the translator to translate 10 (20%) case of pure idioms. From the amount and the percentage of the translation strategy applied by the translator to translate Sheila Cheasloro’s poem, it can be concluded that literal translation is the dominant strategy applied by the translator.

REFERENCES

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**APPENDIX**
You're my friend because you're always there. Like when I get into trouble, you always help me. Even when I'm sad, you never leave me alone. You're like my sister in law. I can't imagine life without you. You're the best friend I've ever had.

Your friendship has been a constant source of comfort, strength, and joy. Your unwavering support and encouragement have helped me through some of my darkest moments. You've been a rock in the storm of uncertainties, a beacon of light in the darkness, and a source of laughter in times of sorrow.

I'm grateful for your presence in my life. You've taught me the importance of friendship, love, and selflessness. Your kindness has inspired me to be a better person, and your presence has given me a sense of purpose and belonging.

In this fast-paced world, where relationships often come and go, your friendship stands as a testament to the enduring power of connection. Thank you for being my friend; thank you for being you. I'm honored to have you in my life.

Forever grateful,

[Signature]

[Date]
ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study was to observe any connection between accountability, language proficiency, and belief about language learning among Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers. The researchers investigated whether male and female teachers, with different levels of proficiency had the same belief about language learning and whether they were similarly accountable or not. A group of 130 Iranian female and male EFL teachers of different age groups of Tehran, Alborz, and Kerman provinces and EFL teachers from different English language teaching institutes were randomly selected. The researchers utilized two questionnaires; Teacher’s accountability (TA) questionnaire for measuring teachers’ accountability, and BALLI Questionnaire (the Belief about Language Learning Inventory) to measure teachers' beliefs about language learning, and a paper based version of TOEFL test to measure their language proficiency. The results indicated that the correlation among the three variables under the study; that is, teachers' beliefs, accountability, and language proficiency is statistically significant. Further analysis showed that male and female EFL teachers did not make a significant difference in their language proficiency, accountability and beliefs. However, teaching experience has not made a significant difference in teachers' general language proficiency and accountability. It did not influence their beliefs about language learning. Syllabus designers necessarily consider the fact that adopting activities related to teacher accountability in their courses can lead to wise and active teachers that through using some techniques can solve their teaching difficulties.

KEYWORDS: Teacher’s accountability, Language proficiency, Belief

INTRODUCTION
There seems to be a strong link between successful learning and effective teaching. Based on Galluzzo (2005), teacher quality and specification play a big role in students' learning. Hence, teachers have an important influence in students’ future success or failure. After this, great importance has been given to the idea of teacher success in the field of foreign language teaching.
A lot of academic research has been conducted to address teacher effectiveness. There are also some other studies that have tried to examine the variables that are connected to teacher success, such as multiple intelligences, self-efficacy, or the use of Neurolinguistic Programming techniques. Teachers as reflective agents are supposed to act completely in line with their asserted beliefs if they are willing to be effective in every approach they intend to adopt. Sadly there is almost always a difference between what experts say they believe and the way they behave. In teaching, if the discrepancy in the given instructions is a big one, then learners surely receive confused and confusing messages (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Nikitina and Furuoka (2006) in the beginning of belief studies asserted that these years the focus has turned to the beliefs of the teachers. Elaine Horwitz could develop the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) for the first time which then has been used to evaluate learners’ beliefs.

Statement of the problem
The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between accountability and language proficiency and belief among Iranian EFL teachers.

Significance of the study
Teachers are the most important character in the class. As Zukowska (2007) pointed out, nowadays teacher’s personality is regarded a significant factor in the process of teaching. Analyzing the characteristics of English teachers is valuable for researchers. Teachers can check the appropriateness of their and their co-workers’ beliefs, and accountability regarding the scope of language teaching and learning.

According to Altan (2006) beliefs are a concept in every field that deals with human behavior and learning. The beliefs teachers have influence their awareness, attitude and teaching methods. As he elaborated, teachers’ beliefs also mainly affect teaching behavior and then learners’ improvement. Some studies show that teachers are completely affected by their thinking, which in turn are thoroughly connected to their values, world views, and to their perceptions.

Thus, the present study attempted to bring these three variables; that are teachers’ language proficiency, accountability and beliefs, in one research and explore the relationship among them which is done to become aware of the results and the effects that the probable relationships between the variables might have on the trends of language learning and teaching.

The results of this study might be of value to all those who are engaged in language teaching and learning process by becoming aware of the individuals' beliefs and its relation to the degree of their accountability. It can help them to develop better and much efficient ways in order to effectively support teacher's competence in English language and lead them to a better understanding of the teaching task and the learning process. To add, the findings can assist the language teachers, syllabus designers, and those who hold teacher training courses.
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Language proficiency

Eslami and Fatahi (2008) argued that language proficiency is often categorized as a field of interest in different studies, but not many scholars seem to have investigated the question of teacher proficiency in depth. As they mentioned, one exception is Butler (2004) who has studied teachers in some countries and looked at the gap between teachers’ self-perceived language proficiency and the level of proficiency needed to be effective teachers at the elementary schools. Butler’s study found a meaningful difference in all three places between the teachers’ self-assessed language proficiency and the proficiency they believed would empower them to teach elementary school English most effectively.

Teachers' accountability

Teachers are usually considered as the most important factor affecting student gained knowledge. In spite of this belief, of course little is known about how teachers themselves understand high-stakes accountability in germane to their teaching career (Buese, 2005). Teachers assert that accountability in education is very significant. According to teachers’ idea, the main aim of accountability in education is to react to the understood social contract between society and the public school system. We agree that, at heart, an accountability system for education is about the development of education. The accountability process should offer objectives and attributes of the public education system and clarify what is being done to achieve these aims. The accountability process must include all education members and be interactive and continuous.

Teachers’ beliefs and language learning

There are a lot of differences among learners concerning their personality, attitude, motivation, age, and sex. Williams and Burden (1997) believed that these characteristics impact both the manner of learning and its result. As Horwitz (1987) explained belief is the idea or viewpoint of the person learning a foreign language. According to Horwitz’s research, some learners come into the classroom with clear thought of how a foreign language is gained, and that is a barrier to optimal language learning.

What the teachers believe influence their consciousness, teaching attitude, teaching methods and teaching policy. Teacher beliefs extremely affect teaching behavior and, lastly, learner development, that is, their beliefs conduct their decision-making, behavior, and interactions with students.

Teachers' beliefs give their planning and curricular decisions a framework, in deciding what should be taught and what route instruction should follow (Xu, 2012). Altan (2006) believed that research since Howritz (1985) has confirmed that some learners' beliefs deteriorate their learning, but no research has been conducted on foreign language students, just some on their learning atmospheres.
METHODOLOGY

Research design
The design of the present study is of descriptive nature, but an interrelationship, correlational design, which is based on an educational survey. Due to the nature of the variables under study, the researchers used two questionnaires for measuring teachers’ accountability, and beliefs about English language learning and a standard proficiency test to examine EFL teachers’ language proficiency.

Instrumentation

Teacher’s accountability (TA) questionnaire
In order to carry out this study, EFL teachers’ accountability was measured by a closed-ended questionnaire. Based on the sub-constructs of the teacher’s accountability, the TA questionnaire had 35 items to measure the variable reasonably. The items were written in a closed questionnaire format, in a 5-ranked Likert scale. In fact the Accountability Pillar has provided a new way for school responsibles to estimate their success, and measure their improvement towards achieving their learning objectives. The TA questionnaire was already checked for its psychometric characteristics. Hence, the researchers checked its reliability for the present study.

BALLI questionnaire (the Belief about Language Learning Inventory)
In order to see EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning, the BALLI questionnaire, designed by Horwitz (1987), was used. This questionnaire consisted of 34 items, each based on a 5-point Likert scale. 32 items showed the degree of agreement of participants. Besides these 32 items, there were two more items: one item ranges from ‘very difficult’ to ‘very easy’ and showed the beliefs of students about degree of difficulty in learning a language, and another item, which ranged from ‘less than one year’ to ‘you cannot learn a language in one hour per day’, showed the students’ beliefs about duration of language learning.

TOEFL proficiency test
In order to measure the teachers’ level of proficiency, a paper based version of TOEFL test (2004) consisting of structure items and written expressions (40) and reading comprehension questions (50) was administered to the participants.

Sampling
There was no treatment in this study. The method of sampling in this research was random sampling. The researchers selected the subjects randomly from among different educational districts.

Participants
The participants of this study were 130 Iranian EFL teachers, selected from among different educational districts of Tehran, kerman and Alborz provinces and some EFL teachers from various English language institutes. Since their demographic information was concerned, the teachers were of different age groups; both male and female teachers participated in the study, and all of them had taken some academic EFL courses before they started their teaching career.
Some had passed TTC courses at the beginning of their teaching; some had been educated in TEFL; and still some others were EFL students, not graduated yet.

**Procedure**

**Data collection**

Prior to the experiment, the researchers used a questionnaire; Teacher’s Accountability for measuring Teachers’ Accountability. The next step was administering a version of TOEFL test within a limited time to the participants to measure their language proficiency. Having collected the data from the participants, the researchers went through data entry and analysis process. In order to provide answer to the research questions, the researchers computed the correlation coefficients among the three variables under the study; namely, teachers' accountability and general language proficiency as the main focus of the study.

**Data analysis**

Two types of statistics used in this study were descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. For descriptive statistics, the mean, standard deviation, SEM, Skewness, and kurtosis were displayed in some tables. The normality of the distribution was checked. The graphic representation of the data for each variable was illustrated as well. In inferential statistics, in order to test the null hypotheses of the study, the researchers used correlational analyses.

**Descriptive Statistics**

The participants attending the present study were 130 EFL teachers teaching English at schools and English language institutes in three provinces: Kerman, Alborz, and Tehran.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Descriptive statistics for gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 shows, there were 46 male and 84 female EFL teachers who were in the study. The graphic representation of the participants' gender is also given in Figure.
As far as the teaching experience of the participants was concerned, the researchers divided them into five subcategories: 1) between 3 to 5 years, 2) between 6 to 10 years, 3) between 11 to 15 years, 4) between 16 to 20 years, and finally 5) more than 20 years. The detailed specifications of the participants in terms of their teaching experience have been shown in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>between 3 to 5 years</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between 6 to 10 years</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between 11 to 15 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>73.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between 16 to 20 years</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>94.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 20 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>130</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants in terms of their teaching experience weren’t the same. Since the teachers' beliefs might change during their career experience, the researchers divided them in five groups with five years of time intervals.

For the main variables of the study, teachers' language proficiency and accountability, the descriptive statistics are shown in Table 3. By looking at the participants' mean, variance, standard deviation it can be understood that how they performed in the test and the questionnaire and the normality of the data can be checked according to the table.

As Table shows, the Skewness divided by the standard error of the Skewness for TOEFL (-.363/.212) will be -1.71, and for Teacher accountability questionnaire data (-.122/.212) will be -.57. It is concluded that since all these measures in the distributions are within the range of -2 to +2, the distributions are normal.
Table 3: Descriptive for TOEFL test and TA questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>TOEFL</th>
<th>TAtotal</th>
<th>TBtotal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>552.81</td>
<td>123.82</td>
<td>121.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error of Mean</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>61.716</td>
<td>21.252</td>
<td>9.948</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.363</td>
<td>-.122</td>
<td>-.280</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error of Skewness</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.764</td>
<td>-.818</td>
<td>.813</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error of Kurtosis</td>
<td>.422</td>
<td>.422</td>
<td>.422</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>240.00</td>
<td>84.00</td>
<td>62.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>410.00</td>
<td>76.00</td>
<td>87.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>650.00</td>
<td>160.00</td>
<td>149.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The normality of the distributions could be examined according to the measure of the kurtosis divided by the standard error of kurtosis. The kurtosis divided by the standard error of the kurtosis for TOEFL (-.764/.422) will be -1.81, and for Teacher accountability questionnaire data (-.818/.422) will be -1.93. It is concluded that since the measures in the distributions are within the range of -2 to +2, the distributions are normal. The graphic representations of the variables are displayed in Figure 4.3.

Figure 3: Histogram for TOEFL scores
Reliability of the instruments

The researchers used three research tools for the present study. Although the three instruments were used previously by other scholars, the researchers computed their reliability one by one respectively based on the data elicited from the study sample.

Table 4: Reliability Statistics for TOEFL test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.913</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Analysis of the research hypotheses
The aim of this study was to discern the connection among teachers’ accountability, language proficiency, and teachers’ beliefs by administering a version of TOEFL test and using a Horwitz’s (1987) BALLI and teachers’ accountability questionnaire. The first research hypothesis was: There is no relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ accountability and their language proficiency. To test the first research hypothesis, 130 Iranian EFL teachers took 90 questions of a version of TOEFL test (2004) including 40 structure and written expressions and 50 reading comprehension questions and filled out 35 items of questionnaire of Accountability Pillar. The correlation computed between them is 0.736, which is statistically significant. Therefore, the first research hypothesis restated as "There is no relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ accountability and their language proficiency" is rejected.

Table 7: Correlations for TOEFL test, TA & TB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TOEFL</th>
<th>TAtotal</th>
<th>TBtotal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.736**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.592**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.592**</td>
<td>.574**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

In this study, two questionnaires; Teacher's accountability (TA) questionnaire (Accountability Pillar) for evaluating Teacher's Accountability, and BALLI Questionnaire (the Belief about Language Learning Inventory) were used to know about teacher's beliefs about language learning. Besides, the participants who were a group of 130 Iranian female and male EFL teachers of different age groups took a version of TOEFL test in a short time.

The researchers evaluated the correlation coefficients among the three variables in this study; namely, teachers' accountability, beliefs and general language proficiency as the main focus. As for the secondary findings, the researchers added the subjects' gender and teaching experience in the analysis to see how these two variables might impact the research results. Explanations to back such findings are as given:

The results confirmed that the correlation among the three variables under the study; that is, teachers' beliefs, accountability, and language proficiency is statistically noticeable. Further analyses illustrated that male and female EFL teachers did not show a significant difference in their language proficiency, accountability and beliefs. On the other hand, teaching experience made a significant difference in teachers' general language proficiency and accountability. It did not influence their beliefs towards language learning. Theses explanations are somehow in consistence with the results obtained in literature.

Implications for Pedagogy

Syllabus designers as responsible for a great deal of language learning setting, have a big role to make the students learning faster and easier. They necessarily know that adopting activities related to teacher accountability in their courses can lead to wise and active teachers that through using some techniques can solve their teaching difficulties. As relevant training prompts or motives are entered in some parts of a course book, teachers are provided with a suitable instrument to improve language learning activities, and learners can have a better use of a more detailed EFL context. In brief, the statements showed above indicate the importance of the subject of study and its implication. So, this study can get the attention of teachers due to its nature which relatively considered teachers’ needed characteristics. Unlike the majority of research in the field of teaching, this study focused mostly on teachers. In fact this study and its findings can be used to do some other researches in respect of teachers and cognitive studies.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

Regarding the limitations of the study, the EFL teachers were selected from Tehran, Alborz, and Kerman provinces based on the availability sampling because the researcher did not have access to EFL teachers in other provinces. the EFL teachers had to be briefed to show their preparation to collaborate with the researcher. Otherwise, the participants did not attend the study.

Certain delimitations were imposed on this study, which constrained the generalization of the results of the study such as the age of the participants which was not going to be controlled. Teachers might have different views towards language learning at different ages. It should be mentioned that the researcher used two questionnaires for EFL teachers and a version of TOEFL
test as the research instruments. Therefore, other techniques for data collection were not used. Furthermore, the researcher gave two parts of the test including structure and written expressions and reading comprehension questions. Thus, assessing listening skill was not considered in the research.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF STUDENT ORGANIZATION MEMBERSHIP ON ASSERTIVENESS, SELF EFFICACY, AND AVERAGE GRADE FOR ANDALAS UNIVERSITY FROM INDONESIA AND LEIDEN UNIVERSITY FROM THE NETHERLANDS

Friska Yanti Simaremare

ABSTRACT
The aim of this research was to find out how membership of a student organization affects student assertiveness, self efficacy and average academic for students from Andalas University (Indonesia) and Leiden University (The Netherlands). Contrary to expectations, membership by itself was not related to the assertiveness and self efficacy variables in both universities. However, membership has given positive effect of grade in Andalas and Leiden university. Several aspects of student membership in Indonesia also made an influence, such as time spent in organization and proudness of being member both correlated negatively with grade and assertiveness. Organization concepts between Andalas and Leiden university are very different and will be discussed here. This study is to our knowledge one of the first to investigate the effectiveness of student organizations that are promoted by the Indonesian government. Implications will be discussed.

KEYWORDS: Student’s organization membership, assertiveness, self efficacy

INTRODUCTION
Education in Indonesia is defined as a planned effort to establish a study environment and education process so that the student may actively develop his/her own potential to gain the religious and spiritual level, consciousness, personality, intelligence, behavior and creativity to him/herself, other citizens and for the nation (wikipedia 2011, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Indonesia).

The implementation of education in Indonesia has some obstacles. One of those obstacles is the lack of quality of teachers in the teaching learning process (Al Jawi, 2006). The quality of teacher is indicated by teacher’s education background themselves. From over 181.544 lecturers in universities, only 18.86 % had a master degree level (Al Jawi, 2006). A lack of teacher quality in Indonesia may also be indicated by data that the human development index of education in Indonesia year by year has been decreased level, in 1997 was the 99th of 174 asia countries, 105th in 1998, and 109th in 1999, 110th in 2003 (Al Jawi, 2006; UNDP, 2000-2011).
One aspect of teacher’s lack in quality here is a teacher’ oriented approach to education. Teacher’ oriented education does not give a chance to the students to express how to give an opinion, solve the problem at class without feeling afraid with teachers, to be active and, creative and students always think the teacher as the only smart person in the class (Rahmini Hadi, 2007). Also, teacher activity in combination with student passiveness has low effectiveness, such as passive students only study hard when they face examination but then they will not study if there is no examination (Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2004). Teacher- oriented is focus on one way teaching learning process because teacher only expect to show his/ her best performance which regard teaching as the transmission of knowledge. The teacher- oriented approach is still frequently seen in class of some universities in Indonesia which make students passive and less creative. (Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2004; D. Sudjana, 2005). Pintrich (2003) stated that an outcome such as achievement might be the result of a combination of several motives and consequently suggested using a person-oriented approach. Person oriented is refered to student oriented, which means approaching to make students are more free to express their feeling without intimidated by other especially teacher. This related to assertiveness, because assertiveness is a behaviour which show the braveness of what he/ she needs, feels, thought honestly and openly, also keep his/ her right and reject the unrealistic optional requisation from other authority figure (Rathus & Nevid, 1983).

Government in Indonesia has been trying to maximize opportunities through better education management. Government instructs all universities to activate the university intra organization which function as a facility for students to develop their knowledge as wide as they want for a better personality, as this supported in education law of Indonesia No. 155, year 1998. According to Wikipedia (2011), intra Campus Organization is a student organization which has a legal place in college and has funding from each college. Member students may get benefit personality development of assertive and self efficacy through interaction with fellow students. Students in organization actually have some more opportunities to meet the wide variety of different backgrounds people which able to increase positive personality such as self efficacy and assertiveness. Actually frequent interaction with fellow students environment were also might impact grades and GPA, each member student could help each other with peer tutoring.

Andalas University, West Sumatra has applied the regulation, most of teachers have instructed the students to join the intra organization at campus for a better behaviour of students. Organization intra campus offers for instance the opportunity of participating in a senate organization. This can improve one’s personality/ intelligence, and so increase chances of being a political national senate, later in life. The Student Activity Unit (Unit kegiatan mahasiswa) enables students to develop their skill and interest. Average of duration to be a member in intra campus is 1 to 4 years. All organizations aim to train students to increase soft skill (communicate well, etc), knowledge as much as they want, and keep the harmony among the other students and civitas academia (a speech of acting of rectorat university of Andalas, Dr. Ir. Febrin Anas Ismali, MT, 2011). Beside, one teacher of science civil administration faculty, Drs. Yoserizal, M. Si
explained that mostly students who join the organization are more assertive and independent, which this help smooth teaching learning process and of course student’s positive personality.

In Leiden, student organizations are not at the university campus. Their primary function for most student members, is that the organization helps provide social contact and social activities, with fellow students. Student organizations generally do not aim to promote academic skills or achievement. Nevertheless, students might have study benefits from their membership, as they can exchange tips and tricks with fellow members. In Leiden University, De Gruijter (2006) showed that members of a student organization finished subjects more quickly in later years of their study, and were also less likely to drop out of university in later years. Although certain alternative explanations such as parental socioeconomic status could not be ruled out, it seems that membership had a growing positive impact over the years. However, this impact was absent for students of Social Sciences, the faculty that also harbours Child and Education students, who are the Leiden sample in the current study. Therefore we expect that in our study, membership will not influence student performance for the Leiden students.

This paper will explore the role of student organizations in affecting student’s behaviour and performance. Differences between members and non-members in Andalas and Leiden University will be examined, in self efficacy, assertiveness and academic performance. Also, the influence of different aspects of student membership in Indonesia will be examined. This way, this study aims to contribute to the evaluation of the effectiveness of student organizations in Indonesia.

Member students are expected to have higher assertiveness and self efficacy in both Andalas and Leiden. For Leiden we expect no difference in student performance, for Andalas there is expectation for member students to have a higher performance than non-member students. Students who have lower socio-economic status commonly have better performance, because they are more interest to join the organization which is a low cost possibility to get some positive impact to develop their personality.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Sample**
The research takes 71 sample from Bachelor Degree Programme of Andalas University of Indonesia and another 60 sample from Master Degree of Leiden University of Netherland. Firstly the total number of participants of Andalas university was only 60, but it was then prioritied to take sample from students who join the organization, another 11 samples were selected. In Leiden, the total number of participants were 85, but then only 60 younger participants were selected to adapt the participants from Andalas. Students
sample from Andalas came varied from social anthropology, science of civil administration, applied linguistics, political science, sociology, communication studies and law studies. Meanwhile from Leiden they came from science of civil administration, education and child studies, child and families studies, clinical child and adolescent studies, developmental psychopathology and pedhagogy studies.

In both universities, female were mostly attended, 59.2% from Andalas university and 90% from Leiden university.

Average age of Andalas university was 21.08 years old started with the youngest at 17 and the eldest at 24 years old. Participants in Leiden university average was on 24.92 years old with the youngest at 21 and the eldest at 39 years old. The standard deviation of age in Andalas was 1.27 while in Leiden 3.18.

For parents background, students from Andalas average has mother’s highest education at senior high school (45.7%), followed by bachelor degree (27.1%), primary school (17.1%) and junior high school (10%). The student’s father highest education was at senior high school (43.7%), Bachelor degree (33.8%), Junior High School (11.3%), primary school (8.5%) and closed with master degree (2.8%). Profession of mother in Andalas mostly mostly as other (entrepreneur, housewife, etc) 25.7%, then unskilled 24.3%, skilled 21.4%, professional 18.6% and white collar 10%. For father’s occupation mostly as skilled categorized 42.6%, followed by professional 20.6%, unskilled 11.8%, white collar 17.6% and other 7.4%.

In Leiden, students have mother’s highest education at mostly bachelor degree (51.9%), senior high school (38.5%), master degree (7.7%) and junior high school (1.9%). Father’s highest education mostly at bachelor degree (48.1%), followed by senior high school (32.7%), master degree (11.5%), primary school (5.8%) and then higher than master degree (1.9%). In Leiden, mostly the parents occupation was at skilled category for mother 48.1%, professional 31.5%, unskilled 14.8%, white collar 3.7%, and other 1.9%. While father’s occupation was mostly as professional category level 41.8%, skilled 38.2%, white collar10.9%, unskilled 7.3%, and closed by other level 1.8%. The background overall, Leiden are higher if compared with students’ parents background.

**Measurement Instrument**
Measurement of instrument is a multiple choice questionnaire which contains of 39 questions varied from general and specific questions. But after conducting the reliability, there was some 4 question should be deleted so the total become 35 questions. The questionnaire for Indonesian students was translated to local language for a better understanding in answering the question, while Dutch students used in english version.
There are six scales in the questionnaire which generally aimed to measure the personality behaviour level of each student. Scales are social context, time scale, identify proud scale, benefit joining organization, self efficacy and self assertiveness. Social context scale was meant as social interaction and feeling among other members in organization, time scale referred to the consuming time spent of student member in activity of organization, identify proud scale referred to the student’ confidence of being a member, and benefit joining the organization was meant as positive impact that student got in organization. The first four scale were dedicated to all member students only and aimed to measure different aspects of attending the organization. Then, another two scales were assertive and self efficacy. All member and non member students answered the questions of assertive and self efficacy scale.

### Table 1: The Reliability of Each Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Andalas</th>
<th>Leiden</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Social context</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Identify proud joining organization</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Benefit joining organization</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Self efficacy</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following are the questions of each scale:

1. **Social Context Questions:**
   - Being a member of organization helps me to make friends and acquaintances
   - I feel comfortable to share and debate with friends at organization
   - Togetherness in organization helps me to increase empathy

2. **Time Scale Questions:**
   - I spend a lot of time attending organization activities
   - Sometimes I postpone study activities because of my organization
   - I spend too little time on my studies, because of membership

3. **Identify Proud Scale Questions:**
   - I am happy to be a member of my organization
   - I feel proud when I say to people that I am a member of organization
Members of my organization are better people than average

4. Benefit Scale Questions:
✓ I have learnt many things related to my study from being a member of organization
✓ A lot of useful study information I get through my friends in organization
✓ When I have difficulty in studying, I ask members to help answers in my questions

5. Self Efficacy Scale Questions:
✓ I expect to do very well in my studies
✓ Compared with others in class, I think I am a good student
✓ I am sure I can do an excellent job on the problems and tasks assigned for my studies class
✓ I think I will receive a good grade in my studies
✓ I know that I will be able to learn the material for my studies

6. Assertive Scale Questions:
✓ I do not hesitate to give new ideas in class
✓ I have no problem asking questions in class
✓ I volunteer to do things in class
✓ If I strongly disagree with a teacher, I will let the teacher know
✓ I will enter the class room even when I am late
✓ I can have an informal conversation with my teacher

Procedure
In Andalas university, each participant had an introduction first from the researcher before answering the questionnaire in 10 minutes. While sample students from Andalas received questionnaire and filled out the result at the paper. When they finished, they directly gave the result paper to the researcher in class. Students from Leiden received questionnaire from email, and they sent back the result by email again. In Leiden, participants read the brief introduction and filled out the questionnaire.
Analysis Methodology
The data analysis was started with calculating t-tests for independent samples, which aimed to establish that whether there was a significant difference or not between member and non member students. This was done separately for both Andalas and Leiden university. With these t-tests, differences were tested in assertiveness and self efficacy.

Each dependent variable used t-test to show whether there was significant influence between students’ assertiveness and self efficacy for member and non member students. Correlations have been calculated between self efficacy, assertive, member scales and background variables (grade, parents background, parents education, major study they have) of member and non member students in Indonesia and Netherland. Regressions were used to establish how well the various variables predicted self efficacy, assertiveness and average grade.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Total participants in Andalas who join the organization was 39 participants, and another 32 was not a member. T test showed that there was no difference value of self efficacy and assertiveness between members and non members. There was no significant as value for self efficacy for Andalas was t (df = 69) = .803, p value = .425 > .05 and for assertiveness was t (df = 69) = 1.750, p value = .085 > .05. However, t test showed that member students (M= 3.07; SD= .37) had higher grade average than non members (M = 2.86; SD = .36). The value was significant (df = 67) = 2.41, p value = .019 < .05.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Descriptive of Number, Mean and Standard Deviation of Members and Non Members of Andalas University</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Members</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify Proud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefit Joining Organization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Meanwhile there was 21 members and 39 non members student in Leiden University. There was not significant t test mentioned in Leiden, self efficacy was $t (df = 56) = 0.828$, $p$ value = .411 > .05, and assertive was $t (df = 56) = 1.22$ with $p$ value = .227 > .05. So member and non member students in Andalas and Leiden university had no different value on self efficacy and assertiveness. This is contrary to expectation. However, t test showed that there was a significant value, members had a higher average grade, $t (df = 54) = 2.09$, $p$ value = .41

**Table 4: Correlation of Scales of Member Student in Andalas University**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average grade</th>
<th>Mother’s Education</th>
<th>Father’s Education</th>
<th>Profession of Mother</th>
<th>Profession of Father</th>
<th>Self Efficacy</th>
<th>Assertive</th>
<th>Social Context</th>
<th>Time Scale</th>
<th>Identify Proud</th>
<th>Benefit Joining Organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average grade</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.31</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.36*</td>
<td>-.35*</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother education</td>
<td></td>
<td>.79**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.37*</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father education</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.14</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profession of Mother</td>
<td>.39*</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.33*</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.34*</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Profession of Father</td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.35*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Efficacy</td>
<td></td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td></td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Context</td>
<td></td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.66**</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Scale</td>
<td></td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify Proud</td>
<td></td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table above shows that Andalas students with high self efficacy tended to be more assertive, \( r (37) = .44, p<.01 \), this was a strong positive correlation. Time scale and grade average had high negative correlation \( r (37) = -.36, p < .05 \), it means that more time spent in organization predicted a lower grade. There was also negative correlation between identify proud and grade average \( r (37) = -.35, p<.05 \), which means that the more proud students were about being a member of organization, the more likely they were to have smaller grade average. Also, students who had a higher level of mother’s profession were likely to be less proud to be a member of organization \( r (37) = -.34, p<.05 \). More social interaction within the organization was associated with higher proudness to be a member, \( r (37) = .66, p< .01 \). Spending more time on organization activity was associated with enjoying study benefits from from the organization, \( r (37) = .33, p<.01 \).

Table 5: Correlation of Scales of Non Member Students in Andalas University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Mother education</th>
<th>Father education</th>
<th>Profession of Mother</th>
<th>Profession of Father</th>
<th>Self Efficacy</th>
<th>Assertive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother education</td>
<td></td>
<td>.66**</td>
<td>.39*</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.46**</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profession of Mother</td>
<td></td>
<td>.29</td>
<td></td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profession of Father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Efficacy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Context</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Scale</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify Proud</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 4 showed that there was a positive strong correlation on assertive and self efficacy for non member students in Andalas university, \( r (30) = .58, p<.01 \). Students with higher assertiveness tended to have higher self efficacy.
Table 6: Correlation in Leiden University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average grade</th>
<th>Mother’s education</th>
<th>Father education</th>
<th>Profession of Mother</th>
<th>Profession of Father</th>
<th>Self Efficacy</th>
<th>Assertiveness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average grade</td>
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<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
<td></td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.50**</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profession of Mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profession of Father</td>
<td>.37*</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Efficacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

In Leiden University, students who had lower education level of their father, tended to be assertive, \( r (31) = -.43, p<.05 \).

Self efficacy and assertiveness were strongly positive correlation in Andalas university, for member students there was \( r (37) = .44, p<.01 \), for non member students was \( r (30) = .58, p<.01 \), while in Leiden self efficacy and assertiveness did not correlate.

It has been calculated a regression with grade as dependent variable in Leiden University, a small effect of the identify proud and time scale predictor \( R^2 = .176, F(2, 36) = .031, p<0.05 \). Adding mother profession to the model only increased explained variance by 0.2%.

Table 7: Regression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>7.823</td>
<td>-.557</td>
<td>25.530</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Scale</td>
<td>-.319</td>
<td>-.150</td>
<td>-2.120</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There was also almost significant regression of time scale on grade for Leiden university ($R^2 = 31.0\%$, $F(1,10) = .60, p < 0.07$). More time spent in organization predicted a lower academic grade. Adding more variables did not significantly increase the explained variance of the regression model.

**Discussion**

The aim of this research was to find out how membership of a student organization affect students’ assertiveness, self efficacy and average academic grade. In Andalas university, it was expected that students in joining the organization were more assertive, had high self efficacy and study performance. Meanwhile in Leiden university, it was expected that members had higher self efficacy and assertiveness but not higher or lower grades than non-members. Contrary to expectation student membership by itself was not related to student assertiveness and self efficacy both for Andalas and Leiden University. On the other hand, study performance met the expectation in both Andalas and Leiden University. In Andalas, members students had higher grade than non member students, while in Leiden, membership did not effect the student’s grade. However, different aspects of student membership were related to those three variables. In Andalas, spending more time in the organization and being more proud of being an organization member both predicted a lower grade. Higher proudness also predicted higher assertiveness. The member students who were proud being a member in organization possibility caused by confidence themselves of having soft skills which they got through the organization. Pride according to wikipedia (2011) is an inward directed (feeling) emotion that exemplifies either an inflated sense of one's personal status or the specific, mostly-positive emotion that is a product of praise or independent self-reflection. So we might conclude that being a member increased proudness which in turn raised assertiveness. Meanwhile, time spent in organization had negative correlation with study performance. It is assumed that member students who spent more time at organization had not enough control to manage both school and organization activity. Students might not had have time much for study or even to enter the class, because in Andalas, attendance list of students also affect the score. Proudness level also had negative correlation to the grade. The negative correlation between assertiveness and grade possibly referred to the wrong application of assertiveness. Even though assertiveness is defined as brave and honest behavior according to Rathus and Nevid (1993), but if students showed it too much, the teacher would not see it as the positive behavior, but the opposite one, as over-dominant. Dominant is categorized as bad attitude sometimes in Andalas university. Some teachers were are still applying teacher-oriented and really dislike the dominant student, which might effected the teacher gave bad score to member students.

Mothers’ profession were also positively associated with self efficacy. It is possibility connected to the tradition of economic social level in Padang, having more rich parents’ usually would make the student less independent. Adan Hasibuan, staff of KESMA (Students and Community Welfare) department, Andalas University mentioned (oral communication, 2011) that students who had rich parents mostly had limited interaction with other social and it made them could not develop their own soft skill such as they do not
confidence to speak in front of class. Those level mostly use money to smooth everything (such as to finish the thesis, task etc), as their parents have much money, different with the opposite students, they mostly reach everything with their own pure efforts. It is supported by the finding that higher mother’s profession of students predicted a lower student’s proudness level in being a member.

The lack of difference in self efficacy and assertive level between member and non member students in Andalas could be caused by many aspects. For instance member students might not be really enjoying and serious to be at the organization and did not get treated well as member by organization team. Another possible reason might be that non member students had Students’ Centered Learning in their class which defined as facilitating, empowering and enabling students to be more confidence. This Students’ Centered Learning helps students to be more creative and able construct and develop their own thinking as this stated on book of National Education Department, 2004 page 15. Member students also might be not or less participate in students’ centered learning and possibility reasoned by teacher- centered methodology applied by teachers as teachers did not receive training of student- center methodology.

The study in Leiden University also showed that student member and non member of organization had no different value of self efficacy and assertiveness. This was contrary to expectation. Assertiveness was negatively correlated with education background. On the other hand, the performance did not meet the expectation of research question, the members had differ in grade from non members. This was contrary to the earlier finding of De Grujitter (2006) who reported no differences in grades for students of the social science faculty. It could mean that member students had chance to exchange their experiences through peer tutoring among fellow students, which was able to add grade. Even though organization aim was established for social contacts and activities in Leiden, infact membership could also increase student’s grade average.

This study is to our knowledge one of the first articles to address the possible effect of student membership on student performance, self efficacy and assertiveness in Indonesia. In Andalas University, member students had higher grades than those who were not a member. For assertiveness and self efficacy there was no difference. This could mean that organization was not effective in increasing those variables. It could also mean that less assertive students were more inclined to become a member in the first place. If that was the case, being a member might have raised assertiveness to the level of those who decided not to become a member. To investigate these and other effects of membership, future research should entail a longitudinal study, following members and non members during
their whole study, measuring study performance and assertiveness. This type of study should be done at several Indonesian universities, to further investigate the effectiveness of student organizations that are promoted by the Indonesian government.

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THE CORRELATION BETWEEN STUDENTS’ MASTERY OF CONTEXTUAL VOCABULARY AND STUDENTS’ READING COMPREHENSION ON THE SECOND GRADE OF SMA SWASTA METHODIST 1 MEDAN

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ABSTRACT
This study dealt with the correlation between students’ mastery of contextual vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension. Contextual vocabulary is guessing a meaning of a word based on the context. Reading comprehension is the ability to comprehend a text. The purpose of this research is to know whether both of variables have a significance correlation or not. The problems of this study are 1. Is there any significance correlation between students’ mastery of contextual vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension of the second grade of SMA Swasta Methodist 1 Medan? There was a kind of collecting data during the study, there was quantitative data. The method for collecting the quantitative data was reading test. Based on quantitative data, it is found that there is a significance correlation between contextual vocabulary and reading comprehension. The hypothesis is accepted as it is proven that the r value is higher than the coefficient correlation (0,572 > 0,304 or 0,304 < 0,572). It is better to do a research about the correlation between contextual vocabulary (variable x) and reading comprehension (variable y) to make the teachers easy to teach the meaning of vocabulary from a text and for the students to increase their vocabulary by learning from the context of a text.

KEYWORDS: Correlation, Students’ Mastery of Contextual Vocabulary, Students’ Reading Comprehension

INTRODUCTION
The students have to master the four basic language skills. They are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Beside such basic skill, the students have to master some vocabularies as well as possible. Vocabulary is one important aspect in learning a foreign language. With a limited vocabulary anyone will also has a limited understanding in terms of speaking, reading, listening, and writing. It is true that it might be impossible to learn a language without mastering vocabulary. Vocabulary is one of the problems confronted by English language learners. Because of the limited vocabulary, the learners cannot communicate to others clearly. Sometimes it is difficult to group the idea transmitted to them. The acquisition of a large number of vocabularies can help the students read, speak, listen, and write. A
good vocabulary and ability to use words correctly and effectively can help the students make school work easier and more rewarding, and also many tests that they take in school include vocabulary questions. The more vocabularies they know the better their chance to do well on an English test. Mastering vocabulary is the ability to get or to receive a lot of words. By having and mastering vocabulary we will know the meaning of contextual vocabulary. Mastering Contextual Vocabulary is very important for reading comprehension because students will be able to comprehend meaning if they already understand the meaning of every vocabulary on the reading text. So, to comprehend the reading text, the students can guess the meaning of the vocabulary based on the context of the text. It will help the students comprehend the reading easily. Measuring vocabulary helps to avoid making mistakes in understanding. On the other hand, foreign students learning English reading text, one lack of vocabulary, whereas in fact vocabulary is the most important thing in reading skill.

Nowadays, the ability to comprehend English is necessary for people and also to understanding English, people have to able to communicate English and also able to read many kinds of English text. The ability to read is crucial in contemporary society. People find many texts written in English, from holiday brochures to academic books, newspaper, advertisements, etc. Therefore, the ability to read English text in any form will give a great deal of advantages in our lives.

Reading is a good thing in life because it is a factor of great importance in the individual development and the most important activity in school. It is needed in every level of field of study. Particularly in cases when students have to read English materials for their own special subject. Being able to read in English is very important as it is known that success in reading is the most necessary because it is a basic tool of education. All the subjects in Elementary School such as mathematics, science, language, and others depend on the ability to read. In high school and college reading ability becomes even more important. Through reading we acquire new ideas, obtain needed information, seek support for our ideas and broaden our interest. We can also get the message that the writers had expressed. The ability to read helps to distinguish human being from other animal.

One of the purposes of teaching English of a foreign language to Indonesian people is that they can read, grasp the idea and understand the book written in English. To achieve those purposes, students need a lot of words of English to master. To achieve the success in language teaching learning process especially English, vocabulary is one of important factors in all language teaching. Based on the description of vocabulary and reading above, it shows that they have close relation. To get empirical data about it the writers will organize the test result to prove the influence of students’ achievement in vocabulary and reading. By getting the grades, the writers tries to find an answer that students’ achievement in vocabulary influencing reading. A problem also happened when the writers did they Praktek Pengalaman Belajar (PPL) at SMA Swasta Parulian 1 Medan a year ago. The writers taught on the first grade students of class X-1 and on the second grade students of class XI-IPS. When the writers taught the students, most of them have some problems with their skill in reading. Most of them have a low score for their reading skill. It makes the writers felt very sorry with the situation. The writers observed that one of the reasons of why the students had a low score in reading skill because they had low achievement in vocabulary. This problem makes the writers need to do more observation about this case. That is why the writers needs to do a research about the correlation between the students’ achievement in vocabulary and their skill in reading.
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

**Vocabulary**

I. S. P. Nation (1990:19) says that according to the basis of frequency, vocabulary can be divided into two kinds; there are high frequency vocabulary and low frequency vocabulary.

1. High frequency vocabulary consists of words that are used very often in normal language, use in all four skills and across the full range of situation of use. High frequency vocabulary consists of 2000 word families, which are about 87% of the running words in formal written text and more than 95% of the words in informal spoken texts.

2. The low frequency vocabulary on the other hand, covers only small proportion of the running words of a continuous text, it means that low frequency vocabulary is rarely, used in common activity of English language. This group includes well over 100,000 word families. I.S.P Nation (1990:94) calls those vocabularies as motivated vocabulary and unmotivated vocabulary. Motivated (active) vocabulary consists of all the words we need to use and feel no reluctance in using in our everyday life. While, the unmotivated (passive) vocabulary can be divided into two groups:
   1. Words which are only partly understood and are not well known enough to use actively, and
   2. Words which are not needed in daily communication.

From the explanation above, we can conclude that active vocabulary is all the words used in daily activities, partly while, passive vocabulary is all the words recognized and understood, and not necessarily used. According to Elizabeth Davy and Karen Davy (2006:29) the context of the word is the setting in which the word occurs in speech or in written materials. You usually learn words by hearing or seeing them in context, and developing this ability will help you learn more words.

**Contextual Vocabulary**

Contextual Vocabulary is to acquire word knowledge from reading requires adequate decoding skills, the ability to recognize that a word is unknown, and the competency of being able to extract meaningful information about the word from the context (Bringing Words to Life: Beck, Mckeown, Kucan, 2002).

**The Strategies of Defining Words from Context**

In some cases if you come across an unusual word, the definition of the word is close to it. Try to understand the definition and apply it to the word in context. Look for another word or phrase in the context that has the same meaning. In some contexts, direct clues are not given but are implied. In this case you must think about the context and guess what the meaning of the word can be. Even if you are cannot determine its exact meaning, you will be able to determine its general meaning. Every time you read, practice looking for contextual clues. This will encourage you to analyze the meaning of what you read and will also train you to think about words and their meanings.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The problem of this study is: Is there any positive correlation between students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension?
THE SIGNIFICANCES OF STUDY

The significances are:
1) Give English teachers some inputs, so they are able to know the correlation between students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension. So they will be wise in teaching their students both vocabulary and reading.
2) Motivate students to increase their spirit in studying vocabulary for increasing their reading comprehension.
3) Enrich the students of Teacher Training and Education more knowledge in teaching students.
4) Help other researchers who are interested in conducting a much deeper research on students’ achievement in vocabulary with their reading comprehension.

METHODOLOGY

The method of research was a descriptive quantitative. As mentioned in the previous section correlation is statistical technique that can show whether and how strongly pairs of variables are related. In completing the data, the writers used the field research. In the field research, the writers conducted the research for the students at the second year SMA Negeri 5, Medan. The writers gave a test to the students and asked them to answer the question that the writers made. This research conducted the correlation method; with the analysis of Product Moment according to Karl Pearson. It is usually a use to correlate two variables based on its correlation coefficient value. It is useful to describe and find out the significance of the correlation between those two variables, variable X and variable Y. There are two kinds of variables in this research; the first variable is the students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary score which is taken by how many vocabularies that they know from the test given. It is considered as independent variable (variable X). The second variable is their Reading comprehension score which is taken from their comprehension in reading with the texts; we considered it as dependent variable (variable Y).

The subject of this study was the second year students of SMA Methodist 1 Medan Class XII IPA in the Academic Year of 2014/2015. There were three parallel classes at this school as the population, which were distributed into Class XII IPA 1 consisted of 35 students, Class XII IPA 2 consisted of 38 students, and Class XII IPA 3 consisted of 40 students. The sample research in this study was the students of class XII IPA 3, which was selected by cluster sampling. The reason why the writers selected SMA Swasta Methodist 1 Medan as the location of the research was because as far as the writers knew, no other researchers ever conducted a research of students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension.

The instrument of this study was Reading Test. The writers made a test to know the correlation between students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary and their reading comprehension. The reading test was in a form of multiple choice that consisted of 40 items with four alternatives. The alternatives included one correct answer and three wrong answers. The 40 items of the multiple choice test contained of four passages and from each passage the writers made a question on reading comprehension including question of vocabulary, main idea, detail, not detail, and inference. In completing the data, the next step of this research was collecting the data; the function of data collecting was to determine the result of the research. In collecting data, the writers used some techniques.
Field Research

In this research the writers gave a test to the students of class XI IPA 3 at SMA Swasta Methodist 1 Medan. This test focused on the vocabulary test and reading test.

Testing

The writers used a test. The test consisted of 40 items and divided into two parts; the first was vocabulary test, which consisted of 20 items. The second was reading comprehension, which also consisted of 20 items.

In order to know the correlation between students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary and comprehending reading text, the writers calculated the coefficient correlation between these variables by using Pearson product moment formula by Karl Pearson as follows:

\[
T_{xy} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{(n-1)\delta_x \delta_y} = \frac{n \sum x_i y_i - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{\sqrt{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2} \sqrt{n \sum y_i^2 - (\sum y_i)^2}}.
\]

The Result of Reliability of the Test

After getting the raw scores of the two tests, the writers calculated the interval (I), the mean (M) and the standard deviation (SD). The following formulas were applied in calculating each of them.

**The Interval (I)**

\[
I = \text{the highest score} (H) - \text{the lowest score} (L)
\]

**Class Interval**

**The Mean (M)**

\[
M = \frac{\sum x}{N}
\]

**The Standard Deviation (SD)**

\[
SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (fd)^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum fd}{N}\right)^2}.
\]
Table 1: The Calculation of the Interval, Mean and Standard Deviation of Students’ Mastery of Contextual Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>fd</th>
<th>fd²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84 – 89</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>79 – 83</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73 – 78</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67 – 72</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>-6</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 – 66</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-9</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 – 60</td>
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<td>-4</td>
<td>-28</td>
<td>787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49 – 54</td>
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<td>-5</td>
<td>-15</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 – 48</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-6</td>
<td>-12</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N = 40</td>
<td>-51</td>
<td>1542</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interval**
From that table, it can be seen the data, the highest score is 95, the lowest score is 45 and class interval is 9. So, it can be calculated as the following:
I = \( \frac{95 - 45}{9} = \frac{50}{9} = 5,6 \)

**The Mean**
M = \( \frac{2925}{40} = 76,125 \)

**The Standard Deviation**
To know the standard deviation (SD), it can be taken from the table above. Therefore, it can be seen as follows:
Interval (I) = 5,6
The total number of frequency deviation (fd) = -51
The total number of frequency deviation kuadran (fd)² = 1542
The total number of students = 40
So, the calculation of the data can be seen as in the following:

\[
SD = 5,6 \sqrt{\frac{1542 - (-51)^2}{40 - (40)^2}} \\
= 5,6 \sqrt{\frac{1542 - 2601}{40 - 1600}} \\
= 5,6 \sqrt{\frac{38,55}{1600}} \\
= 5,6 \sqrt{36,925} \\
= 5,6 \times 6,08 \\
= 34,03
\]

In the last step, it can be calculated the reliability of the data. The data can be taken from the number of questions (K) is 20 items, Mean (M) is 76,125 and standard deviation (SD) is 34,03. So, the reliability of students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary test can be calculated as follows:
\[(KR21) = \frac{K}{K - 1} \left[ 1 - \frac{M \left( K - M \right)}{K \times SD^2} \right] \]

\[
= \frac{20}{20 - 1} \left[ 1 - \frac{76,125 \left( 20 - 76,125 \right)}{20 \times (34,03)^2} \right] 
\]

\[
= \frac{20}{19} \left[ 1 - \frac{76,125 \left( -56,125 \right)}{20 \times 1158,04} \right] 
\]

\[
= 1,05 \left[ \frac{4273,5}{23160} \right] 
\]

\[= 0.86\]

**Table 2: The Calculation of the Interval, Mean and Standard Deviation of Students’ Reading Comprehension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>fd</th>
<th>fd²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>95 – 100</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89 – 94</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83 – 88</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77 – 82</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71 – 76</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 – 70</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-14</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59 – 64</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-15</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 – 58</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47 – 52</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-5</td>
<td>-10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interval**

From that table, it can be seen the data, the highest score is 95, the lowest score is 50, and class interval is 10. So, it can be calculated as the following:

\[I = \frac{95 - 50}{10} = 4,5\]

**The Mean**

\[M = \frac{3160}{40} = 81,625\]

**The Standard Deviation**

To know the standard deviation (SD), it can be taken from the table above. Therefore, it can be seen as follows:

Interval \((I) = 4,5\)

The total number of frequency deviation \((fd) = 2\)

The total number of frequency deviation kuadrat \((fd)^2 = 1380\)

The total number of students = 40
So, the calculation of the data can be seen as in the following:

\[
SD = 4.5 \sqrt{\frac{1380 - (2)^2}{40}}
\]

\[
= 4.5 \sqrt{\frac{1380 - 4}{40}}
\]

\[
= 4.5 \sqrt{\frac{34.5}{1600}}
\]

\[
= 4.5 \times 5.87
\]

\[= 26.415\]

In the last step, it can be calculated the reliability of the data. The data can be taken from the number of questions (K) is 20 items, Mean (M) is 81.625 and standard deviation (SD) is 26.415, So, the reliability of students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary test can be calculated as follows:

\[
(KR21) = \frac{K}{K - 1} \left[ 1 - \frac{M}{K \times SD} \right] - \frac{M^2}{(K - 1) \times (K - 2)}
\]

\[
= \frac{20}{20 - 1} \left[ 1 - \frac{81.625}{20 \times (26.415)^2} \right] - \frac{81.625^2}{(20 - 2) \times 697.75}
\]

\[
= \frac{20}{19} \left[ 1 - \frac{81.625 (-61.625)}{20 \times 697.75} \right]
\]

\[
= 1.05 \times 0.36
\]

\[= 0.67\]

From the data collected, it can be seen that the calculating of Interval, Mean and Standard Deviation from two tests were:

1. Students’ Mastery of Contextual Vocabulary: interval of the data was 5.6, the mean was 76.125 and the standard deviation was 34.03. The highest and lowest score were 95 and 45. And the reliability of the tests was 0.86.

2. Students’ Reading Comprehension: interval of the data was 4.5, the mean was 81.625, and the standard deviation was 26.415. The highest and the lowest scores were 95 and 50. And the reliability of the tests was 0.67.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The researchers draws the findings as follows:

1. There is a significance correlation between students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension.

2. The hypothesis is accepted as it is proven that the r value is higher than the coefficient correlation (0.572 > 0.304 or 0.304 < 0.572).
Based on the data and data analysis above, it can be concluded that analysis is important to find out the correlation between Students’ Mastery of Contextual Vocabulary and Students’ Reading Comprehension. In order to know how much the correlation coefficient between both of them is, the two variables were calculated by using Pearson’s Product Moment formula as follows:

\[
r_{xy} = \frac{n \sum x_i y_i - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{\sqrt{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2} \sqrt{n \sum y_i^2 - (\sum y_i)^2}}.
\]

From the previous data, correlation coefficient of both variables can be calculated as in the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
&= \frac{40 (289625) - (2925)(3160)}{\sqrt{40 (224075) - (2925)^2 x 40 (254400) - (3160)^2}} \\
&= \frac{11585000 - 9243000}{\sqrt{8963000 - 8555625} x (10176000 - 9985600)} \\
&= \frac{2342000}{\sqrt{77564200000}} \\
&= 0.572
\end{align*}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.800 to 1.000</td>
<td>very high correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.600 to 0.800</td>
<td>high correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.400 to 0.600</td>
<td>enough correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2000 to 0.400</td>
<td>low correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.000 to 0.2000</td>
<td>no correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUSION**

1. The calculation of the value of \( r_{xy} \) is 0.572, the critical value of the correlation with \( df = 38 \) is 0.304 for the 0.05 level of significance.
2. It showed that the observed \( r \) value is higher than the coefficient correlation (0.572 > 0.304 or 0.304 < 0.572).
3. It means that the hypothesis of this research was accepted. Therefore it can be concluded that there was a significance correlation between students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension.

In relation to the conclusions above, some points are suggested as follows:

1. If the students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary is good, they will be able to comprehend the reading text, and the students can get a good result in reading comprehension. So, the students have to master their ability in guessing the meaning of vocabulary from the context.
2. The teachers are suggested to pay more attention to the students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary in teaching reading process.
3. Other researchers are suggested to do the further research on students’ mastery of Contextual Vocabulary in other material or skill, such as listening, speaking and writing.

**Limitation of the Study**

This study focused on the on the correlation between students’ mastery of contextual vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension of the second grade students in SMA Swasta Methodist 1 Medan. The
A researcher tried to find out the correlation between students’ mastery of contextual vocabulary and students’ reading comprehension of the second grade students in SMA Swasta Methodist 1 Medan based on the theory proposed by Karl Pearson (2006).

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GENDER DIFFERENCES IN USING LANGUAGE:
MEN AND WOMEN LANGUAGE IN DESA GAROGA
TAPANULI UTARA, INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT
The issue of differences between men and women in using language have been studied long time before. However, there must have differences when men and women speak. This paper discusses the differences of men and women in Desa Garoga Tapanuli Utara, Indonesia in using language from the aspects of vocabulary, manners, and attitudes differences. Differences in the way men and women speak are unquestionable. It can be observed that men and women have a lot of differences at every level of language organization. The data are in the form of clauses used by men and women in Desa Garoga Tapanuli Utara in February 2017. We can see that women are addressed differently from men, such as women are more likely than men to be addressed. Women are inferior to men in society, so they appear to be non-assertive when they talk. Women are very conscious about their status and curiosity, and they long for a better position in society. Besides the differences in various aspects, this paper exhibit as well as also can see form men and women in Desa Garoga Tapanuli utara, Indonesia that cultural background influences men’s and women’s behavior including their language.

KEYWORDS: Language and gender, clauses, vocabulary, pronunciation, manners, and attitudes differences

INTRODUCTION
The existence of correlations between language and gender has been noticed practically from the very start of systematic reflection on language, though it was interpreted differently in different periods of history. The study of gender is important to the study of language. The first step to study gender is to explore the difference between men and women. It is quite clear that men and women have a lot of differences in many fields. Generally speaking, females have more fat and less muscle physically; women are not as strong as men and they mature more rapidly and usually have a longer life span. Females and males often show different advantages and skills in
doing their work. So the differences in the way women and men speak are unquestionable and they can be observed at every level of organization of language and speech in the use of different styles and communication strategies. The view that women and men use different strategies and styles of communication is considered a fact in the literature. (Handke, 1990; Tannen, 1986, 1990). Gender in language is usually defined by the relation between natural gender and grammatical gender (Handke, 1994a). According to West and Zimmerman (1987), gender is not something we are born with and not something we have, but something we do something we perform (butler 1990).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
General usage of the term gender began in the late 1960s and 1970s, increasingly the professional literature of the social sciences. The term helps in distinguishing those aspects of life that were more easily attributed or understood to be of social rather than biological origin (see e.g., Unger & Crawford, 1992) and also according to Aristotle, the Greek philosopher Protagoras used the terms masculine, feminine, and neuter to classify nouns, but concept of grammatical gender, because gender as a grammatical category. To further studies on language and gender and even before examining the procedures, a brief explanation factors with respect to men’s and women’s speech will also be mentioned in this paper.

Besides some physical reasons, we are aware that social factors may account for some of the differences. Such as, women may live longer than men because of the different roles they play in society and the different jobs they tend to do. Men usually have to undertake more pressure than women in life. The paper will examine the differences from the following aspects.

1. Differences in Pronunciation
Phonological differences between the speech of men and women have been noted in a variety of languages. Usually women’s pronunciation is better than men’s

2. Differences in Intonation
Women often like to speak in a high-pitch voice because of physiological reason, but scientists point out that this also associates with women’s “timidity” and “emotional instability”. Besides the high-pitch voice, women prefer to use reverse accent as well.

Example: Husband: When will dinner be ready?
Wife: Around six o’clock..

The wife is the only one who knows the answer, but she answers her husband with a high rise tone, which has the meaning “will that do”. This kind of intonation suggests women’s gentility and docility. The husband will surely feel his wife’s respect.

3. Differences in Vocabulary
We can notice that men and women tend to choose different words to show their feelings. The differences in vocabulary can be shown in the following five aspects:

a. Color Words
There is special feminine vocabulary in English that men may not, dare not or will not use. Women are good at using color words that were borrowed from French to describe things, such as mauve, lavender aquamarine, azure and magenta, etc, but most men do not use them.

b. Adjectives
In our everyday life, we can notice that women like to use many adjective, such as adorable, charming, lovely, fantastic, heavenly, but men seldom use them. When a woman leaves a restaurant, she will say “It’s a gorgeous meal”. If a man wants to express the same idea, he may only say, “It’s a good meal.” Using more adjectives to describe things and their feelings can show that women are more sensitive to the environment and more likely to express their emotions with words, which makes women’s language more interesting than men’s sometimes.

c. Adverbs
There are also differences in the use of adverbs between men and women. Women tend to use such adverbs like awfully, pretty, terribly, vastly, quite, so; men like to use very, utterly, really. In 1992, Jespersen found that women use more so than men do, such as, “It was so interesting” is often uttered by a woman.

d. Swear words and Expletives
Women and men usually avoid using swear words and dirty words. They believe that these kinds of words will not only make others uncomfortable and give an impression of “no civilization”, but also destroy the relationship between her and others. Women always pay more attention to the grace of themselves and their use of language. We rarely hear that women utter such words like “damn, fuck you, hell,” instead they use “oh, dear, my god” to express their feelings. Let us examine the following examples:
Woman : Dear me! Do you always get up so late? It’s one o’clock!
Man : Shit! The train is late again!

We can often here similar ways of expressing shock in every day life. Men tend to use more swear words than men. Women pay more attention to their manners and politeness of using language.

e. Diminutives
Women like to use words that have the meaning of “small”, such as bookie, hanky, panties. They also like to use words that show affections, such as dearie, sweetie. If a man often uses these words, people will think that he may have psychological problem or he is not manly. Furthermore, women like to use words that show politeness, such as please, thanks, and they use more euphemism, but “slang” is considered to be men’s preference.

f. Pronouns
Women prefer to use first person plural pronouns when they suggest something, even when she suggests the other person, while men tend to use first person singular pronoun, and when he is suggesting the other person, he will directly use the second person pronoun.
4. **Difference in Syntax**

Though there are no specific rules that govern different gender to use different grammar, we can observe these differences in almost every language.

**a. Modulation**

When a woman talks, she often takes what others think into consideration. She usually leaves a decision open rather than imposes her own ideas or claims on others. We often hear a woman say “well, you know..., I think..., I suppose..., kind of, maybe I am wrong but..., etc.

When they want to get help from others, men and women express in different ways as the following:

Women: I was wondering if you can help me.

Men: please give me a hand.

From the above example we can see men tend to ask something directly, while women tend to be more polite.

**b. Interrogative sentences**

Women use more interrogative sentences than men do. Women look interrogative sentences as a strategy of using language.

**c. Imperative sentences**

A study observed a group of boys and girls on one street in Philadelphia, and the study found that the imperative sentences that the boys and girls use were different. The boys used a lot of imperative sentences but the girls used more “let’s patterns”.

Example: Boy: Give me an apple!

Girl: Would you give me an apple?

Boy: It’s time to go.

Girl: Let’s go.

**d. Correctness of grammar**

Women pay more attention to the correctness of syntax. While expressing her thoughts, she would make her utterance clear by using precise grammar.

Example: Woman: We are going to g to the park today.

Men: We are gonna to the park today.

5. **Differences in Their Attitudes toward Language**

Women pay more attention to using standard language than men do, so they are stricter with the rules of the use of language.

Example: Man: Are you comin”?

Woman: Are you coming?

Women tend to use the standard form. This point is emphasized in the difference of pronunciation.
6. Non-verbal Differences: Differences in Manners

We have mentioned that women usually show politeness in their conversation, such as he use of “would you, please, etc.” Besides this, women also show that they are reserved when they talk. The following table is based on the research of Zimmerman and West on the interruptions men and women made in a conversation.

SOME POSSIBLE FACTORS

In a recent set of studies about the physical differences between the two genders, phonological processing in males was shown to be located in the left of the brain and in females to involve both left and right parts of the brain. No difference in efficiency was shown, nor is there any evidence so far that any neurophysiologic difference accounts for differences between the two groups in using language, so we can get the conclusion that the causes are social rather than physical. We can explore this issue from three aspects.

1) Different Psychology

It’s an accepted idea that women are more careful, sensitive and considerate than men. Before a woman talks, she usually thinks the effect her words will cause, so she often appears to be more polite. On the contrary, men appear to be rash, and they just say what they want to say and seldom care what others think, so men’s speech is usually blunt and solid.

2) Different Social Status

Of the social causes of gender differences in speech style, one of the most critical is level of education. In all studies, it has been shown that the greater the differences between educational opportunities for boys and girls, the greater the differences between male and female speech. Usually, in many parts of the world, males are expected to spend longer time in schools. When offered an equal educational opportunity, there seems to be a tendency for women to be more sensitive than men to the status norms of the language.

Women’s social status makes them appear to be submissive to men. Women are more conscious of using languages which associate with their “betters” in society, that is, those they regard as being socially superior.

3) Different Cultural Background

For whatever languages, there are peoples’ unique life styles and modes of thinking behind them. It’s these life styles and modes of thinking that make the rules of languages, so language is also a kind of cultural phenomenon.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to know gender differences in using language in daily social context. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. How do the two genders different in many ways in desa Garoga Tapanuli Utara?
2. What factors make it different?
METHODOLOGY
This study is a descriptive qualitative research, because the writer purposes to describe, analyze and elaborate English from the conversation of Indonesian men and women in their activities. The researchers focuses on direct conversation. The data are in the form of clauses uses by the men and women. The method of the research in this study used descriptive qualitative. Bogdan and Biklan (1992:30) said, ‘qualitative research is descriptive. The data collection are in the form of words are pictures rather than numbers’. Qualitative method describes the phenomena that occur naturally. It doesn’t manipulate the certain situation. The phenomena that discussed in this research is language differences of men and women in Desa Garoga Tapanuli utara, Indonesia. Observation used in this research has the instrument of Data Collection. The observation was used to investigate or to get the phenomena that happen in Desa Garoga Tapanuli utara Indonesia for young people. An interview to look for the information about the language and this research also use documentary. To give visual description of the environment when and where the study is conducted In this study the researcher used observation and interview as the instrument of collecting data.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
Women are addressed differently from men, such as women are more likely than men to be addressed. Women are inferior to men in society, so they appear to be non-assertive when they talk. Women are very conscious about their status and curiosity, and they long for a better position in society. They use standard language. As Lakoff said in 1975 that the distinction between men”s and women”s language is a symptom of a problem in culture, and not primarily the problem itself. So in this section we can see form men and women in Desa Garoga Tapanuli utara, Indonesia that cultural background influences men”s and women”s behavior including their language.

Data analysis
The differences between men and women in language have been noted in a variety of languages. Usually women”s pronunciation is better than men”s. In this paper indeed didn’t analyze directly how men and women produce the language orally. However from the text or chatting written with understanding the context, we can understand that the language written by women smoother and its differences in Intonation. Women often like to speak in a high-pitch voice because of physiological reason, but scientists point out that this also associates with women”s “timidity” and “emotional instability”. Besides the high-pitch voice, women prefer to use reverse accent as well.

Data 1
Tina : makanya jangan lagi yaa (Do not do it anymore)
Joe : iya inang (alright dear)
Tina : aku bukan kakakmu loh, bukan inangmu juga (I am not your sister and not your dear too)
Lakoff (1975) says that women usually answer a question with rising intonation pattern rather than falling intonation. In this way, they can show their gentleness, and sometimes this intonation shows a lack of confidence. In this conversation, Tina has already stressed that she didn’t like called with mentioning “inang”. When she is called for several times then the intonation changes. The other differences also can be seen from how production of vocabulary at chatting/conversation. We can notice that men and women tend to choose different words to show their feelings.

Data 2
The differences in vocabulary can be shown in the following five aspects: Color Words, adjectives, adverbs, Swear words and Expletives, and diminutes. There is special feminine vocabulary in English that men may not, dare not or will not use. Using more adjectives to describe things and their feelings can show that women are more sensitive to the environment and more likely to express their emotions with words, which makes women’s language more interesting than men’s sometimes. Women tend to use such adverbs like awfully, pretty, terribly, vastly, quite, so; men like to use very, utterly, really. We can often here similar ways of expressing shock in every day life. Men tend to use more swear words than men. Women pay more attention to their manners and politeness of using language. Women like to use words that show politeness, such as please, thanks, and they use more euphemism; but “slang” is considered to be men’s preference. Women prefer to use first person plural pronouns when they suggest something, even when she suggests the other person, while men tend to use first person singular pronoun, and when he is suggesting the other person, he will directly use the second person pronoun.

   Do not be snobs in chit chat. So, you want to join? Only there we are
2. Tina: hahah beneran mu joe? Mau pakai gereja.. atau sama cewekmu? Ya gak kurang lagilah
   (hahah you serious Joe? Use to go to church or you’ll give it to your girl? Yah not less anymore
3. Joe: untuk bang riko (for brother Riko)
4. Harris: hmm cepat kali pulang (hmm you come home so fast)
   Ecy: cepat gimana udah tengah malam (how can so fast? Its midnight already)

Data 3
Let’s see again for their difference in Syntax, Though there are no specific rules that govern different gender to use different grammar, we can observe these differences in almost every language. When a woman talks, she often takes what others think into consideration. She usually leaves a decision open rather than imposes her own ideas or claims on others. We often hear a woman say “well, you know..., I think..., I suppose...,kind of, maybe I am wrong but..., etc. In using Interrogative sentences, Women use more interrogative sentences than men do. Women look interrogative sentences as a strategy of.

Harris : kamu lagi apa dek? (what are you doing sis?)
Ecy: gak ngapa ngapain, kenapa? (nothing, why?)
Harris: gabung kek (come on join)
Ecy: gabung kemana? (join to?)
Harris: gak jalan-jalan kau? (you don’t go out?)
Ecy: jalan-jalan kemana? (go out to?)
Harris: ke Pantai (the beach)
Ecy : aku kira ke pantai (I suppose Mall)

Data 4
In Imperative sentences, The boys used a lot of imperative sentences but the girls used more “let”s patterns”.
Joe: oh iya dengar-dengar lagi dekat dengan bang riko ya? Kok pada dp (profil bbm) sandri dan bg lubi tuh foto kalian dua?(I hear you closer to brother Riko? Why Sandri’s and Lubis’ photo profile made yours?)
Tina: hahaha dekat darimana? Dari samping? Kerjaan si sandri sama bg lubi tuh kemarin pas kita nongkrong difoto. Gak tauh itu :D (haha closer from where? From beside? It was only a joke of Sandri and lubi from yesterday while having dinner. I don’t know why)

Data 5
In Correctness of grammar, Women pay more attention to the correctness of syntax. While expressing her thoughts, she would make her utterance clear by using precise grammar.
Tina: gak kerja? Awak sibuk nih (you don’t working? I am very busy now)
Joe: sibuk kok pegang hp bbman? Sok sibuk si kakak ini (busy but you can chat by phone? So snobs this sista)

Data 6
They have also have Differences in Their Attitudes toward Language. Women pay more attention to using standard language than men do, so they are stricter with the rules of the use of language.
“kalau nanti malam kira-kira jam 18.30 bisa makan disini rumah?”
(in afternoon about 18.30 can we have a dinner here at home?)

Data 7
Women tend to use the standard form. This point is emphasized in the difference of pronunciation. Non-verbal Differences: Differences in Manners, women show politeness in their conversation, such as he use of “would you, please, etc.” Besides this, women also show that they are reserved when they talk. The following table is based on the research of Zimmerman and West on the interruptions men and women made in a conversation.
“bang kemarin kan abang ngajak makan dirumah, kalau nanti malam kira-kira jam 18.30 bisa makan dirumah? Biar tau kami masaknya.. hehe”
(brother, yesterday brother asked me to have a dinner at my home, if in afternoon about 18.30, can we have a dinner? So we know how to prepare.. hehe)

CONCLUSION
This research expands the differences of men and women in Desa Garoga Tapanuli Utara from the aspects of pronunciation, vocabulary, manners, attitudes, and non-verbal differences in using language while communicate. According to the analysis of the three samples of conversation
between men and women in text, we can find that there is great difference between men and women in using language. In many ways they have differences, Women pay more attention to using standard language than men do; men and women tend to choose different words to show their feelings, women like to use words that show politeness and so many more. For succeeding in taking the three tactics of examining, they seems very careful in choosing their words and questions but no in that way. By comparison, the differences come into their utterances when speak. However, both men and women usually do not want to use dirty sentence and men always try to respect what women only want to answer and know. The result of the analysis gives suggestions for the reader men and women to use language in a successful way. As for the ordinary people in communications, the choice of different language in strategies and ways will give others different impression, which influences the chance of a successful communication.

Limitation of the study
The researchers focuses on the chatting conversation of men and women in Desa Garoga Tapanuli Utara, Indonesia taken from different conversation. The pages of the written chatting that we analyze are 3 pages. The data are in the form of clauses used by men and women in Desa Garoga in February 2017

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STUDENTS’ ERROR IN USING SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE AT THE SECOND GRADE OF SMK NEGERI 3 MEDAN

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ABSTRACT
This research is aimed to find out the kind of errors, the dominant error and the solution to minimize the second grade students’ error at SMK NEGERI 3 Medan in using simple present tense. The subject of this research was class XI-3 that consisted of 30 students. The researcher used a descriptive qualitative method. The instrument for collecting the data was completion test which consisted of 25 items and observation. From the result of this research, the researcher found out there were 4 types of errors made by the students in using simple present tense that were 1074 (85.92%) case of errors on misformation as the type of dominant; 130 (10.4%) case of errors on addition; 28 (2.24%) case of errors on omission; and 18 (1.44%) case of errors on misordering. To minimize the students’ error in using simple present tense, the researcher also used her own way instead to apply the snowball throwing method.

KEYWORDS: Error, Simple Present Tense

INTRODUCTION
The Background of the Study
Grammar is generally thought to be a set of rules specifying the correct ordering of words at the sentence level. The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (Richards, Platt and Weber, 1985) in Nunan’s book (2003) defines it as “a description of the structure of a language and the way in which units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language”. According to Hidayah (2013:2), grammar is the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. It means that grammar is as the guidance of writing for students to make the correct sentences and to convey the message property in particular written form.

Grammar is known dominantly related to tense. To make a sentence in English either written or spoken, tense has very important role because tense expresses an action happened based on time. Jabbari (2013:245) explains that tense refers to the grammatical changes made to the form of a verb, as opposed to time, which refers to the semantic functions such changes signal. In English, each sentence should have tense. It affects verb in sentences so that there are four verbs that need be mastered. They are in the form of present, past, past participle and present progressive.
In using English tenses, the students even have problem and always make errors either in oral or written on the basic tense such as simple present tense. Simple present tense is the tense for description, definition, and statements of general truth. Azar (2006:53) states that simple present tense expresses habits. Students’ error on this tense can include the form of verb, using of adjective and adverb, the lack of vocabulary or even in making affirmative, negative and interrogative sentences.

The four main skills of teaching English language are reading, listening, speaking, and writing. They are divided into two categories such as receptive skills and productive skills. Reading and listening are considered receptive skills whereas speaking and writing are known as productive skills. Writing is one of the four basic skills. The students start learning to communicate through written form as they begin to interact with others at school level. The writing skill is more complicated than that of other language skills.

In this study, the researcher takes three previous studies. The first study was done by Muneera Muftah and Shameem Rafik – Galea, English Language Teaching (2013) entitled “Error Analysis of Present Simple Tense in the Interlanguage of Adult Arab English Language Learners”. This research is aimed to the present study analyses errors on present simple tense among adult Arab English language learners. It focuses on the error on 3 sg. –s (the third person singular present tense agreement morpheme-s). The learners are undergraduate adult Arabic speakers learning English as a foreign language. The study gathered data from two types of instruments: a Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT comprising both grammatical and ungrammatical items and an Elicited Written Production Task (EWPT). Both tasks were designed to test the learners’ underlying knowledge of present simple tense morphology in the Interlanguage (ILG) of adult Arab English language learners. The GJT comprised 12 grammatically/correctly inflected items, 6 omission items (OI) and 6 wrongly/incorrectly inflected items (WI).

The second study was conducted by Ahmad Taufik Hidayah bin Abdullah (2013) entitled “ Error Analysis on The Use of The Simple Tense and The Simple Past Tense in Writing Essay Among TESL College Students”. This research focuses on college students taking a diploma course in Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL). Objectives of this study are to identify the areas where students commit most errors on the use of the simple present tense and the simple past tense, to find out some sources of errors and subsequently try finding ways to solve the errors. Instruments used in this research are by using essay writing questions. Analysis of the data used Error Analysis Method.

The third one was carried out by Murad Hasan Mohammed Sawalme (2013) entitled Error Analysis of Written English Essay: The Case of the Students of the Preparatory Year Program in Saudi Arabia. The present study attempts to investigate the errors in a corpus of 32 essays written by 32 Arabic-speaking Saudi learners of English. The instrument used for this study was participants’ written essays in English language. All of the errors in these essays were identified and classified into different categorizations. The results show that the Arabic speakers in this study committed ten common errors.
The Problem of the Study
Based on the background of the study, the researcher tried to identify the problem of the study as following:
1. What kind of errors did the students of SMK NEGERI 3 Medan make in using simple present tense?
2. What were the dominant errors made by the students of SMK NEGERI 3 Medan in using simple present tense?
3. How to minimize the students’ error of SMK NEGERI 3 Medan in using simple present tense?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
The research discussed clearly about students’ error in using simple present tense which completed by some theories to support the content of this following sub chapters.

Error
In learning second language, it is still found many errors that made by students. According to Somphong (2013), errors are “the result of some failure of performance” and differentiated errors from mistakes in the way that errors are systematic in nature being “errors of competence” which occur in the continuum of the learning process.

Types of Error
Based on Omidipour (2014:180), errors are classified into four subcategories. They are:

1. Omission
Omission is considered to be the absence of an item that should appear in a well-formed utterance.
For example: My sister does read a math book every day.
It should be omitted by the word of ‘Not’ because it is the negative form.

2. Addition
Addition is considered to be the presence of an item that should not appear in a well-formed utterance.
For example: Does the boy watches TV?
In this example, it shouldn’t add –s on verb.

3. Misformation
Misformation is considered to be the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure.
For example: My friend and I am diligent.
It should be my friend and I are diligent.

4. Misordering
Misordering is considered to be the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.
For example: They not are at school. The correct version is they are not at school.

**Error Analysis**
Muneera and Shameem (2013:146) has contended that error analysis includes the study and analysis of the errors made by the learners of a second or a foreign language.

Khalid (2013:167) maintained that error analysis determines what a learner still needs to learn. It provides the necessary information about what is needed in his or her competence.

**Mistake**
Brown (2007:257) says that mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a slip, in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. Mistakes, when attention is called to them, can be self-corrected.

While Khatri (2015:6) writes that a mistake is not an issue of knowledge, but it is an issue of its application, how one applies in writings.

**Mistake and Error**
According to Khatri (2015), many mistakes are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the new language and, the inability to apply what they have learned. While Somphong (2013) defined “an error” as a systematic deviation that happens when a learner has not learnt something and consistently “get(s) it wrong. Another definition from Krisnawati (2013), errors reflect gaps in a learner’s knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes, on the other hand, reflect occasional lapses in performance because the learner is unable to perform what she knows.

**The Sources of Error**
Murad (2013) states that two main sources of error are namely interlingual errors and intralingual errors:

1. **Interlingual Errors**
   Interlingual (Interference) errors are those errors that are traceable to first language interference. These errors are attributable to negative interlingual transfer.

2. **Intralingual Errors**
   This kind of errors occurs during the learning process of the second language at a stage when the learners have not really acquired the knowledge.

**Definition of Tense**
The International Encyclopedia of Linguistics (1992, entry 'Tense, aspect and mood' in Jabbari’s journal) elaborates tense as follows:
“Tense "refers to the grammatical expression of the time of the situation described in the proposition, relative to some other time. This other time may be the moment of speech: e.g., the
Past and Future designate time before the moment of speech, respectively…..Tense is expressed by inflections, by particles, or by auxiliaries in connection with the verb.”

**Kinds of Tense**

According to Murthy (2003:151), kinds of tense has the different usage. They are:

1. Simple present tense
2. Present Continuous Tense
3. Present Perfect Tense
4. Present Perfect continuous Tense
5. Simple Past Tense
6. Past Continuous Tense
7. Past Perfect Tense
8. Past Perfect Continuous Tense
9. Simple Future Tense
10. Future Continuous Tense
11. Future Perfect Tense
12. Future Perfect Continuous Tense

**Simple Present Tense**

Murthy (2003:20) says that when a verb is used to show that an action takes place at present, it is known as the present tense. In this case, verb in simple present form is influenced by pronouns. Pronouns consist of singular and plural. Specially for pronouns 3sg (he, she, it) is added the form – s into verb and the other pronouns (I, you, we, they) are not. Verb has two parts that are verbal and nominal.

Verbal
It refers to a sentence which contains verb in action form. Here it is commonly the form of simple present tense in verbal:

Form 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>verb 1</th>
<th>s/es</th>
<th>(+)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>do/does</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>verb 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do/does</td>
<td>subject</td>
<td>verb 1</td>
<td>(?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nominal
It refers to a sentence which does not include verb in action such as noun, adjective and adverb. It mainly uses ‘BE’ on each sentences. This is the form of nominal:

Form 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>to be (is, am, are)</th>
<th>noun/adj/adv</th>
<th>(+)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>to be (is, am, are)</td>
<td>not + noun/adj/adv</td>
<td>(-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be  (is, am, are)</td>
<td>subject</td>
<td>noun/adj/adv</td>
<td>(?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The signal time of simple present tense is Every day; every …… (morning, afternoon, evening, night, week, month, year etc); tonight; once…, twice…..(a week, a month, weeks, months etc).

The Meaning of Sentence
According to Morley (2000:25), the sentence is a textual unit which it has been convenient to adopt as the largest grammatical unit for the purposes of syntactic analysis.

Example: Man is a social animal by nature.
Honesty is the best policy.

Kinds of Sentence
Murthy (2003:235) states that sentences are divided into five kinds, namely:
1. Declarative Sentence
2. Interrogative Sentence
3. Imperative Sentence
4. Exclamatory Sentence
5. Optative Sentence

Declarative and Interrogative Sentences
1. Declarative Sentence
Murar et.al (2011:9) states that declarative sentence is primarily used to convey information under the form of Statements. A declarative sentence expresses some statement in the affirmative or negative form.
- Positive (Affirmative) sentences
  For example:
  a. He goes to school every day.
  b. You are an English teacher.
  c. The bird (it) is on the tree.

- Negative Sentence
  1. By negating the verb
     For example:
     a. He does not (doesn’t) go to school every day.
     b. You are not (aren’t) an English teacher.
     c. The bird is not (isn’t) on the tree.

  2. By negating another part of the sentence
     For example:
     a. Nobody comes here every morning.
     b. He is nowhere to be found.

2. Interrogative Sentence
According to Murthy (2003:235), interrogative sentence aims to asks a question. It uses the punctuation of question mark (?) at the end of sentence. Interrogative sentences are usually subdivided into General questions (Yes/No question) and special questions (Wh-question).
General questions (Yes/No questions)
For example:
  a. Does he go to school every day?
  b. Are you an English teacher?

Special questions (Wh-questions)
For example:
  a. What do they read?
  b. Who is he?

RESEARCH DESIGN
The researcher used the qualitative approach which involved the descriptive method in it. According to Ary (2010), Qualitative research focuses on understanding social phenomena from the perspective of the human participants in natural settings. There was one variable or a single case study that was students’ error in using simple present tense.

The Subject of the Study
This research was conducted at SMK NEGERI 3 Medan. It is located in Jl. Brigjend. Ha.Manaf Lubis Medan (the residence of Kodam I BB Gaperta). In taking the subject of the study, the researcher only chose XI-3 class which consisted of 30 students because the students in XI-3 still had less understanding as good as the other classes during my teaching practice at school.

The Instrument of Data Collection
To collect the data, the researcher gave the test for the students in the written form. This test consisted of 25 sentences which firstly student completed the blank space on positive sentence and then formed into the negative and interrogative sentence. In the other side, the researcher also observed the students in the classroom while they did the tests.

The Procedures of Data Collection
There were some steps conducted by the researcher to get the data collection. Those were as the following:
  a. The researcher gave the written test.
  b. The students were asked to complete the sentence for positive and then change into the negative and interrogative sentence.
  c. The students did the test.
  d. The students’ worksheets were collected by the researcher
  e. The errors were analyzed.

The Technique of Data Analysis
The researcher conducted some procedures in analyzing the students’ error stated as the following:
Checking the students’ worksheets.
Identifying the students’ error from their answers.
Classifying the errors based on the kinds of error namely: omission, addition, misformation and misordering.

Analyzing and calculating the errors’ percentage in the following formula below:

\[ P = \frac{F}{N} \times 100\% \]

In which,
- \( P \): The Percentage of Error
- \( F \): The Number of Category Error
- \( N \): The Total Number of Category Error

Finding out the dominant errors that the students made.

**Data**

The data of the study was an error data which produced by the students of SMK NEGERI 3 Medan in using simple present tense especially in positive, negative and interrogative sentences. This research was conducted on 26th January – 04th February 2017 and the subject was only one class which consists of 30 students. The researcher got the data with a written test.

The total number of errors made by the students in completing the positive sentences and changing into negative and interrogative sentences were 1248 cases which were divided into:

a. Error of omission : 28 errors (2.24%)
b. Error of addition : 130 errors (10.4%)c. Error of misformation : 1074 errors (85.92%)d. Error of misordering : 18 errors (1.44%)

Such the calculation of data above, the dominant error made by the students was mostly on error of misformation with the total number of 1074 errors (85.92%). The second common error was on error of addition with 130 errors (10.4%). The third common error was on error of omission with 28 errors (2.24%), and the last one was on error of misordering with 18 errors (1.44%).

**Data Analysis**

After these errors were analyzed, they were categorized into four categories of errors and calculated per category of errors to find out the percentage of each category of errors. Then, it could be decided the dominant error that the students made in completing the positive sentences and changing into negative and interrogative sentences.

**Type of Errors**

*Error of Omission*

The researcher found out that there were 30 students’ error with the percentage of 2.24% in error of omission.

Example:
The class doesn’t begin at 07.30 every day.
It should be “The class doesn’t begin at 07.30 every day”. (Cause of error: the students did not understand the contraction of does not)
Error of Addition
In this research, there were 130 students’ error in omission error with the percentage of 10.4%. Example:
She does not watch the news and then a movie.
It should be “She does not watch the news and then a movie. (Cause of error: the students were influenced by the subject of 3sg without seeing the form of verb)

Error of Misformation
There were 1074 students’ error in misformation with the percentage of 85.92% in this research. Example:
Laura stays home at night.
It should be “Laura stays home at night”. (Cause of error: It was influenced by the lack of understanding in forming verb on 3sg)

Error of Misordering
There were 18 students’ error in type error of misordering with the percentage of 1.44%. Example:
The does not class begin at 07.30 every day.
It should be “The class does not begin at 07.30 every day. (The students were not able to identify the subject in sentence and they did not know the pattern of negative sentences)

FINDINGS
The result of data analysis showed that:
1. The total number of the students’ error in completing the positive sentences and changing into negative and interrogative sentences was 1250 case of errors. They were divided into four types namely: 28 (2.24%) errors of omission, 130 (10.4%) errors of addition, 1074 (85.92%) errors of misformation and 18 (1.44%) errors of misordering.
2. The dominant error made by the students in completing the positive and changing into negative and interrogative sentences was error of misformation with 1074 (85.92%) case of errors.
3. Based on the observation during teaching practice (PPL), the researcher had some solution to solve the students’ problem in using simple present tense in forming the positive, negative, and interrogative sentences. Firstly she made a fun learning with games which it worked as a team and secondly she applied the snowball throwing method as personal.

CONCLUSIONS
Based on the result of the research on the chapters before, the researcher concluded as the following:
1. The types of error made by the students of SMK NEGERI 3 Medan were namely: omission, addition, misformation and misordering.
2. Error of misformation was type of dominant error made by the students of SMK NEGERI 3 Medan in using simple present tense to form positive, negative, and interrogative sentences with 1074 case of errors (85, 92%) and while in addition 130 (10, 4%), omission 28 (2, 24%) and misordering 18 (1, 44%) case of errors.

3. To minimize the students’ error in using simple present tense in forming the positive, negative and interrogative sentences, the researcher used the snowball throwing method in order to apply her own way else in teaching.

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