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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements

Guidelines for Contributors

TRANSLATION ANALYSIS OF BODY-RELATED METAPHORS IN THE HOLY KORAN BY YUSUF ALI, MARMADUKE PICKTHAL AND THOMAS IRVING

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Abstract: The present study is a Corpus-based research which analyzes the translation of Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran by Yusuf Ali, Marmaduke Pickthal and Thomas Irving, within the framework of Peter Newmark's procedures of metaphor translation. The data analyzed consists of a sample of 107 words and phrases which are categorized as: metaphors of ear, eye, face, and hand. Out of the seven procedures proposed by Newmark for translating metaphors, the translators applied five procedures. None of the translators applied Newmark's fourth or sixth procedure and no new procedure was observed. The results reveal that among 107 metaphors examined, there is a general tendency (57.94%) towards reproducing the same image in the TL, and the three translators translated 68 metaphors (63.55%) using similar procedures. This study concludes that the likely and the most frequent metaphor translation procedures in the Holy Koran are: (1), to reproduce the same image in the TL, Newmark's first procedure; and (2), to convert metaphor to sense (literal meaning), Newmark's fifth procedure.

Keywords – Metaphor, the Holy Koran, Peter Newmark, procedure

INTRODUCTION

Every now and then different sciences are discovered and developed in every corner of the world. These sciences which could be worldly or spiritual would have great influence on the welfare and prosperity of people. People are scattered throughout the world and speak in many languages. One of these spiritual sciences which helps to increase

the understanding of people and lead them to salvation is the science of the Holy Koran. The Holy Koran is not just for Muslims, but also for all Mankind who believe in one God: "This is the Book; in it is guidance sure, without doubt, to those who fear Allah" (Holy Koran, Sura Baqara, verse 2: Yusuf Ali). One of the most important tools for transferring the messages of this sacred and divinely scripture to other people and nations (Muslims or Non-Muslims) is translation.

If the Holy Koran aims to throw light on the path of people, lead them to salvation, and convinces them to act according to God's revelations, it has to persuade people to read it, to contemplate about its messages and to understand and grasp the deep meaning of those messages. If the Holy Koran is to be persuasive, it has to be understandable for people. The implicit and deep messages of the Holy Koran are stated via figures of speech such as similes, metaphors and irony. Khoramshahi (2012), "point to untranslatability in The Qur"an because of its figurative language and literary speech" (as cited in Hassan Zadeh, Lashkarian & Sadegh Zadeh, 2015:2).

Metaphor is a rhetorical device and a figure of speech which is used frequently in literary and religious texts and from early years of our life we are surrounded with metaphors. Fez-Barringten (2012:1) states: "Metaphors are everywhere as in song, conversation, media, school, work, etc.". Lakoff and Johnson (1980:8) maintain: "metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action". According to Soskice (1985), "the study of metaphor begins with the study of language itself and in almost all traditions, religious language is closely connected with metaphorical talk" (as cited in Mohaghegh & Ketabi, 2013:104). Metaphor has constantly been of concern to translation scholars. Newmark (1988b:104) states that: "Whilst the central problem of translation is the overall choice of a translation method for a text, the most important particular problem is the translation of metaphor".

The present study which is a Corpus-based research, analyzes the translation of Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran by Yusuf Ali, Marmaduke Pickthal and Thomas Irving, within the framework of Peter Newmark's (1988a) procedures of metaphor translation in a descriptive manner. In the Holy Koran, Body-Related words are used both in metaphorical and non-metaphorical contexts. This study focuses on the metaphorical use of these words and analyzes them in their metaphorical contexts. For this aim, certain Aayas (verses) of the Holy Koran with Body-Related Metaphors are chosen and the translators' procedures of Body-Related metaphor will be analyzed, compared and assessed. Since this research uses qualitative descriptive method, the researcher compares the Arabic Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran with the three English translations

and aims to identify: the procedures that are applied by Yusuf Ali, Pickthal, and Irving for translating the metaphors in the Holy Koran; the likely and the most frequent procedures for translating metaphors; and new procedures that are applied by the three translators. Furtheremore, Khristianto also ever did research about English Translation of Javanese (2016:96). He focused his research on Javanese language.

This research offers some useful information about the likely and the most frequent procedures for translating Koranic metaphors. This study will be useful especially for those who are interested in reviewing figures of speech, e.g. metaphors, in the Holy Koran in a comparative and descriptive manner. This study is also expected to be useful to the English translators and shows them simple description about metaphor translation in English translation of the Holy Koran. This study is also beneficial to the general readers and increases their knowledge of metaphors in the Holy Koran and adds to their literary insight. This study would also open up the way for more research on this subject and other related subjects. The scientific advances reveal that the Holy Koran is not limited to a certain period of time. Then, not only further researches of this kind are valuable but also new dictionaries, commentaries, exegeses, and translations of the Holy Koran are essential for every generation.

One of the most sacred and holy texts which needs correct, precise, right and accurate understanding is the Holy Koran, the Holy book of the Muslims. The Holy Koran serves as the foundation for Islam and is revealed by God to the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him). The Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) is the Final Messenger of God. The Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) and the Holy Koran are sent by God to all inhabitants of the earth. Denffer (1983) states that: "The Qur'an is the word of God (Allah) sent down upon the last prophet Mohammad (peace be upon him), through the Angel Gabriel in its precise meaning and precise wording transmitted to us by numerous persons (tawatur), both verbally and in writing" (as cited in Almisned, 2001:28). People throughout the world speak in many languages, therefore if they are to benefit from the divinely scripture they are in need of the translation of the Holy Koran.

According to Robinson (1996) the Arabic word Koran "is derived from the verb 'qara' which means 'to read' but also has the connotation of to 'recite' or to 'proclaim'" (as cited in Almisned, 2001:25). The Holy Koran has two revelation: at once (totally) and gradually. There are different opinions regarding the exact date of the total revelation of the Holy Koran between Sunny and Shia scholars, but they agree that it is revealed in the Holy Month of Ramadan and in a single night (Laylatul-Qadr). Leaman (2006:520) notes: "The miraculous event first occurred when Muhammad, aged 40, was meditating in a cave

on Mount 'Hira', three miles from Mecca, on the night of al-Qadr (the Night of Power), which is 23 Ramadan". Gradually revelation of the Holy Koran which was according to events was revealed over several years in Makkah and Madinah. Leaman (2006:520) notes that the revelation of the Holy Koran was: "intermittent and lasted between twenty and twenty-five years".

The Holy Koran is translated into Asian, African, European, and American languages. Almisned (2001:31-32) says: "It is claimed that there are now more than 65 languages into which the Qur'an has been translated and that the number of complete translations is 551". Translation of the Holy Koran has always been a problem and an issue for the scholars and translators of the Holy Koran. Leaman (2006:657) states: "Translation (tarjama) of the Qur'an has always been a problematic and controversial issue for Muslims". Leaman (2006:657) believes that the first and primary reason for this controversy is the fact that Muslims consider Koran as "the verbatim words of God". Zwemer (1915:946) states, "the difficulty with the Koran is that it is in a sense untranslatable. To imitate its rhyme and rhythm is impossible". According to Fazlur Rahman (1988) "modern western scholars who have attempted to translate the Qur'ān into their languages unanimously agree on the untranslatability of The Book" (as cited in Aldahesh, 2006:26). As Leaman (2006:657) states, "Muslim scholars also base their argument on the idea of the inimitability of the Qur'an". He also maintains that "the language of the text could not be reproduced or imitated in any form or manner" (p.657). Manafi Anari (2012) states: "the very word of Allah is matchless and inimitable in both its content and form. It is not only the content of Qur'an which is from Allah, the container is also divine and these two cannot be separated from each other" (as cited in Hassan Zadeh et al., 2015:1).

Nassimi (2008:2) states that: "since the Qur'an is the perfect Word of Allah in its original Arabic language, its translation to any other language is always limited to the understanding of the human translators of the meaning of the Qur'an". Many factors like character, nature, psyche, religion, belief, attitude of the translator, and social and political atmosphere of the time and place affect the final translation of the Koran. A'zami (2003:291) states that:

Every translation is the labour of a specific time and place, and will undoubtedly be affected by whatever social or political issues are Current in the translator's psyche. Regardless of whether critical study of manuscripts is employed, concern over such issues may be sufficient to push the final product even further from the original text.

Many Muslim and non-Muslim scholars believe that translations of the Holy Koran are interpretations of the original Arabic scripture of the Holy Koran. As it is mentioned by Hassan Zadeh et al. (2015), it is better if we call the translations of the Koran, "interpretations" or "translation[s] of the meanings" (p.1). Hassan Zadeh et al. (2015) states that "The task of translation is not an easy one; some native Arab-speakers will confirm that some Qur"anic passages are difficult to understand even in the original Arabic". Then, because of the difficulty of understanding, it is incumbent on the translators to seek some extra help from exegesis, hadith, jurisprudence, and science of the Holy Koran.

As it was mentioned earlier, if the Holy Koran aims to guide all Mankind, it has to be understandable for people. The implicit and deep messages of the Holy Koran are stated via figures of speech like: similes, metaphors and irony. "The most figurative language that occurs in the Holy Qur'an is metaphor. Modern Muslim scholars gather there are more than four hundred metaphoric words in the Holy Qur'an, although many of those words are become common words" (as cited in Maula, 2011:3).

Over the years, literature, linguistic, and translation scholars have classified metaphors in different ways. The classification of metaphors into dead or live has always been the main concern of the scholars. In classifying metaphor, they have included dead or live metaphor or both of them. According to Almisned (2001), Fowler (1926) divides metaphor into live and dead. Fowler (1926) believes that we are conscious of live metaphors and says: "it must be borne in mind that some metaphors are living, i.e., are offered & accepted with a consciousness of their literal equivalents" (as cited in Almisned, 2001, p.77). In dealing with dead metaphors Fowler (1926) says that dead metaphors "have been so often used that speaker and hearer have ceased to be aware that the words used are not literal" (as cited in Almisned, 2001:77).

Dickins (1998) proposes two major kinds of metaphor: Lexicalised (dead) metaphors and Non-lexicalised (live) metaphors. Dickins (1998) says that in Lexicalised (dead) metaphors "metaphorical meaning is so well established that it can be regarded as lexicalised and is therefore likely to appear as a dictionary definition of the word or phrase in question" (as cited in Almisned, 2001:86). Dickins (1998) maintains that Non-lexicalised (live) metaphors "do not have a well established or stable meaning of this sort and therefore cannot be regarded as lexicalised, and will not appear as dictionary definitions of the word or phrase in question" (as cited in Almisned, 2001:86).

Goatly (1997) divides metaphor into five different types of metaphors: Dead and Buried, Dead, Sleeping, Tired, and Active (as cited in Almisned, 2001:83). We can classify

Goatly (1997) division of metaphor into dead and live: Dead and Buried, and Dead metaphors as dead metaphors; and Sleeping, Tired, and Active metaphors as live metaphor.

Newmark (1988a) distinguish six types of metaphor (dead, cliche, stock, adapted, recent and original) and proposes seven procedures for translating metaphor. In some ways we can say that Newmark's (1988a) classification of metaphor is also dead and live; because he believes that we are hardly conscious of dead metaphors, but regarding the other five metaphors (cliche, stock, adapted, recent and original) we are aware and conscious that they are metaphors. Larson (1998) classifies metaphor into 'live' and 'dead' metaphors and asserts in which there are five ways that metaphor can be translated.

Larson (1998:277) believes that, considering all of the problems regarding metaphor, "the translator must give careful consideration whenever a metaphor is found in the source text". Larson (1998:277) says: "The first step towards adequate translation of a metaphor (or simile) is to determine whether the comparison is a "live" metaphor or simile, or whether it is simply a "dead" figure". In Larson's (1998) opinion, it is important for the translator to make distinction between "live" and "dead" metaphors. Larson (1998:275) says: "dead metaphors will be translated directly, without any attempt to keep the metaphorical content of the idiom". Larson (1998:277-288) states: "If the words which are figurative are simply an idiom, i.e., a "dead" metaphor, then the image does not need to be kept, but the meaning can be translated directly, i.e., nonfiguratively". Larson (1998) maintains that there are five ways that metaphors can be translated.

Soskice (1985) believes that in almost all traditions, religious language depends upon metaphorical talk (as cited in Mohaghegh & Ketabi, 2013:104). If we want to translate a religious or holy scripture, we have to adopt a logical metaphor translation procedure. Literature, linguistic, and translation scholars have defined metaphor in different ways, classified it into different types and proposed different procedures for translating it. The Analysis of metaphor translation procedure in this study is based on seven procedures proposed by Newmark (1988a).

Newmark (1988b:104) states that "Whilst the central problem of translation is the overall choice of a translation method for a text, the most important particular problem is the translation of metaphor". By metaphor Newmark (1988b:104) means: "any figurative expression: the transferred sense of a physical word; the personification of an abstraction; the application of a word or collocation to what it does not literally denote, i.e., to describe one thing in terms of another". Newmark (1988b) believes that metaphor always involves illusion, like a lie, often used to conceal an intention. Newmark (1988b) believes that if a sentence (a text) is grammatical, and is an authoritative or expressive or anonymous text,

but does make sense, we have to look for possible metaphorical meaning and make sense of it. Newmark distinguish six types of metaphor and discuss them in relation to their contextual factors and translation procedures. These metaphors are: dead, cliche, stock, adapted, recent and original.

Newmark (1988a) proposes seven procedures for translating metaphor, in order of preference:

1. Reproducing the same image in the TL.
2. Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image which does not clash with the TL culture.
3. Translating metaphor by simile, retaining the image.
4. Translation of metaphor (or simile) by simile plus sense (or occasionally a metaphor plus sense).
5. Conversion of metaphor to sense.
6. Deletion, if the metaphor is redundant, together with its sense components. A deletion of metaphor can be justified empirically on the ground that the metaphor's function is being fulfilled elsewhere in the text.
7. Same metaphor combined with sense.

Here are some examples to clarify the seven procedures proposed for translating metaphors:

1. No man is an island: هیچ مردی یک جزیره نیست
2. No man is an island: یکدست صدا ندارد
3. No man is an island: هیچ مردی شبیه یک جزیره نیست
4. No man is an island: هیچ مردی شبیه یک جزیره نیست. جزیره تنها است، اما انسان نمی تواند به دور از اجتماع زندگی کند
5. No man is an island: انسان نمی تواند به دور از اجتماع زندگی کند
6. No man is an island: Deletion of metaphor, together with its sense components.
7. No man is an island: هیچ مردی یک جزیره نیست. جزیره تنها است، اما انسان نمی تواند به دور از اجتماع زندگی کند

Due to the above explanations of the importance of metaphor translation in the Holy Koran, this research has some purposes: (1) to find Newmark's seven procedures for translating the metaphors which are applied by Yusuf Ali, Pickthal, and Irving; (2) to find the most frequent procedures for translating metaphors in the Holy Koran; (3) to find new

procedures which are applied by the three translators; (4) to reveal the Frequency of Body-Related Metaphor translation procedure.

METHOD

The present study is a Corpus-based research (Product-Oriented Research) which analyzes the translation of Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran by Yusuf Ali, Marmaduke Pickthal and Thomas Irving, within the framework of Peter Newmark's (1988a) procedures of metaphor translation in a descriptive manner. In the Holy Koran, Body-Related words are used both in metaphorical and non-metaphorical contexts. This study focuses on the metaphorical use of these words and analyzes them in their metaphorical contexts. For this aim, certain Aayas (verses) of the Holy Koran with Body-Related Metaphors are chosen with their Farsi translation of Mohammad Mahdi Fooladvand, and three English translations of Yusuf Ali, Marmaduke Pickthal, and Thomas Irving; and the translators procedures of Body-Related metaphor will be analyzed, compared and assessed. Since this research uses qualitative descriptive method, the researcher compares the Arabic Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran with the three English translations and aims to identify the best English translation of Body-Related Metaphors, techniques, and procedures of their translations.

The researcher has collected a sample of 107 words and phrases functioning as Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran. For the sake of facility, this study categorizes Body-Related Metaphors as the following: 1- metaphors of ear, 2- metaphors of eye, 3- metaphors of face, and 4- metaphors of hand. To identify the Arabic meanings of the Body-Related Words of ear, eye, face, and hand, the researcher has used English to Arabic Glossary. To find the Body-Related Words and the Number of their repetition in the Holy Koran, the researcher has used Pars Quran website. This classification can be shown in table (1).

Table (1). Classification of Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran

	Body-Related Word	**Number of repetition**	**Number of metaphors**
1	Ear	18	10
2	Eye	40	13
3	Face	73	33
4	Hand	83	51

To gain the percentage of each number, the number is multiplied by 100 and is divided by the number of ear, eye, face, or hand metaphor. To calculate the sum, the

number is multiplied by 100 and is divided by ear, eye, face, or hand metaphor number multiplied by 3.

Example of Hand Metaphor: (31*100)/ 51 = 60.78%

Example of Hand Metaphor: (116*100)/ (51*3) = 75.81%

The distinction between metaphorical and non-metaphorical use of words and the procedure for identification of metaphor in the Holy Koran are based on the metaphor definition of Newmark (1988b), Larson (1998), Cuddon (2013), Merriam-Webster Dictionary, Longman dictionary, Oxford English Dictionary, and more importantly on Pragglejaz Group's (2007) Metaphor Identification Procedures. Also in order to identify and explain metaphors, the researcher seeks extensive help from Noor Comprehensive Commentary Collection Ver.3.

To analyze the collected data, the researcher reads the verses that contain Body–Related words and phrases of ear, eye, face, and hand and based on metaphor identification procedures tries to identify the metaphorical verses. The researcher reads metaphorical verses of the Holy Koran and their Farsi translation for better understanding, then the three English translations will be analyzed according to Newmark's (1988a) seven procedures of metaphor translation. Each metaphor is compared with its English translations. Each metaphor is carefully analyzed to see how it is translated into English. For each metaphor it is determined which one of the Newmark's seven approaches are applied by the three English translators. In analyzing metaphorical words or phrases, the researcher uses the exegeses in the Noor Comprehensive Commentary Collection to explain the metaphors and to decode the meaning behind them. The researcher selected the Body-Related metaphors from the entire Holy Koran.

The following example shows how the researcher identifies and analyzes the collected sample of 107 words and phrases functioning as Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran:

وَمِنْهُمُ الَّذِينَ يُؤْذُونَ النَّبِيَّ وَيِقُولُونَ هُوَ أُذُنٌ قُلْ أُذُنُ خَيْرٍ لَّكُمْ يُؤْمِنُ بِاللهِ وَيُؤْمِنُ لِلْمُؤْمِنِينَ وَرَحْمَةٌ لِّلَّذِينَ آمَنُواْ مِنكُمْ وَالَّذِينَ يُؤْذُونَ رَسُولَ اللهِ

لَهُمْ عَذَابٌ أَلِيمٌ (قرآن كريم، التوبه، 61)[1]

و از ایشان کسانی هستند که پیامبر را آزار می‌دهند و می‌گویند: «او   زودباور است.» بگو: « گوش خوبی برای شماست، به خدا ایمان

دارد و [سخن] مؤمنان را باور می‌کند، و برای کسانی از شما که ایمان آورده‌اند رحمتی است.» و کسانی که پیامبر خدا را آزار می‌رسانند،

عذابی پر درد [در پیش] خواهند داشت. (فولادوند، سوره توبه، 61)[2]

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[1] The Holy Koran, Chapter At-Tawbah, verse 61.
[2] Persian translation of the Holy Koran, Chapter At-Tawbah, verse 61 by Mahdi Fouladvand (مهدی فولادوند).

Among them are men who molest the Prophet and say, "He is <u>(all) ear</u>." Say, "He <u>listens</u> to what is best for you: he believes in Allah, has faith in the Believers, and is a Mercy to those of you who believe." But those who molest the Messenger will have a grievous chastisement. (Yusuf Ali)

And of them are those who vex the Prophet and say: He is <u>only a hearer</u>. Say: <u>A hearer of good</u> for you, who believeth in Allah and is true to the believers, and a mercy for such of you as believe. Those who vex the messenger of Allah, for them there is a painful doom. (Pickthal)

There are some [people] who annoy the Prophet by saying:" He's <u>(all) ears</u>!" SAY: "<u>[He's] an ear</u> for good for you! He believes in God and believes for the believers' sake, and is a mercy for any of you who do believe." Those who annoy God's messenger will have painful torment. (Irving)

Without using dictionaries, commentaries and exegeses, and without knowing the context and occasion of the revelation of this verse, it is really difficult to understand and translate the word "أُذُن" correctly. Newmark (1988b) believes that if a sentence (a text) is grammatical, and is an authoritative (reliable and valid) or expressive (showing feeling or emotion) or anonymous text, but does make sense, we have to look for possible metaphorical meaning and make sense of it. Newmark (1988b) asserts that we 'have to make sense of everything'.

Regarding the occasion of the revelation of this verse, Sadr-'ameli (1383sh) says: "Some of the hypocrites said that the Prophet (p. b. u. h.) was a simple and whimsical person, and he accepts whatever everybody says" (vol.2, p.650). Sadr-'ameli (1383sh) argues that the hypocrites demonstrated "one of the advantages of the Prophet (p. b. u. h.) in the form of his disadvantage, the existence of which is necessary in a leader" (vol.2:650).

In analyzing the word "أُذُن", Khorramdel (1384sh) says: "by the word "أُذُن" we mean someone who believes in everything we tell him; a credulous (over trusting) and whimsical person" (vol.1:371). It can be noticed that the word "أُذُن" which is expected to be associated with part of the body used for hearing, is associated with credulous person.

Considering the Oxford English Dictionary definition of metaphor, we can say that the word "أُذُن" is used to describe a credulous and whimsical person in a way that is different from its normal use (part of the body used for hearing). By using Merriam-Webster Dictionary definition of metaphor we can say that there is an analogy between the

word "أُذُن" and a credulous and whimsical person in that both listen to people. The word "أُذُن" is implicitly compared to a credulous and whimsical person and shows that they have the same qualities.

The original meaning of the word "أُذُن" is not used in this verse and the word "أُذُن" has a more basic contemporary meaning in other contexts than the one in this verse, then according to Pragglejaz Group's Metaphor Identification Procedures, the word "أُذُن" is a metaphor. As it is mentioned in the Longman Dictionary, English language has an idiom like 'be all ears' which means: 'to be very keen to hear what someone is going to tell you'. TL culture does not clash with SL culture, so the image in the SL may be either reproduced in the English language (Newmark's (1988a) first procedure), or the image may be replaced with an English language image (Newmark's (1988a) second procedure), or SL metaphor may be converted to sense (Newmark's (1988a) fifth procedure).

Yusuf Ali replaces the image of the first metaphor in the SL with a standard TL image. (Newmark's second procedure). He converts the second metaphor to sense (to literal meaning of the metaphor). (Newmark's fifth procedure).

Pickthal converts both source Arabic metaphors to sense (to literal meaning of the metaphor). (Newmark's fifth procedure).

Irving (1985) replaces the image of the first metaphor in the SL with a standard TL image (Newmark's second procedure). Regarding the second metaphor, he reproduces the same image in his English translation (keeps the source Arabic metaphor). (Newmark's first procedure).

Due to the fact that revelation of the Holy Koran was according to events and knowing the occasion of the revelation of some verses help translators to have an appropriate, desirable, and reasonable translation, then more appropriate translation procedure for the first metaphor would be to translate it according to Newmark's seventh procedure (Same metaphor combined with sense), because by using seventh procedure, the image is kept and the meaning is clarified. Needless to say, translators are free to choose any of the Newmark's (1988a) seven procedures for translating metaphor; surely in order of preference.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

This section linked theory of metaphor translation procedure with practice and examined detailed theoretical analysis of the SL and TL metaphors of the 107 examples. The result of the analysis of 107 Body-Related Metaphor samples is presented in six tables.

From seven metaphor translation procedures proposed by Newmark, there are 5 procedures used by the three translators in translating Body-Related Metaphors (ear, eye, face, and hand) of the Holy Koran.

The table below shows the frequency of 10 ear metaphors' translation procedures.

Table (2). Frequency of ear metaphor translation procedures

	Procedures	Yusuf Ali	Pickthal	Irving	Sum
1	Reproducing the same image in the TL	1 (10%)	1 (10%)	2 (20%)	4 (13.33%)
2	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	1 (10%)	0	3 (30%)	4 (13.33%)
3	Translating metaphor by simile, retaining the image	0	0	0	0
4	Translation of metaphor (or simile) by simile plus sense	0	0	0	0
5	Conversion of metaphor to sense	7 (70%)	8 (80%)	5 (50%)	20 (66.66%)
6	Deletion of metaphor	0	0	0	0
7	Same metaphor combined with sense	1 (10%)	1 (10%)	0	2 (6.66%)

The table below shows the frequency of 13 eye metaphors' translation procedures.

Table (3). Frequency of eye metaphor translation procedures

	Procedures	Yusuf Ali	Pickthal	Irving	Sum
1	Reproducing the same image in the TL	3 (23.07%)	1 (7.69%)	0	4 (10.24%)
2	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	4 (30.76%)	5 (38.46%)	8 (61.53%)	17 (43.54%)
3	Translating metaphor by simile, retaining the image	0	0	0	0
4	Translation of metaphor (or simile) by simile plus sense	0	0	0	0
5	Conversion of metaphor to sense	5 (38.46%)	7 (53.84%)	5 (38.46%)	17 (43.54%)
6	Deletion of metaphor	0	0	0	0
7	Same metaphor combined with sense	1 (7.69%)	0	0	1 (2.56%)

The table below shows the frequency of 33 face metaphors' translation procedures.

Table (4). Frequency of face metaphor translation procedures

	Procedures	Yusuf Ali	Pickthal	Irving	Sum
1	Reproducing the same image in the TL	23 (69.69%)	18 (54.54%)	21 (63.63)	62 (62.62%)
2	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	2 (6.06%)	3 (9.09%)	3 (9.09%)	8 (8.08%)
3	Translating metaphor by simile, retaining the image	0	0	0	0
4	Translation of metaphor (or simile) by simile plus sense	0	0	0	0
5	Conversion of metaphor to sense	8 (24.24%)	12 (36.36%)	9 (27.27%)	29 (29.29%)
6	Deletion of metaphor	0	0	0	0
7	Same metaphor combined with sense	0	0	0	0

The table below shows the frequency of 51 hand metaphors' translation procedures.

Table (5). Frequency of hand metaphor translation procedures

	Procedures	Yusuf Ali	Pickthal	Irving	Sum
1	Reproducing the same image in the TL	31 (60.78%)	40 (78.43%)	45 (88.23%)	116 (75.81%)
2	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	1 (1.96%)	2 (3.92%)	1 (1.96%)	4 (2.61%)
3	Translating metaphor by simile, retaining the image	1 (1.96%)	0	0	1 (0.65%)
4	Translation of metaphor (or simile) by simile plus sense	0	0	0	0
5	Conversion of metaphor to sense	7 (13.72%)	7 (13.72%)	5 (9.80%)	19 (12.41%)
6	Deletion of metaphor	0	0	0	0
7	Same metaphor combined with sense	11 (21.56%)	2 (3.92%)	0	13 (8.49%)

The table below shows the frequency of metaphor translation procedures. These metaphors include 107 Body-Related Metaphors of ear, eye, face, and hand.

Table (6). Frequency of metaphor translation procedures

	Procedures	Yusuf Ali	Pickthal	Irving	Sum
1	Reproducing the same image in the TL	58 (54.20%)	60 (56.07%)	68 (63.55%)	186 (57.94%)
2	Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image	8 (7.47%)	10 (9.34%)	15 (14.01%)	33 (10.28%)
3	Translating metaphor by simile, retaining the image	1 (0.93%)	0	0	1 (0.31%)
4	Translation of metaphor (or simile) by simile plus sense	0	0	0	0
5	Conversion of metaphor to sense	27 (25.23%)	34 (31.77%)	24 (22.42%)	85 (26.47%)
6	Deletion of metaphor	0	0	0	0
7	Same metaphor combined with sense	13 (12.14%)	3 (2.80%)	0	16 (4.98%)

The table below shows the number of the same metaphor translation procedures applied by the three translators. To calculate the sum, the number is multiplied by 100 and is divided by 107.

Table (7). The number of same metaphor translation procedures

	Translators	Ear	Eye	Face	Hand	Sum
1	Yusuf Ali & Pickthal	5	1	5	2	13 (12.14%)
2	Yusuf Ali & Irving	1	1	6	5	13 (12.14%)
3	Pickthal & Irving	0	2	0	12	14

						(13.08%)
4	Yusuf Ali & Pickthal & Irving	4	8	22	32	68 (63.55%)
5	Different	0	1	0	0	1 (0.93%)

Following are some of the major findings of the study:

- Out of the seven procedures proposed by Newmark for translating metaphors, Yusuf Ali applied five procedures, Pickthal applied four procedures, and Irving applied three procedures in the translation of the Body-Related metaphors.

- None of the translators applied Newmark's forth or sixth procedure.

- Pickthal and Irving did not apply Newmark's third procedure.

- Irving did not apply Newmark's seventh procedure.

- The third procedure was applied once, only by Yusuf Ali in the translation of hand metaphor.

- No new procedure was observed in the three translators' metaphor translations.

- The Table (2) shows that in translation of ear metaphor there is tendency (66.66%) towards converting metaphor to sense (Newmark's fifth procedure).

- The Table (3) shows that in translation of eye metaphor there are tendencies towards replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image (43.54%) (Newmark's second procedure) and converting metaphor to sense (43.54%) (Newmark's fifth procedure).

- The Table (4) shows that in translation of face metaphor there is tendency (62.62%) towards reproducing the same image in the TL (Newmark's first procedure).

- The Table (5) shows that in translation of hand metaphor there is tendency (75.81%) towards reproducing the same image in the TL (Newmark's first procedure).

- The Table (6) which includes 107 Body-Related Metaphors of ear, eye, face, and hand shows that there is a general tendency (57.94%) towards reproducing the same image in the TL (Newmark's first procedure). This tendency is highest in Irving's translation.

- 107 Body-Related Metaphor samples, Yusuf Ali, Pickthal and Irving translated 68 metaphors (63.55%) using similar procedures (in more than half of their translations they applied the same procedures). Yusuf Ali and Pickthal translated 13 metaphors (12.14%) using the same procedure. Yusuf Ali and Irving translated 13 metaphors (12.14%) using the same procedure. Pickthal and Irving translated 14 metaphors (13.08%) using the same procedure. (Table 7)

- Only in 1 metaphor (0.93%), the three translators had different metaphor translations.

- The three or two of the translators almost always come with the same metaphor translation procedures in the same verse. The three translators are likely to prefer

metaphor translation procedures that reproduce the same image in the TL (57.94%) and convert metaphor to sense (26.47%). (Table 6)

- By reproducing the same image in the TL, more than half of their translations (57.94%) the three translators have shown that they did not want to challenge and attack the metaphorical meaning of the Holy Koran and left it to the reader to uncover the inner meaning. (Table.6)

Discussions

In this section, the researcher will analyze the procedures of the Body-Related metaphors translations in the Holy Koran by Yusuf Ali, Marmaduke Pickthal and Thomas Irving, within the framework of Peter Newmark's (1988a) seven procedures of metaphor translation in a descriptive manner. The metaphor identification is based on the Method section (5). Body-Related Metaphors are: 1- metaphors of ear, 2- metaphors of eye, 3- metaphors of face, and 4- metaphors of hand.

1. Metaphors of Ear

In the Holy Koran, the Arabic term for "ear", 'one of the organs on either side of your head that you hear with'[3], is "أُذُن" which means: "عضو السمع في الإنسان والحيوان"[4]. The term "أُذُن" is the single form of "ear", and the term "آذَان" is the plural form of "ear". According to Pars Quran website, the words "أُذُن" and "آذَان", are mentioned 6 and 12 times respectively as a noun in the Holy Koran. Although the word "ear", as a noun (simple or plural), is mentioned 18 times in the Holy Koran, it is used only 10 times as a metaphor.

As a metaphor in the Holy Koran the word "ear":
1. metaphorically refers to "A credulous (over trusting) and whimsical person".
2. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Imam Ali (peace be upon him)".
3. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "Deafness".
4. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "Deep sleep".

2. Metaphors of Eye

In the Holy Koran, the Arabic term for "eye", 'one of the two parts of the body that you use to see with'[5], is "عَيْن" which means: "عضو الإبصار للإنسان وغيره من الحيوان"[6]. The

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[3] http://www.ldoceonline.com/
[4] http://www.almaany.com/ar/dict/ar-ar/
[5] http://www.ldoceonline.com/
[6] http://www.almaany.com/ar/dict/ar-ar/

term "عَيْن" is the single form of "eye", and the terms "عُيُونٌ" , "أَعْيُنٌ" , "أَعْيَانٌ" , and "عَيْنَانِ"
are the plural form of "ear". According to Pars Quran website, the word "عَيْن" (simple
or plural) is mentioned 40 times in the Holy Koran. Although the word "eye", as a noun
(simple or plural), is mentioned 40 times in the Holy Koran, it is used only 13 times as a
metaphor.

As a metaphor in the Holy Koran the word "eye":

1. refers to "The Supervision of God" or "the Angels".

2. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Blindness".

3. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "Lack of insight".

4. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "Happiness".

5. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Houris" or "Women in paradise"

3. Metaphors of Face

In the Holy Koran, the Arabic term for "face", 'the front part of your head, where
your eyes, nose, and mouth are'[7], is "وَجْه" which means: "مَا يُقَابِلُكَ مِنَ الرَّأْس وَفِيهِ الجَبْهَةُ"
"وَالعَيْنَانِ وَالخَدَّانِ وَالأَنْفُ وَالفَمُ"[8]. The term "وَجْه" is the single form of "face", and the terms
"أَوْجُهٌ"and "وُجُوهٌ" are the plural form of "face". According to Pars Quran website, the
words "وَجْه" and "وُجُوهٌ" are mentioned 35 and 38 times respectively as a noun in the
Holy Koran. Although the word "face", as a noun (simple or plural), is mentioned 73
times in the Holy Koran, it is used only 33 times as a metaphor.

As a metaphor in the Holy Koran the word "face":

1. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Pure Faith" and "Heartily Attention".

2. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "the Presence of God".

3. is a metaphorical reference to "Kiblah"; or "Direction", "Goal", "Method", or
"Religion".

4. is a metaphorical reference to "The Pleasure [of God]".

5. is a metaphorical reference to "At the Beginning".

6. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Truly" or "In its true shape".

7. is a metaphorical reference to "Love", "Favor", and "Attention".

8. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Extreme Anger".

9. in a metaphorical sentence refers to the "Apostate (Murtadd)".

10. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "The Believers" or "The Disbelievers".

11. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Misguidance".

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[7] http://www.ldoceonline.com/
[8] http://www.almaany.com/ar/dict/ar-ar/

12. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Sadness".

4. Metaphors of Hand

In the Holy Koran, the Arabic term for "hand", 'the part of your body at the end of your arm, including your fingers and thumb, that you use to hold things'[9], is "يَد" which means: "مَا يُقَابِلُكَ مِنَ الرَّأْس وَفِيهِ الْجَبْهَةُ وَالْعَيْنَان وَالْخَدَّان وَالْأَنْفُ وَالْفَمُ"[10]. The term "يَد" is the single form of "hand", and the terms "أَيْدٍ", "الأَيْدِي", "أَيَادٍ", "الأَيَادِي" and "يَدَان" are the plural form of "hand". According to Pars Quran website, the word "يَد" is mentioned 83 times as a noun in the Holy Koran. Although the word "hand", as a noun (simple or plural), is mentioned 83 times in the Holy Koran, it is used only 51 times as a metaphor.

As a metaphor in the Holy Koran the word "hand":
1. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "The Deeds (Good or Bad)".
2. in a metaphorical phrase refers to the "Willpower".
3. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Guardian (Wali)".
4. in a metaphorical phrase refers to the "Power and Authority".
5. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Fighting".
6. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "Stinginess" or "Generosity".
7. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "Deep Regret".
8. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Sword".
9. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Submission".
10. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Unwillingness".
11. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "Objection" or "Anger".
12. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "Swearing Allegiance".
13. in a metaphorical sentence refers to "The Peace Treaty of Hudaybiya".
14. in a metaphorical phrase refers to "Unlawful Children".

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION

Considering the fact that many people (Muslims and Non-Muslims) throughout the world are learning the Holy Koran through its English translations, the analysis of some problematic issues would be useful and beneficial. One of these problematic issues in the process of the translation of the meanings of the Holy Koran is the translation of the figures of speech. The deep meanings of some verses in the Holy Koran are expressed through delicate figures of speech like metaphor. The purpose of this study has been to

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[9] http://www.ldoceonline.com/
[10] http://www.almaany.com/ar/dict/ar-ar/

analyze and review some of the Body-Related metaphor in the Holy Koran. The analysis of metaphor samples have led to some useful conclusions.

The analysis of sample of 107 words and phrases functioning as Body-Related Metaphors in the Holy Koran have led to the following conclusions:

1- Applying different procedures by different translators to translate the same metaphor shows that The Holy Koran cannot be reproduced. To convey the meaning, the translators sometimes have to replace the image in the SL with a standard TL image, or to convert metaphor to sense, or at least combine the same metaphor with sense.

2- This study has shown that the translation of metaphors in the Holy Koran requires the translators to have some exegetical and commentarial knowledge. Lack of exegetical and commentarial knowledge may result in wrong or misleading translation. In case of any disagreement in translating, analyzing and interpreting the Koranic verses, translators should resort to authentic Hadith which is acceptable by all the Muslim Community.

3- Without using dictionaries, commentaries and exegeses, and without knowing the context and occasion of the revelation of some verses, it is really difficult and to some extent impossible to understand and translate some Koranic metaphors. For example, in chapter 9, verse 61, regarding the occasion of the revelation of this verse, Sadr-'ameli (1383sh) says: "Some of the hypocrites said that the Prophet (p. b. u. h.) Was a simple and whimsical person, and he accepts whatever everybody says" (vol.2, p.650). In analyzing the word "أُذُن" in this verse, Khorramdel (1384sh) says: "by the word "أُذُن" we mean someone who believes in everything we tell him; a credulous (over trusting) and whimsical person" (vol.1, p.371). Without knowing the occasion of the revelation of this verse, it is almost impossible to associate the word "أُذُن", which is expected to be associated with part of the body used for hearing, with a Credulous and whimsical person.

4- The most frequent procedure for translating metaphor in the Holy Koran is to reproduce the same image in the TL (to preserve and keep the beauty of the source Arabic metaphor) by applying Newmark's first procedure of metaphor translation. The translators tried to reproduce the same aesthetic and stylistic effect of the original metaphor (the metaphor is original in the SL and is translated and kept as original in the TL).

5- The beauty of metaphor is often lost when it is translated into literal meaning (converting metaphor to sense), but it can simplify and clarify the meaning and give the reader clear view of the hidden meaning.

6- By replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image, the beauty of the source Arabic metaphor is substituted in the TL culture and the reader easily understands the inner meaning of the metaphor and a reader-oriented translation is created.

7- The likely and the most frequent metaphor translation procedures are: first, to reproduce the same image in the TL; and second, to convert metaphor to sense.

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EFFECT OF CONTENT SCHEMA, VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE, AND READING COMPREHENSION ON TRANSLATION PERFORMANCE

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Abstract: Schemata refer to all kinds of knowledge which are gained throughout the lifetime. Few studies have attempted to integrate schema theory with vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, which are two other crucial factors in translation and learning. Thus, the present research aimed at delineating the potential effect of these three factors on translation performance of Iranian undergraduate students majoring in translator training. To this end, 172 Iranian undergraduate students majoring in translator training were selected based on two-step cluster sampling. To collect data, the participants answered a set of 6 open-ended questions to measure the students' content schema along with a vocabulary size test, reading comprehension test, and translation task. To analyze data, Pearson correlation coefficient as well as stepwise multiple regressions were conducted through Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17. Data analysis indicated that the independent variables significantly correlated with translation performance. In addition, multiple regressions analysis specified reading comprehension as the main contributing variable and content schema as the second in students' translation performance. It also showed that vocabulary knowledge could not be a predicting factor in translation performance of the learners; the reason may be related to the crucial role of the dictionary in the translation task. The results highlighted the role of content schema in translation performance of the learners.

Keywords – Content schema, Schema theory, Translation performance, Vocabulary knowledge

INTRODUCTION

Translation can be viewed as a process that incorporates both "psychology and cognitive sciences" (Munday, 2001, p. 183). This viewpoint has resulted in "mental processes", not the texts, receiving more attention in "cognitive-linguistic analysis" (Hatim&Munday, 2004, p. 57). In addition, translator should understand the whole text in context (2016:91). In conjunction with this vision, many studies have been done by focusing on cognitive and "psycholinguistic approaches" while taking "translation didactics and pedagogy" into account (Kostopoulou, 2007).Translation process would encompass "inferencing", a "cognitive activity" which is fundamental in all kinds of communication including "reading or translation" (Hatim&Munday, 2004, p. 57). In relation to text processing and reading comprehension, some "global patterns" can be specified like scripts, frames, plans, and schemata (Beaugrande& Dressler, 1981, p. 90). On the other hand, the translator's task is to parallel "the world as presented to us by the text ('the text world') with the world as we know it (the real world)" (Bell, 1993, p. 166). Moreover, this would require the translator's inferencing from the text, interpreting it, and making predictions all of which highlight the role of the translator's schemata, especially content schema.

In general, schema is defined "as the organized background knowledge" that influences interpreting a text (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 248). Schemata are considered as an individual's "information structure" that can be changed by receiving new data (Roy, 2005). Different scholars have categorized schema in various ways. The related category to the current study is content schema, which is defined as a representation of one's world knowledge or possessing background knowledge about a text's content area (Carrell &Eisterhold, 1983) although part of formal schema, vocabulary knowledge, is also taken into account in this study.

It has been observed that Iranian students, even after passing 12 credit-bearing courses in reading comprehension, are not able to perform well in translation. Inappropriate translation may be due to lack of enough background knowledge or content schema (Kim, 2006). Small vocabulary pool could be another reason, which should be taken into serious consideration (Yazdi&Kafipour, 2014). Although many elements including grammar can contribute to a good communication (Khojasteh&Reinders, 2013) the role of vocabulary cannot be over emphasized. However, it should be mentioned that vocabulary as an important part of language learning has been derelict so far in Iranian context; not enough attention has been paid to vocabulary as the most important part of communication and vocabulary related variables such as vocabulary level, vocabulary size

and vocabulary learning strategies (GaniHamzah, Kafipour, & Abdullah 2009). Target language vocabulary plays the most significant role in reading comprehension; even at the time of guessing the meaning of an unfamiliar word, a learner with small vocabulary size would guess based on the "form of the word," and not the context that may lead to erroneous results (Laufer, 1996). Moreover, the crucial role of form of the word is clearly highlighted since inaccurate guessing would lead to a completely different translation. To the best of researchers, few studies tried to investigate all these variables in one piece of research. All of the above has motivated the authors to conduct the present study.

The present study attempts to explore how content schemata can affect students' performance in translation. In addition, what is of vital importance in the process of translation would be how students make inferences from source text (ST) to convert it into target text (TT); and this will include the role of reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge (part of formal schema) in translation as well. Translation and comprehension, possibly, have been tied since Catford's proposition of theory of meaning (Bialystok, 1991, p. 145). This study, therefore, aims at identifying the correlation and variance contribution between content schema, reading comprehension, and vocabulary knowledge as independent variables and students' performance in translation as the dependent variable.

Based on the above, the following questions can be raised for the following study:

A) Is there any significant relationship between independent variables including content schema, reading comprehension, and vocabulary knowledge, and the dependent variable of translation performance?

B) To what extent, if any, do the independent variables of content schema, reading comprehension, and vocabulary knowledge contribute to translation performance?

Schema theory is believed to have been introduced by Bartlett (Cook, 1997; Razi, 2004). Bartlett (1932), one of the oldest schema theorists, defines schema as a reference "to an active organization of past reactions, or of past experiences, which must always be supposed to be operating in any well-adapted organic response"; i.e. one will have responses akin to what he/she had before in a similar situation (p. 201). Gradually, the notion of schema expanded as far as it can be adapted with different situations, without altering its essential nature (Rumelhart, 1980). Rumelhart (1980) represents schema as "building blocks of cognition" and believes that schema theory deals with the representation of knowledge; also with different ways through which this representation ease "the use of knowledge" (Reed, 2006, p. 235). Furthermore, Pritchard (1990) expresses that "schema theorists" view knowledge as "stored in schematic structures, or schemata,

which are organized representations of one's background experiences." Rumelhart argues that "a schema is a prototype representation of a concept that functions as a standard of good judgment between the prototype in memory and an element of external environment" (Alidib, 2004). Schema being defined in its broad sense, represents a collection of organizations consisting of a series of "mental representations…which incorporate all the knowledge of a given type of object or event that have been acquired from past experience and operate in a top-down direction to help us interpret the bottom-up flow of information from the world" (Bell, 1993, p. 249-250).

Razi (2004) argued that "schema theory deals with reading process, where readers are expected to combine their previous experience with the text they are reading"; and it's "culture specific" due to individuals' background knowledge. Background knowledge is believed to play a significant role in reading by Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), which was identified by research based on schema theory (Carrell et al. 1998, p. 73). Likewise, translation process encompasses inferencing, "a cognitive activity" which is fundamental in all kinds of communication including "reading or translation" (Hatim&Munday, 2004, p. 57). But few researches have investigated the role of schema theory in translation; thus this study attempts to shed light on this area. Moreover, unlike the crucial role schema theory plays in designing academic curriculum, academic curriculum for translator training courses in undergraduate level in Iran does not pay enough attention to the role of background knowledge, content schema, and students are not aware of schema theory when they graduate.

Schema has been classified into various categories; the related categorization, however, would view schema as content and formal schema.Content schema, which is on the focus of the present study, deals with an individual's knowledge of the world; it represents one's "background knowledge of the content area of the text" (Carrell et al. 1988, p. 79; Razi, 2004) that he/she "brings to a text" (Alidib, 2004; Razi, 2004). Possessing knowledge related to the content of a given text helps readers to understand it (Alderson, 2000, p. 43). In relation to content schema, cultural schema can be defined as "conceptual structures" that makes it possible for a person to gather "perceptual and conceptual information about his or her culture and interpret cultural experiences and expressions" (Malcolm &Sharifian, 2002). This knowledge or information is gained through one's lifetime, from childhood to adulthood (Alderson, 2000, p. 46).

Furthermore, formal schema represents one's knowledge related to "rhetorical structure of the text" (Schwenk, 2009). It takes account of "the knowledge that different types of texts use text organization, language structures, vocabulary, grammar and level of

register differently" (Alidib, 2004). In this study, vocabulary knowledge as part of formal schema will be taken into account.

Few studies have been carried out to investigate the effect of schema theory on translation whereas many researchers have investigated the role of schema theory in second/foreign language comprehension: reading and listening. Most of the research investigates the role of cultural schemata, which is "culture specific content schema" (Alidib, 2004), in reading comprehension (Schwenk, 2009; Razi, 2004; Pritchard, 1990; Johnson, 1981; Steffensen, et al. 1979). These studies confirmed the significant role of cultural schema in comprehending a text.

In this regard, Carrell (1987) has done a fundamental investigation by taking formal and content schema into account. She had selected Christian and Muslims as her two groups of samples. Her study was indicative of the significant effect of ESL speakers' content and formal schemata on their interpretation of the texts; however, content schema was found to be more effective (Carrell, 1987, p. 476). Keshavarz et al. (2007) repeated the research with Iranian samples and concluded that content schema, unlike the formal schema, was a significant factor in reading comprehension. Many other studies have confirmed the predominant role of content schema over the formal schema (Langer et al. 1990; Carrell, 1981).

Few empirical studies attempted to shed light on the impact of schema theory in general, and content schema in particular, on translation performance. Taking this into consideration, Shakir (1995) investigated the role of "schematic knowledge on the appropriateness and communicative acceptability of translation rendered of four ambiguous contextless [context-free] texts." He argued that a translator should possess knowledge with regards to the "cultural, pragmatics, and communicative dimensions of the text" he/she is translating (ibid). He concluded that it is essential for the learners to be aware of "contextual aspects that motivate or co-occur with linguistic input of the SL text." He argued that integrating the proportions of a given text's context with the world knowledge of the translator or the interpreter forms "frames of reference" in the mind of her/him to confer with when confronting vague "linguistic input"; that is, content schema can compensate for lack of proper linguistic knowledge (ibid).

Kim (2006) also studied the importance of background knowledge and the effect of its quality and quantity on students' translation performance. The results of the study showed that possessing background knowledge; content schema, on a certain issue significantly affected translation quality; and it was the quality of the background information, not the quantity, which had a significant impact on the quality of translation.

Besides, it is not possible to take the translator into account without considering his/her skill in reading comprehension. The first stage of translating is to analyze the text based on comprehending it (Newmark, 1988, p. 17). In addition, a skillful translator is believed to be a skillful reader (Bell, 1993, p. 104) since the translator as the reader of the source text is to make predictions and consequently to make inferences from the text he/she is reading (Venuti, 2008, p. 372). Therefore, the translator's major concern is to be a perfect reader; however, the translator's "textual expectations and cultural knowledge" will certainly differ from the ST reader, regardless of how much he/she is alike the ST reader (Coulthard, 1992, p. 12). Thus, content schema, translation and reading comprehension bind together inseparably.

Furthermore, vocabulary knowledge is more closely related to reading comprehension, even more than familiarity with the subject area and grammar knowledge (Mehrpour&Rahimi, 2010). It is believed that vocabulary constitutes the immense piece carrying the meaning in every languages, thus the size of one's vocabulary is of a great significance (McCarthy, 2001). On the other hand, Schemata as constituents of schema theory are the representations of all kinds of knowledge (Bell, 1993, p. 250); among which vocabulary knowledge is of great significance. Keshavarz, et al. (2007) regarded vocabulary knowledge as a major factor in formal schema.

METHOD

Participants of this study were senior undergraduate students of English Translation at Islamic Azad University of Shiraz, Hafez non-profit university, as well as Booshehr, Safashahr, and Lar Payame-nour universities. They were selected based on two-step cluster sampling. Thus, 172 undergraduate students majoring in translator training (32 male and 140 females) were randomly selected. They were all 21-29 years old studying in the fourth year, last year, of their undergraduate studies and had passed 12 credit-bearing courses in reading comprehension as well as 4 credit-bearing courses in linguistics. The data used in this research was ratio data. It is kind of datum that can give information about the difference level of number in detail (Prastyo, 2017).

The first main instrument in the present study was a set of 6 open-ended questions to access the participants' content schema on different aspects of accent and/or dialect, which was the content area of the text to be translated later. This test was a modified version of a set of 12 essay-type questions administered in the pilot phase of the current research.

The second main instrument was the vocabulary size test developed by Nation and Beglar (2007) to explore the vocabulary knowledge of the participants. This test is designed to measure one's vocabulary size between 1000 to 14000 word families. The last instrument applied in this study was a reading comprehension test, selected from an IBT TOEFL preparatory book by Gallagher (2007).

This study was conducted in two sessions. In the first session, the researcher asked students to answer open-ended questions related to their content schema, which took around 20 minutes although the participants were not limited in time. Each participant received the vocabulary size test right after returning the answers to the content schema questions. Answering vocabulary size test took less than one hour. This phase of data collection took an entire session.

In the second session, the researcher administered the reading comprehension test which took around 15 minutes. After that, the researcher asked the participants to translate the first 3 paragraphs of the text used for reading comprehension test in 25 minutes. Translations were scored based on Waddington's method proposed as method A (Waddington, 2001). Both sessions were held in the beginning of classes to avoid the effects of being fatigue or influenced by the subject matter taught in the class. The time for the translation test was determined based on the pilot study. After collecting data, the researcher ran Pearson Product Moment correlation and Stepwise Multiple Regression to analyze the data.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

To answer the first research question, (Is there any significant relationship between independent variables such as content schema, reading comprehension, and vocabulary knowledge and dependent variable, translation performance?) Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run. Table 1 shows the obtained results.

		RC	VK	CS
TP	Correlation Coefficient	0.903**	0.774**	0.896**
	Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.000

Table1: Correlation between independent variables (content schema, reading comprehension,vocabulary knowledge) and dependent variable (translation performance)

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

RC. Reading Comprehension; TP. Translation Performance; CS. Content Schema; VK. Vocabulary Knowledge

According to Table 1, all independent variables (reading comprehension, content schema, and vocabulary knowledge respectively) strongly, significantly, and positively correlated with translation performance as the dependent variable of the current study. Due to the identification of significant correlation, it is required to investigate if the independent variables significantly contribute to the translation performance of the learners. This will address the second research question for the current study. To this end, stepwise multiple regressions was conducted utilizing statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 17.

Variable	B	Beta (β	T	Sig.	R^2	Contribution (%)
RC	1.296	0.603	27.386	0.000	0.815	81.5
CS	0.024	0.412	4.570	0.000	0.836	2.1
Constant	6.196			0.000		83.6

Table 2: Stepwise multiple regressions analysis for reading comprehension and content schema that influence translator trainees' translation performance

Dependent variable: Translation   RC: Reading Comprehension   CS: content schema

It indicated that reading comprehension (81.5%) and content schema (83.6%) were the only predicators among the independent variables of the study with a significantly high correlation and contribution (p<0.01). The other independent variable (vocabulary knowledge) was unable to predict the variance in translation performance of the students (Sig. =0.814).

The highest predictor in translation performance of the translator trainees was reading comprehension (β= 0.903, T= 27.386, Sig. T= 0.000) with a contribution of 81.5% (Table 2). This condition indicates that increasing reading comprehension by one unit leads to the translation performance escalation by 0.903 units. Moreover, the beta (β) value for content schema shows its effect on translation performance (β= 0.412, T= 4.570, Sig.= 0.000). Content schema's contribution to students' performance in translation is 2.1%. This circumstance reveals a one-unit rise in content schema results in students' translation performance enhanced by 0.412 units.

The R square value in table 2 (R2= 0.836) was indicative of a correlated level and contribution between reading comprehension and content schema. In addition, it was evident toward the great significance of these independent variables in translation performance of the translator trainees. Referring to Table 3, variants analysis illustrated F

value of 429.300 (df= 2.169) and P< 0.01. This can explain that the R square value of 83.6 % was related to the broad contribution of the two out of three independent variables of the present study.

Sources		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	regression	4821.567	1	4821.567	750.009	0.000
	residual	1092.875	170	6.429		
	Total	5914.442	171			
2	regression	4941.747	2	2470.873	429.300	0.000
	residual	972.695	169	5.756		
	Total	5914.442	171			

Table3: Regression ANOVA

Discussions

Analyzing data showed correlation between all independent variables, content schema, vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension) and dependent variable (translation performance). In fact, the strongest correlation was found between reading comprehension and translation performance (p= 0.903). This finding supports claims that a translator should first be a "skillful reader" (Venuti, 2008, p. 372; Bell, 1993, p. 104; Coulthard, 1992, p. 12). The essential argues over 'word for word' and 'sense for sense', which trace back to Cicero and St Jerome (Munday, 2001, p. 19) is a clue to view this relationship as evident.

The process of translation as a kind of information processing act (Bell, 1993, p. 44) starts with reading comprehension (Newmark, 1988, p. 11). Decoding the ST is possible only through comprehension during the reading phase; it cannot happen without the reader /translator's grasp of the meaning, interpretation, as well as evaluation of the author's intended words (Medina &Pilonieta, 2006, p. 223). Decoding ST also includes the use of memory to remember the text which was read (ibid) that is in direct relation to cognition (Bell, 1993, p. 44). In addition, Cognition links translation to reading comprehension via inferencing. Gutt (1991) viewed both of these processes as communicative activities, in which inferencing is inherent. Besides, reading comprehension process is defined as a concurrent act of extracting and constructing meaning (Sweet & Snow, 2003, p. 1). These features of reading comprehension highlight the role of meaning in translation, which probably came into the focus of translation theories since the proposition of theory of meaning by Catford (1965).

Reading comprehension process is believed to occur exclusively through "translation and interpretation" (Mininni, 1981). Unlike the current study, some research has focused on the effective role of translation in reading comprehension (Yau, 2010; Dordick, 1998; Lefa, 1992; Bensoussan, 1990); it is notable that Bensoussan (1990) utilized translation as a means of testing learners' reading comprehension ability in different types of texts. In addition, utilizing translation as a means in language learning traces back to Grammar Translation Method (Munday, 2001, p. 7); although this line of inquiry is far from the purpose of the study.

In line with the present research aims, Newmark (1988) emphasizes on the effectiveness of reading comprehension in translation (p. 11). He refers to two kinds of reading, i.e. general and close reading; of which close reading is closely related to vocabulary knowledge and general reading to content schema in this research. In close reading, the translator trainee is guided to look up every word in case of conveying odd concepts. Besides, the purpose of general reading is considered to achieve the essence of the text; to this end, the translator may need to do a search on the text's subject matter and concepts. This kind of reading implies the role of content schema in translation on one side and on the other it underlines the role of reading comprehension in translation.

Nonetheless, few empirical studies have been carried out on the role of reading comprehension in students' translation performance, empirically. However, some research findings imply the marked role of reading comprehension in translation, which despite differences are not far from the present study. As an example, Abdelhalim (2011) found out that being weak in critical reading- as one type of reading- affects translation skills negatively. It is argued that translators attempt to have a thorough comprehension of a text by means of her/his knowledge and "critical reading skills" as well as the way he/she is trained (Abdelhalim, 2011, p. 337). This argument is close to the present research, which considers the effective role of content schema and reading comprehension in students' translation performance. It is a sign to conclude that translator trainees can reach the deep meaning of the text, which is far beyond surface meaning of words, by resorting to their schematic knowledge and reading skills that are successively tied to each other.

Reading comprehension is emphasized in textbooks for translation students (Venuti, 2008; Bell, 1993; Newmark, 1988); though, its contribution toward translation performance is little discussed in any empirical researches. The reason may be due to the usual automaticity of this complex cognitive skill, i.e. comprehension; consequently, observing it scientifically is not so simple (VanDijk&Kintsch, 1983, p. 70). The results of the present study are in line with the claim that translation cannot happen properly without

comprehending the text (Catford, 1965; Brislin, 1976; Widdowson, 1979; Wilss, 1982). It is obvious that the present study views the translator as the reader of the ST, which is in accordance with Venuti (2008) view. He believes that translators can reach the unique intended message of the text only if they are "intimate" readers (ibid, p. 372). This means that a translator needs to be a perfect reader in order to translate successfully (Bell, 1993, p. 104; Coulthard, 1992, p. 12). In order to be a perfect reader, a translator trainee needs to improve her/his reading skills and this depends largely on how they are trained.

The results showed content schema as the second highly correlated variable with translation performance. It was also found as the second predictor of translation performance. This can be explained through cognitive clues. Cognitive networks augment the translator's linguistic competence with her/his world experiences including culture and discourse dimensions (Shakir, 1995). These are the dimensions essential for the translator to reach the deep meaning of a text, which is the upshot of making precise inferences from it. Inferencing, which is in turn an activity based on cognition, is innate in communicative activities including translation and reading (Gutt, 1991). It is a process, through which meaning comes into being in connection to the one's schema (Keen & Zimmerman, 1997, p. 149). Accordingly, translation and interpreting- a branch of it- are under the influence of the pre-existing background knowledge (Pochhacker, 2004, p. 57). This is especially remarkable when translator trainees have cognizance of presenting a TL version of ST "in terms of expression, function, and content" (Shakir, 1995, p. 694).

Background knowledge is also proved to have a significant role in students' translations in Kim's (2006) research. It should be noted that his definition of background knowledge is close to that of the content schema, i.e. possessing knowledge about the subject matter of a text. Findings of that study showed that the quality of students' background knowledge was an influential predictor in the quality of their translations which is congruent with the findings of the current study.

In line with the present study, Shakir (1995) concluded that translator trainees required having some knowledge about contextual features of a text. In addition, his research findings address this point that possessing linguistic knowledge would not be enough to translate a text while the register and rhetoric of the ST remain intact. His study stresses the role of instructors to help students perceive the importance of background knowledge in translation performance.

The findings of this study showed that possessing relevant content schema is a prerequisite for translator trainees, so that they can noticeably improve their performance in translation. This would help them integrate the excerpts of a certain text with their own

knowledge of the world to shape "frames of reference" for their translation (Shakir, 1995, p. 698). In this way, they can fill the existing gaps in a text. Yule (1985) expresses that the notion of coherence exists in people; they interpret texts in accordance with experiences they have of the world around them (p. 12). Therefore, a text is merely a kind of direction for the reader to perceive the meaning by employing the pre-existing gained knowledge (Carrell &Eisterhold, 1983, p. 556). Having adequate prior knowledge helps translators analyze sentences precisely to ascertain main ideas of them (Kim, 2006). These necessitate building relevant background knowledge for translator trainees before starting the translation process. Hence, students of translation should be trained in a way to explore the significance of content schema. In accordance with the present study, Kim (2006) suggested that having knowledge about the specific theme of the text is essential in comprehending the meaning and identifying the linguistic clues by the translator to employ in information transference, new concept introduction or in discussing situation. Besides, Schema is one of the exterior and crucial factors that help the translator in comprehension and production toward organizing the text meaning (Van Dijk&Kintsch, 1983, p. 70).

Furthermore, the effectiveness of schema in comprehension and production is due to the translator's mind that makes use of schematic knowledge in order to interpret a text (Cook, 1989, p. 70). This may be the reason why content schema is the second predictor following reading comprehension as a predictor of translation performance. It is suggested that instructors can draw on strategies of building or activating schemata. Building or activating schemata can happen through administrating pre-reading activities. Though these activities have been suggested so far to improve learners' reading comprehension performance, they may also be utilized in translation didactics as a point of departure to improve students' performance in translation, and perhaps to form a basis for proposing building or activating schemata strategies directly related to translation process. This research is not an attempt toward suggesting such strategies; however, it would encourage students to gain information about the topic before translating. Moreover, instructors are advised to help students find relevant sources of information since they are responsible for providing learners with the relevant background knowledge. It reveals how translation performance, reading comprehension, and content schema tie together inseparably; therefore, translator trainers and trainees in addition to textbook writers and curriculum designers should pay more attention to the close connection between these variables. This close connection was also highlighted by other researchers (Ajideh, 2006; Kim, 2006; Shakir, 1995).

However, lack of content schema would not be the only reason concerning learners' reading problems; inactivated appropriate schemata can be another major cause (Carrell &Eisterhold, 1983).It means that students' schemata may not be activated while they are reading a text. In this regard, pre-reading activities may be employed in order to build a new schema or to activate the already-existing schema. Thus, in case of being confirmative to prior studies, this study would motivate learners to attempt at improving their reading skill. Translator trainers should also be encouraged to focus on students' reading skill prior to translation.

Finally, the results showed that vocabulary knowledge had a significant relationship with translation performance. However, this relationship could not contribute significantly to the translation performance. Newmark (1988) believed that an appropriate method in translator training courses is recommending students to underline problematic words in translation to be able to carefully check them later. This would indirectly point out to students' vocabulary knowledge as an effective factor in their translation performance. Furthermore, students' problems in translation were assumed to be linked with their limited vocabulary. Unlike these studies, the current study did not find vocabulary knowledge as a contributor to the translation performance of the learners. It can be explained through the fact that learners' prior knowledge makes up for lack of proper linguistic knowledge (Krashen, 1981). In addition, vocabulary as a segment of linguistic knowledge depends largely on context on one hand and students' interest in "content of the message" (Lefa, 1992, p. 63) on the other hand.

Another reason may be the use of dictionaries or glossaries. It is notable that in the present research, students received a glossary of words predicted to be unfamiliar to them. It is believed that dictionaries or glossaries assist students in avoiding errors (Cowie, 1979). Therefore, it may control and limit the learners' vocabulary choice and neutralize its effect as a predictor for translation performance.

Razi's (2004) findings are congruent with the current study. His findings imply that mostly content schema is activated or its activation is of greater significance than that of formal schema and subsequently vocabulary knowledge as it is considered part of formal schema. Some other researchers have also highlighted the effectiveness of learners' content schema rather than formal schema (Keshavarz et al. 2007; Floyd & Carrell, 1987; Johnson, 1981). This can justify why content schema was found to be a predictor of translation performance while vocabulary knowledge as part of formal schema was not. It means that using dictionaries or glossaries as well as possessing adequate content schema compensate for small vocabulary size of learners.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION

The results showed content schema as the second highly correlated variable with translation performance. It was also found as the second predictor of translation performance.

The findings of this study showed that possessing relevant content schema is a prerequisite for translator trainees, so that they can noticeably improve their performance in translation.

Finally, the results showed that vocabulary knowledge had a significant relationship with translation performance. However, this relationship could not contribute significantly to the translation performance.

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THE IMPACT OF INTERACTIONIST DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT ON ACADEMIC PERSUASIVE WRITING

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Abstract: This study investigated the effects of interactionist dynamic assessment on improving academic persuasive writing of two Iranian EFL learners majoring in English Language and Literature. Qualitative analysis of the interactions between the mediator and learners and the drafts written by the learners indicated that using different types of mediation were effective in developing learners' persuasive writing. In addition to the factors such as individual, time, and language feature which were shown to be integral in determining mediation, assessment of the two cases showed that factors such as mediator's role, learners' responsiveness to mediation, and agency were important in specifying mediation.

Keywords – **Dynamic Assessment; Iranian EFL Learners, Mediation, Persuasive Writing, Zone of Proximal Development**

INTRODUCTION

For Vygotsky, praxis which is rooted in the sociocultural theory (SCT) of mind is the integration of theory and practice. Based on Swain (2006), praxis and the SCT framework are promising environments for learning and this is the learners' agency that helps them to construct knowledge and improve learning. One of the important factors that learners employ in language learning in SCT is agency (Gao, 2010; Van lier, 2008). Agency is the "socioculturally mediated capacity to act" (Ahearn, 2001, p. 112); the learners' actions which are mediated by social, cultural, and contextual factors. The real

manifestation of praxis is in Vygotsky' concept of zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Lantolf&Peohner, 2011, p.12) which is defined as the

> The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86)

ZPD is considered the focal point of development through which the learners' abilities and difficulties are revealed and an assistance adjusted to their ZPD is provided to guide their development; it is "a means of accessing and at the same time promoting the process of development" (Lantolf&Peohner, 2011). A framework which can be used for the ZPD understanding and realization of the concept of praxis is dynamic assessment (DA) (Lantolf&Peohner, 2011, 2014).DA is a "procedure that attempts to modify performance, via examiners' assistance, in an effort to understand learning potential" (Lussier&Swanso, 2005, as cited in Dorfler et al., 2009, p. 87).DA helps learners to improve their development through social and cultural mediation (Poehner, 2008).

Assessment, a part of learning, is reflective of theories and approaches used in learning (Katz, 2014). Traditional assessments are aloof from the concepts of intervention, teaching and learning (McNamara, 2001) and there is no relation between assessing and teaching (Moss, 2003). However, teachers need to be assessor of learners' needs, facilitator of language learning, and evaluators of their development (Rea-Dickins, 2004). Therefore, due to the inefficiency of traditional assessment to improve learners' abilities, DA was introduced which states that teaching and assessment should be integrated so that the learners' abilities can improve.DA and non-dynamic assessment (NDA) are different due to their conceptualization of the relationship between instruction and assessment. According to Rea-Dickins (2004), there are four relationships between assessment and instruction. The first relationship which is called washback effect refers to the effect of testing on teaching. The scores obtained based on this relationship are representative of the training that the learners received not their actual knowledge. The second approach to the relationship between assessment and instructions is curriculum-driven assessment in which the assessment develops based on the curriculum goals. Therefore, instruction and assessment are related to each other and originate from curriculum objectives.

In the third approach, we deal with parallel assessment and instruction in which assessment and instruction are developed together based on pedagogical goals. According to Pohner (2008), Task-based approach is an example of this approach because both instruction and assessment follow the communicative approach which stimulate real-life communicative interactions. The last connection between assessment and instruction is

instruction embedded assessment and aims at conducting assessment while giving instruction. This type of assessment is called formative assessment (FA) and aims at providing feedback about learner' strengths and weaknesses and tailoring instruction to the learners' needs. Instruction embedded assessment is a step toward integrating assessment and instruction; however, it is not the total integration since its purpose is to help the learners to accomplish tasks but not their development. "The total integration of assessment and instruction can only be achieved when learner development becomes the goal of all educational activities, and this is the major contribution of Dynamic Assessment" (Pohner, 2008, p. 12). In fact, "DA focus is not on learners per se but on mediation in the service of development; hence, transfer takes on special significance … and genuine assessment is not possible unless it is accompanied by instruction and vice versa" (Lantolf& Thorne, 2006, pp. 356-7). NDA approaches, on the other hand, "constitute a continuum that reflects the varying degrees to which feedback is included in the procedure, with static assessment representing one end and incidental formative assessment falling near the other end" (Poehner, 2008, p. 13).

According to Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002, as cited in Lantolf& Thorne, 2006), there are three basic differences between NDA and DA assessment. The First difference is that NDA deals with the already developed abilities and skills, while DA deals with learners' future development and focuses on helping learners to develop abilities which are not fully developed yet. The Second difference is that In NDA, the examiners are after reliable measurement and do not intervene in the assessment procedures. However, DA examiners intervene in the assessment procedure and increase learners' development through mediation. And the third difference is that in NDA, examinees do not receive feedback or assistance during assessment procedure, while examinees in DA receive mediation and assistance which help them to develop. DA "is not intended as a replacement for other types of testing but as a complement to them… [and its goal is] to measure, intervene, and modify behaviors and to document the process of learning" (Anton, 2009, pp.578-9). ZPD and mediation are two integral elements of DA which are the points of distinction between DA and NDA. Moreover, mediation is "a process that humans employ in order to regulate (i.e., gain voluntary control over and transform) the material world, others' or their own social and mental activity by using culturally constructed artifacts, concepts and activities" (Lantolf& Thorne, 2006, p. 79). The two concepts of ZPD and mediation set the ground for learners' development which is the ultimate goal of DA.

According to Lantolf and Poehner (2004), there are two types of DA, interventionist and interactionist DA. These two types of DA refer to the two types of mediation that examiners offer examinees. Interventionist DA attempts at quantifying the amount of help required for a learner to quickly reach an endpoint. It uses standardized procedures to produce quantitative results which can be compared and contrasted with other results. However, "interactionist DA follows Vygotsky's preference for cooperative dialoging. In this approach assistance emerges from the interaction between the mediator and the learner, and is therefore highly sensitive to the learners' ZPD" (Pohner, 2008, p. 18). InteractionistDA deals with the quality of the assistance and the development of an individual without concerning for endpoints. In interactionist DA, mediators try to do whatever they can to help the learners go beyond their current ability level and achieve their potentials. According to Poehner (2008)

> *Interventionist* DA is concerned with quantifying, as an index of speed of learning, the amount of help required for a learner to quickly and efficiently reach a prespecified endpoint. In contrast, *interactionist* DA focuses on the development of an individual learner or even a group of learners, regardless of the effort required and without concern for predetermined endpoints. (p. 18)

These two models of DA can be applied to improve different language skills and sub-skills through providing mediation and revealing leaners' ZPD. Second language writing skill plays an important role in the professional lives of experts in almost every field (Kroll, 2003). The development of good writing skills is important for both educational and non-educational reasons (Weigle, 2002).As Hyland (2003, p. xiii) states, "the ability to communicate ideas and information effectively through the global digital network is crucially dependent on good writing skills". Therefore, academic writing is so important in education and is considered a persuasive form of discourse (Hyland, 2005).

It is noticed that Iranian EFL learners have problems in writing persuasive essays and are not aware of the tools and strategies in order to improve their texts' persuasiveness. Due to the importance of second language writing, "writing as a communicative activity needs to be encouraged and nurtured during the language learners' course of study" (Olshtain, 2001, p. 207). In writing, there are for competences that we need, linguistics competence, getting the idea competence, and organizing the idea competence (Prastyo, 2014:104). Thus, this study tried to develop the academic persuasive writing of two advanced EFL learners through implementing interactionist DA. In this study, interactionist DA was used in order to fully understand the learners' potentials, needs, and weaknessessince "the standardization of mediation in interventionist DA reduces the

chance that the interaction will be sensitive to learner emergent needs" (Lantolf&Peohner, 2014, p. 187). Moreover, compared to the interventionist DA, interactionist DA is more process based (Haywood &Lidz, 2007).

DA which is grounded in the SCT of mind has an interactive nature which focuses on learning processes and assessment integrated with instruction which aims at modifying cognitive ability (Panahi, Birjandi, &Azabdaftari, 2013). Independent problem solving represents an individuals' mental ability partially; however, reaction to mediation reveals an individual future performance and is indicative of cognitive ability (Vygotsky, 1998). Lidz (1991) states that "to merely describe the child's performance does not allow us to draw conclusions or to derive recommendations" (p. 24). In other word, "To fully assess an individual's development, it is not enough to determine her or his intrapsychological ability, we must also uncover her or his interpsychological capacity" (Lantolf&Poehner, 2004, p. 51). Lidz (1987, p. 4) defines DA as "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".

Recently, researchers have paid considerable attention to DA studies in general education and specifically, language learning to explore the efficiency and feasibility of DA for second language pedagogy. For example, Gillam, Pena, and Miller (1999) tried to assess elementary level language learners' narrative and expository discourses through dynamically in order to investigate the students' ability in storytelling. The results showed that DA practices are valuable for revealing learners' potentials and problems in language learning. Moreover, DA procedures help mediators to plan DA frameworks and to provide the learners with appropriate mediation and interactions in order to produce valuable outcomes. They said that the mediators can work on strategies which help learners to become competent language users. They believed that DA "is yet to become a routine part of evaluations of children suspected of having speech and language disorders" (p. 46).

To investigate the feasibility of DA for improving verbal ability, Poehner's (2005) employed interactionist approach in seven sessions to mediate 6 advanced L2 French university students. At the beginning of the study, the students were asked to watch a video clip and narrate a story about it. They did it first independently and after that in an interaction between the mediator and the student, the mediator diagnosed their problems and offered mediation based on their needs and problems. To see whether DA was effective or not, the students were asked to watch the same clip and narrate it again both

independently and in an interaction with the mediator. The results revealed that interactionist DA was effective in improving the students' ability to narrate and speak.

In another study on speaking ability,Poehner (2007) investigated the role of transcendence in mediating learning experience. He examined the performances of students learning French as a second language in transcendence activities. The results indicated that identifying the sources of problems to assist the learners to develop their level of performance requires extensivemediation and the mediator needs to "continually alter both tasks and mediation in order to work successfully within a learner's ZPD because individuals' abilities and corresponding developmental needs are always emergent" (Poehner, 2007, p. 333). Moreover, Hill and Sabet (2009), investigated the effect of dynamic assessment on speaking. They provided mediation in the form of questions and prompts. Based on the findings, the learners could internalize the mediation they received and improved their performances.

Besides speaking, the use of DA is examined for French language listening comprehension skill by Ableeva (2008). During the intervention, the learners listened to an authentic announcement and received some mediation in the form of leading questions, hints, prompts and linguistic and cultural explanations based on their needs and problems. The researcher believed that the interactions between the mediator and learners reveal the problematic areas in the learners' performance. Therefore, interactions help mediators to provide the learners with appropriate mediationbased on their ZPD levels and help learners to develop their listening comprehension.

In order to use DA for instructing pragmatic issues, Tajeddin and Tayebipour (2012) investigated the immediate and delayed effects of DA on a group of Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of request and apology. The participants were divided into DA and NDA group, the former group received mediation on pragmatic points based on their needs while the latter group who received no feedback and were assessed based on their independent performance. All the learners were asked to complete discourse completion tests on request and apology speech acts. The results of the study revealed that "ZPD-oriented, DA-based interactive activities lead to better learning of L2 pragmatics on the part of EFL learners" (Tajeddin&Tayebipour, 2012, p. 113). Considering scaffolding as a significant feature of sociocultural-based feedback, Nassaji and Swain (2000) considered error correction as "a social activity involving joint participation and meaningful transactions between the learner and the teacher" (p. 35).

The application of DA for language studies has been researched recently (Lantolf&Poehner, 2004; Poehner&Lantolf, 2005; Poehner, 2005, 2007). However, the

study done by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) is considered"animportanttouchstone for more recent L2 DAresearch (Lantolf&poehner, 2014, p.170). Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) studied negotiation of feedback on written performance of nine ESL students and mediation based on the learners' ZPD levels in an ESL essay writing course. During an eight-week writing course, theparticipant were asked to write an essay every session and were provided with corrective feedback adjusted with the Vygotsky's ZPD on four grammatical features: articles, tense marking, uses of prepositions and modal verbs. Through interactions with the learners, the researcher evaluated their difficulties, abilities, and needs in order to give them appropriate assistance since they believed that "different learners often have different ZPDs for the same target language form and will therefore require different levels of help" (p. 473). They sated that effective assistance should have three features.The assistance should be graduated, contingent, and dialogic.

Based on the first feature, the assistance should beappropriate to the learners' ZPDs, help the learners to complete the tasks and develop to show their potential level of ability. The second feature says that it should be provided when the need arises and must be removed as soon as learners gain the ability to self-regulate and perform the tasks independently. And according to the third feature, providing the assistance is a dialogic activity in which the assistance will be offered through a collaborative interactions between instructors and learners.As stated inLantolf and poehner (2014, p.173), Aljaafreh and Lantolf, in their study, showed that "appropriate mediation varies along three planes of" individual, time and second language feature. Different individuals at different times require different types of mediation. Regarding language features, for micro level features such as grammar, the learners may require only implicit mediation; however, for macro and discourse-level features of language, they may need explicit and expanded mediation.

Considering DA, Xiaoxiao and Yan (2010) proposed a framework for teaching writing through conducting a case study research. Although it was based on DA, no assessment was performed and the researchers just scaffolded the participant with tools such as dialogues and reading texts while teaching writing skill. The framework they proposed for mediation consisted of three stages of (a) topic choice stage, (b) idea generation and structuring stage, and (c) macro revising stage. In each stage, first the learners receive a pre task, then mediation based on their needs, and then, a post task. They claimed that using this framework for teaching writing in a dialogic manner improve the learners' writing skill and engage them in the writing tasks by raising their enthusiasm.

To address DA for improving writing skill, through an interventionist DA, Alavi and Taghizadeh (2014) provided 32 male EFL university students with three types of

implicit and explicit feedback on the content, organization skills, and strategies of essay writing. Through interacting with the instructors and receiving different forms of mediation, the students could improve the skills and strategies used for writing. Although the students had different ZPD levels, DA was effective in their development and as they argued, "DA can contribute to the cognitive development of the learners and help them reach from other regulation to self-regulation" (p. 14).

Aghaebrahimian, Rahimirad, Ahmadi, KhalilpourAlamdari (2014) examined the effect of dynamic assessment on writing ability of advanced Iranian EFL students. Through a mixed method, they compared the participants in the experimental group who were assessed dynamically and the control group who were assessed through a traditional assessment approach. The essays of the two groups were rated by two raters. The results showed that the dynamic group outperformed the traditional group with regard to writing ability. Moreover, through questionnaires, the participants affirmed the positive effects of DA on their process of writing. The students in the experimental group stated that the assistance provided step-by- step opened new opportunities for them to pay attention to new issues related to teaching that they were not aware of.

Mahdavi (2014) investigated the impact of Mediated Leaning Experience on pre-intermediate students' writing ability. Through an experimental approach, the students were categorized into two main groups of control who learnt writing traditionally and an experimental group who received mediation while learning writing skill. Through 10 writing sessions, the weaknesses of the students in the experimental group were detected and were mediated. After the mediation, revising and rewriting practices were assigned to learners in order to help the learners practice the corrections and benefit from the mediation. The results revealed that both male and female learners in the experimental group outperformed the control group.

Davoudi and Ataie-Tabar (2015) addressed the implementation of a computerized dynamic test of writing (CDTW) for improving writing ability of 60 upper-intermediate Iranian EFL students. Moreover, through a questioner, the researchers examined the participants' attitudes towards a computerized dynamic assessment, the results of which showed the students' positive attitude towards this type of learning. Through an interventionist approach, the researchers used a computerized framework to provide pre-planned hints during three steps of pre-writing, writing, and revising. It was found that CDTW was proved efficient for students' writing development and affected the students with lower levels of ability more than students with higher writing ability. Moreover, the

researchers stated that this approach was effective in reducing their learners' learning anxiety and increasing the learners' confidence and motivation.

To add to the body of knowledge gained from the literature available on DA, this study attempted to examine experimentally the feasibility and efficacy of mediation in the form of interactionist DA on the EFL learners' academic persuasive writing. Interactionist DA provides mediation through the interaction between examiner and examinee and in this type of DA, hints or prompts are not preplanned; however, they emerge from the interaction and mediation. Thus, the purpose of this study was to develop the learners' academic persuasive writing. Moreover, this study tried to find the factors that determine the mediation that is provided for the learners through the interactions because the researcher believes that if the mediators know these factors, they can provide the learner with appropriate mediation.

This study holds importance in that through praxis (integrating teaching and assessment), it tries to improve EFL learners' academic persuasive writing by focusing on the learners' ZPD and the mediation that the leaners need to receive based on their ZPD. Yet it addressed written communication ability which is a paramount accomplishment for foreign and second language learners (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Moreover, the obtained results of the study can be highly informative for conducting argumentative writing practices since although argumentative genre is important for individuals' academic and non-academic success (Crowhurst, 1988; Ramos, 2014), there is a dearth of studies which have addressed it (Schneer, 2014). Yet, "no one kind of writing provides more opportunities for writing about real issues for real audiences than does argument" (Crowhurst, 1988, p. 35). What is more, every DA practice is valuable since it assesses the process of learning rather than the product through qualitative analysis of learners' writing performance and focus on the processes of learning in order to achieve the full actualization of individuals' potential capabilities. Furthermore, DA practices set the ground for learners' engagement in reflecting about their actions and planning their learning based on the mediation and interactions they have with their teachers. Moreover, this study tried to find the factors that specifies the mediation that learners receive, the results of which can be valuable for mediators while providing assistance and mediation for leaners.Furthermore, the results of the study will have implications for those interested in DA practices, specifically, language teachers of writing courses, those involved in language assessment, and even those in favor of persuasive writing genre.

Based on the foregoing points, the present study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. Do interactionist DA procedures have any effect on the Iranian EFL learners' academic persuasive writing?

2. What are the factors that affect the mediation that the learners receive?

METHOD

This study used a qualitative design in which two Iranian EFL learners' performance and development on academic persuasive writing tasks were tracked.

Settings and Participants

The study was conducted at Shiraz University in 2015. The data were collected from two senior female students majoring in English Language and Literature who were Persian native speakers. The student had already passed a paragraph writing course in which they learnt different techniques of paragraph development such as description, explanation, example, anecdote, and cause and effect. The two participants volunteered to take part in DA sessions. The researcher used pseudonyms (Mary and Anne) for the participants while presenting the results of the study in order to keep the participants' confidentiality.

Materials

The researcher used two books as the source for teaching academic persuasive writing to the participants. One of them was Pocket keys for writers by Raimes (2013) and the other one was A complete guide to academic writing for EFL learners which was developed by Rahimi and Mehrpou (2010) as two associate professors at Shiraz University for the Iranian EFL learners. Moreover, the researcher found some argumentative topics from the internet for writing sessions. The topics were:

1. Some people believe that film stars are not worth the money they are paid.
2. Being considered a beneficial source of information, the internet has some disadvantages and drawbacks.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

To find participants for the study, the researcher asked some of the senior students to take part in three writing sessions in order to learn persuasive genre of writing and help

conducting a research study. Two of the students volunteered to participate in the study. The researcher scheduled three writing sessions for the two cases to learn and practice introduction, body, and conclusion in argumentative essays in the first, second, and third sessions, respectively. The researcher tried to find some interesting debatable topics from the internet for writing sessions.In the first session of the treatment, the researcher gave the cases a topicand asked them to writean introduction about it. Then through interactions, the researcher provided the cases with mediation and helped them to revise their introductions and change them to argumentative ones. For further practice, the researcher gave two more topics and asked the participants to write introductions on the topics. In the second session, the participants were asked to develop the first introduction they had written in the previous session. During this session, the researcher taught the participants how to write the body section in argumentative essays through interactions with them. The third session was allocated to conclusion writing in argumentative genre. The participants reviewed the introduction and body they had written during the previous sessions and completed their essays by writing conclusions. Similar to the previous sessions, the researcher provided the participants with hints and tips to write conclusion in argumentative essays. The written drafts of the participants were collected for further analysis. Moreover, the interactions between the researcher and the two participants were recorded. The writings and the interactions were analyzed qualitatively and the results are presented in the following section.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

In this section, some of the interactions between the researcher as the mediator and the learners produced during writing different sections of argumentative essays are presented. The first interaction was about the introduction and the thesis statements the participants wrote on the first topic mentioned in the Materials section.

Excerpt A:

Mediator   : OK, let's see what you have written. Mary, start.

Mary   : I believe film stars are not worth the enormous sums they are paid.

Mediator   : In argumentative essays, you should avoid personal feelings.

Mary   : You mean I should not say "I believe"?

Mediator : Yes. And Anne?

Anne **:** Film stars have become tycoons through the world.

Mediator : The same problem with your statement Anne, it is your personal feeling.

Anne : I do not think so…I did not say 'I believe' or 'in my opinion'.

Mediator : Right, but it seems that it is your opinion since you have no evidence for it, do you?

Anne : Uhum…No.So, you mean that we should not show our positions?

Mediator : No, in the introduction, you should introduce the topic and show that it is debatable and controversial, give your position but not personal ideas without support.

[After some seconds, Anne revised her introduction.]

A**nne** : May I read my new sentence?

Mediator : Sure.

Anne : Nowadays, film stars' way of life and the amount of money that they receive has become a controversial issue.

Mediator : Sounds good. You introduced the topic and its importance. Now write your thesis statement in which you need to show opposing views. And you Mary?

Mary : Well…I do not know…

Mediator : no problem. Let's do it. Instead of saying "I", refer to other people.

Mary : for example some of my friend…

Mediator : Yeah good. Now you can compare being an actor with other jobs.

[Mary thought for a moment]

Mary : ok. Some of my friends believe that actors are very popular and should earn more money than people in other jobs.

Mediator : Well, now present the opposite view to show that it is controversial.

[Mary thought for some seconds]

Mary : Some of my friends believe that actors are very popular and should earn more money than people in other jobs, while others believe that it is unfair.

Mediator : very good, but before this statement introduce the topic first, like what Anne wrote as the introduction.

[Mary thought for some seconds]

Mary : Whether film stars are worth the money they receive or not is an important subject of debate.

Mediator : Well done.

Excerpt B:

Mary : Although some believe that film stars are not worth these amount of money….

Mediator : What?

Mary : Oh oh sorry…this amount.

Excerpt C:

Anne : Movie stars are cultural representative of their society.

Mediator : What?

Anne : I mean they show the culture.

Mediator : No…not the meaning.

Anne : Then what?

Mediator : Agreement between subject and verb components.

Anne : Ok for 'movie stars' have used 'are'….

Mediator : Verb components… representative…

Anne : Oh yeah…representatives.

The following excerpt was a part of the interaction that happened during the second session in which the focus was on the body section of argumentative essays.

Excerpt D:

Mediator : Mary! Your views (arguments) and opposing views (counter arguments) are mixed!

Mary : Well…first, I said a counterargument and then, an argument against it.

Mediator : Do not you think that the two sides' positions and claims should be stated clearly?

Mary **:** Should not we mix the two?

Mediator **:** What is your idea?

Anne : I think we should separate arguments and counterarguments.

Mediator : Good, and how can we present them?

Anne **:** May be in two different paragraphs.

Mary : You mean a paragraph for arguments and another for counterarguments?

Anne : Yes. Am I right?

Mediator : Yes good. And which one should we state first? Arguments or counterarguments?

Mary : Counterarguments.

Anne : Yeah counterarguments.

Mediator : Why?

Mary : Because after that, we show that the other sides' views or ideas are not correct.

Anne : And then give our claims and arguments.

Mediator : Excellent. In a paragraph, give counterarguments and refute them. Then, in another paragraph, give your claims and arguments and support them with strong evidences.

Interaction D which is presented below was one of the interactions that happened in the third session in which the learners learnt and practiced the conclusion section of argumentative essays.

The following excerpt was a part of the interaction happened during conclusion writing.

Excerpt E:

Mediator : New ideas in the conclusion!

Anne : Sorry?

Mediator : Do we add new ideas in the conclusion?

Anne : Well…no. I learnt it in our paragraph writing course, but I forgot it.

Mediator : Mary you have copied the thesis statement in the conclusion!

Mary : Yeah to show my position.

Mediator : Ok you need to restate it.

Mary : Should I change it?

Mediator : No not changing. Keep the idea and restate it.

Mary : OK.

Mediator : Anne, why did you mention both arguments and counterarguments in the conclusion?

Anne : Because in the conclusion we should summarize what we have written.

Mediator : Right. But what is the purpose of an argumentative essay?

Anne :Well… [Thinking]…to convince others.

Mediator : Good. Now for convincing others what should you do?

Anne : Give claims.

Mary : And strong evidences.

Mediator : Very good. In the conclusion, as the last part of your essay, you want to convince others with your ideas.

Anne : You mean we should just give arguments?

Mary : I think, we should write some of our key ideas.

Mediator : Right. Recount your main arguments, then restate your thesis statement and finally, end with an emphatic sentence.

Discussions

As it was mentioned in the literature, based on Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), mediation varies across language features and individuals. The interaction above confirmed their idea and showed how different learners responded in different ways to the mediation. By receiving some tips from the mediator, Anne could revise her introduction, while Mary needed more assistance to write her thesis statement and introduction. Moreover, Anne took initiatives more than Mary and challenged the mediator by asking questions and defending what she had written. The learners who are more responsive and take more initiatives during interactions may need less help and may perform independently.Furthermore, since the participants were learning discourse-level and generic structures, the mediator had to provide explicit mediation to the learners because the learners did not know the argumentative genre. However, for correcting micro-level aspects of language such as grammar, the learners may need implicit mediation or a range of implicit to explicit assistance. Comparing this interaction with the following excerpts (B and C), we can see that for correcting grammatical mistakes, implicit or a mixture of implicit and explicit types of feedback are used, while, for teaching features of discourse (interaction A), explicit mediation is employed.

Comparison of interactions B and C showed that the two learners' responses to the same form of mediation was different. The mediator used clarification request for both learners, but their responsiveness to the mediation was different. Mary could easily notice her mistake and correct it, while Anne needed more assistance. While mediating Anne's performance, the mediator, first used clarification request, then metalinguistic feedback, and finally, directed the learner's attention to the word which was problematic. However, the mediator did not provided the learners with correct answer and tried to elicit the correct form and made the learner correct herself. Therefore, in addition to the three factors proposed byAljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) that specifies mediation, we can refer to the mediator as another factor (different mediators may have different abilities to use different forms of mediation and direct the learners to recover and improve their performance). Yet, another factor which determines the mediation is the learners' responsiveness to previous mediation that they received.As it is shown in this excerpt, Mary was responsive to the first mediation and could correct herself. However, the mediator tried both implicit and explicit types of mediation to help Anne since she did not respond correctly to clarification request and metalinguistic feedback.

Regarding the time factor in specifying the amount and type of mediation, the learners' needs in interactions B and C can be compared with their need for assistance in

the first excerpt. In interaction A, Mary was highly dependent on the mediator's assistance and received explicit mediation, while, in interaction B, through an implicit feedback that she received she could recover her sentence. On the contrary, Anne could not adjust her grammaticalerror easily and needed extended assistance in interaction C; however, in interaction A, she revised her sentence easily by receiving just some minute hints.

Comparing the learners' performance in interactions D and E with their performance in interactions A, B, and C, in the second and third sessions, the learners became more active during the interaction. As it is indicated in these excerpts, instead of relying on the mediator to give them hints and add something to their previous knowledge, the learners took initiatives to ask questions, give comments, and answer the questions posed by the mediator. Both of the learners contributed to the discussion to make a joint understanding of argumentative genre of writing. Thus, one more factor which specifies the meditation can be agency; exercising different levels of agency needs different mediation. Yet, the mediator's role was very effective in helping the leaners to exercise their agency and take initiatives. Instead of directly giving instructions, the mediator posed some questions and elicited the learners' responses in order to engage them in knowledge construction. Thus, the mediator's role affected the mediation that the learners received and can be considered a factor that determines the mediation the leaners receive.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION

Due to the importance of second language writing for effective communication and the value of argumentative genre as an academic genre, this study employed an interactionist DA framework for improving two EFL learners' academic persuasive writing. The interactions and the drafts that the participants wrote during DA sessions showed that the mediations and interactions were effective in developing the participants' persuasive writing. The results of the study were in agreement with other studies which showed the effectiveness of DA practices for improving different language skills (Ableeva, 2008; Alavi&Taghizadeh, 2014; Aljaafreh&Lantolf, 1994; Davoudi&Ataie-Tabar, 2015; Gillam, Pena, & Miller, 1999; Hill &Sabet, 2009; Lantolf&Poehner, 2004; Mahdavi, 2014; Nassaji& Swain, 2000; Poehner, 2005, 2007; Poehner&Lantolf, 2005; Tajeddin&Tayebipour, 2012; Xiaoxiao& Yan, 2010). Analysis of theinteractions showed that the mediator could help the learners learn persuasive genre of writing and overcome their problems. Furthermore, the results showed that the mediation helped the leaners to actively take part in interactions and revise their texts and give comments on each other's

writings. One of the advantages of the interactionist type of mediation was that the learners could be actively involved in the process of learning and they gave comments on each other's' performance. Yet, the mediation that the learners received was completely matched with their needs and wants.

In addition to the three factors that Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) mentioned for determining mediation, the interactions in this study revealed three more factors that regulate the mediation that the learners received. These factors were the mediator's role, learners' responsiveness to mediation, and agency. However, there may be other factors that specify the amount and type of mediation which can be revealed through other studies using interventionist or interactionist DA frameworks. The results of this study can be informative for language teachers and those in favor of improving writing skill.Yet, the results have implications for material developers since there are few language learningsources designed based on DA framework.The concepts of mediation, continuous assessment and internalization should be taken into account for designing materials in line with dynamic systems. Nonetheless, the results of this study cannot be generalized since the number of participants, their proficiency levels, and thenumber of DA sessions need reconsiderations; only two female senior students majoring in English participated in three DA sessions. Although this was a small-scale study, it can increase the teachers' awareness that many different factors are involved in learning. So, through action research or large-scale studies, others can find as many as factors affecting DA practices in order to be aware of them and benefit from them to facilitate learning and development. Thus, this study suggests other teachers and researchers to study different contexts and provide the readers with a possible list of factors that affect mediation in order to increase their consciousness regarding different factors.Moreover, further studies will be required to implement interactionist approach in large-scale assessment to see how interactionist DA affect other cases. Yet, other researchers can integrate DA practices for writing with technological advancements to see how they can mediate learners online and through software.

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ELT RESEARCH PAPERS AS AUTHENTIC MATERIALS IN TEACHING RESEARCH-BASED ARTICLE WRITING: A CASE IN INDONESIAN CONTEXT

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Abstract: There are strong shreds of evidence that the choice of instructional materials has large effects on students' achievement. This study was to assess the efficacy of using ELT research papers as authentic materials in teaching research-based article writing. This study was aimed at revealing whether or not there is a significant difference in students' writing skill in terms of ELT research paper writing between the students who were taught by using ELT research papers as authentic materials and those who were taught by using textbook materials provided by the faculty. This study belongs to a quasi-experimental study with an experimental and control group pretest-posttest design. The population of this study was 75 students from the fourth semester of English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, East Java, Indonesia. The sample was selected through cluster random sampling and consisted of 50 students that were divided into two groups. The instrument used to collect the data was a writing test. Consequently, normality and homogeneity of the data were tested. A *t-test* was used to compare the mean of the two groups. The hypothesis was designed and tested at 0.05 level of significance. The results revealed that there is a significant difference in students' academic writing skill between the students who were taught by using the ELT research papers as authentic materials and those who were taught by using textbook materials. The *t-test* revealed that *t-value* is higher than *t-table* (6.07>2.01). Therefore it is concluded that the authentic instructional materials could significantly improve students' academic writing skill.

INTRODUCTION

Writing skill is not something innate. Rather it can be learned and practiced. It does not come naturally as does walking. It is a captious and capricious linguistic code. It needs a lot of hard work on the part of the learner. Writing is a highly complex process, it is recursive rather than linear in nature, it needs some pre-writing activities than drafting, redrafting, and revision. It is as difficult for the natives as for the non-native. Because writers must balance multiple issues like content, purpose, audience, organization, spelling, vocabulary, mechanics and punctuation. Writing is particularly difficult for the foreign learners because they need to demonstrate with skill all the above elements in a new language. Moreover, for past many years, writing has been taught keeping in mind the product-oriented approach rather than the process (Masood, 2005).

Throughout their studies, all university students in Indonesia are required to write, for instance: term papers or exam answers. A university student will pass from his/her study if he/she is able to write a research-based article writing as their final project (Ghufron, 2015). Writing research-based articles for university students in Indonesia is not only as a final project, but also as a competitive activity among Indonesian university students to achieve the grants from the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education (Kemenristek Dikti). This competition is done every year in order to develop students' skill in scientific writing (Ditlitabmas Dirjen Dikti, 2014). Dealing with the previous reasons, teaching a research-based article writing to university students is a must in Indonesia.

To accommodate teaching research-based article writing, Indonesian teachers have done many things. They use various techniques, teaching media, and teaching materials. Those things give various impacts on students writing skill.

In the case of teaching writing, there are some factors that could influence students' writing skill which could not be ignored by the teachers. Those factors include students' ability in generating and organizing their ideas by using correct diction, grammar, and good organization into a readable text or discourse (Richards and Renandya, 2002). Besides, the students' background knowledge and intelligence will affect the teaching techniques and teaching materials used by the teachers. Teachers should be careful of teaching materials to be applied in teaching writing. Materials that are given by a teacher in

teaching and learning process influence students' understanding. Consequently, materials presented in teaching and learning process must be appropriate to students' condition.

For many years, it is believed that authentic material is good and interesting teaching materials to apply in teaching and learning process. Firth (1957, p.175-176) argues that language should be learned in concrete, adjure, authentic details of use, not as automatic, artificial, abandoned sentences. He further explains that the assigning of a discourse as a basic in a context of situation accords to the account of meaning since situations are agreed to admit meaning. Masood (2005) states that authentic materials are very intriguing and exciting. They are assorted in nature and have many things to offer.

Nowadays, the authentic materials have commonly been used in educational context. Crawford (in Richard and Renandya, 2002) states that many textbook materials fail to fulfill the needs of students. Nunan (2001, p.212) argues that authentic materials could help students learn and to use foreign language more apocalyptic. Therefore, the use of authentic materials is better to fulfill the students' needs.

In teaching writing, teachers can use the authentic materials by focusing on real language use of various authentic materials such as journal article (research papers), magazines, etc. and by assigning them some assignments based on the authentic materials (Rahman, 2013). However, teachers should be aware of selecting authentic materials because not all authentic materials can be used in teaching and learning process. Teacher, in designing good materials, should make a consideration toward some aspects so that the material is good enough to be used as a teaching resource.

Many experts argue that, in some cases, authentic materials need to be adapted to be suitable for a particular level of students. Materials adaptation refers to matching materials to the learner's needs, the teacher's demands and administration's purpose (McDonough and Shaw, 2004, p.73). Therefore, Materials adaptation plays a very important role in language teaching and learning.

Whatever situation a teacher may have, it is very likely that sometimes the teacher will find the need to adapt a particular text or lesson with material that he or she feels is more useful for promoting learning. To get beyond the limitations of a given text or lesson, many teachers often adapt or create activities involving authentic materials or media. Once teachers start to use authentic materials and observe the impact the real world context has on students, they may actually seek out ways to incorporate them more into lesson plans.

Dealing with the common problems faced by the university students in writing research-based article, they commonly get frustrated due to the lack of knowledge in the structure of research papers, the difficulty in organizing ideas into readable text, the

difficulty in writing citations, the difficulty in finding some technical terms, and the difficulty in making inferences.

In the case of this research, to overcome those problems, the teaching research-based article writing was done by applying ELT research papers as instructional materials. The collection of journal articles was used as real examples for university students. Through the journal articles, they could learn the structure of research-based article writing, they could learn how the writers organize their ideas into readable text, they could learn how the writers write their citations to support their ideas and findings, they could learn how the writers present the data and draw the inferences or conclusions, they could learn some technical terms or vocabularies in language education research, and etc.

The relationship between teaching and research in higher education is one of international concern, (Prosser, Jenkins, & Healey, 2005, p.3). Research has always been central to academic life (Schofield, 2006, p.6). Hinkel (2013, p.1) states that in recent years, in ESL/EFL pedagogy, research has been motivated by the goal of helping learners to improve the quality and sophistication of their second language (L2) production and writing.

Teachers are being asked to demonstrate that they use evidence-based practice in their work. Research findings are part of evidence-based practice. The U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Education Sciences defines "evidence-based education" as The integration of professional wisdom with the best available empirical evidence in making decisions about how to deliver instruction. "Professional wisdom" here is defined as the judgment that individuals acquire through experience and consensus views of effective strategies and techniques to use in instruction, (Smith, Harris, and Reder, 2005).

 The definitions above make clear that instructional practice should be driven by professional wisdom as well as by evidence from scientifically based research. Therefore, in order to engage in evidence-based practice, teachers need to integrate their own knowledge of what is effective for the particular students with whom they work with the findings from the research that is available, (Smith, Harris, and Reder, 2005).

Teachers can learn more about research so that they can use it, along with professional wisdom, to make decisions about instruction. Zeuli and Tiezzi (1993) studied teachers' perspectives about research and found that teachers generally have one of three different perspectives. They are: (1) Research is not useful. Researchers do not understand the teaching context, and the only way to improve the teaching is through having experience with students; (2) Research can be useful, if it is presented in the form of

specific and practical strategies, techniques, and approaches that can be readily used in the classroom; and (3) Research is useful, but we do not need it to give practical strategies.

Zeuli and Tiezzi (1993) found that the level of formal education that the teacher had completed was not related to the teacher's having one or another of these perspectives. They found, however, that those teachers who had participated in some type of research themselves were more likely to view research as useful.

St. Clair, Chen, and Taylor (2003, p.8) found that more experienced practitioners and those who had specific training or experience in conducting research were more likely to read and use research, but that level of formal education was "not a predictor of the use of research".

In a review of the literature on how teachers use research, Garner, Bingman, Comings, Rowe, and Smith (2001, p.8-9) found that teachers do not approach research in a linear way; rather, they "scan the environment" for new ideas from the research and are more apt to apply its findings when they have a chance to discuss those findings and their implications with colleagues. Teachers also are more likely to use research to guide their instruction when they have opportunities for "sustained interactivity" with researchers – i.e., when they work closely with researchers and are treated as partners in, and not as "targets" of research. Finally, teachers seek truth in and utility of the research -- "research findings that fit with their experience and, better still, are vouched for by trusted colleagues" and "that can help them improve their current practice". Other research from the National Center for the Study of Adult Learning and Literacy (NCSALL) confirms the importance of using study circles and practitioner research training as part of professional development to help teachers "access, understand, judge, and use research" (Smith, Bingman, Hofer, Medina, & Practitioner Students, 2002, p.76).

According to Smith, Harris, and Reder (2005), research studies do not address all of the issues that adult ESL teachers face. Research is not likely to describe, for example, an specific strategy that a teacher can implement in class immediately. Furthermore, there are many questions that teachers have about teaching the wide range of adult students learning English; some of these questions may not be informed by research studies. The research that does exist, however, can provide information that teachers can integrate with their own and others' professional wisdom to develop evidence-based practice. Research can also help teachers challenge their assumptions about who their students are, how they learn, and what instructional strategies work best for them. Helping teachers become involved directly with research and researchers is an important strategy for opening up the world of research to teachers and program administrators.

Research results also instill fresh material in the classroom. Although some subjects which are learned in the classroom are fairly well-established, many areas of teaching materials are rapidly evolving. New research results represent prevailing theories, the outcome of the cumulative understanding, and the application of concepts to the most relevant problem. It was found that there is no better way to keep course material current than to peruse the latest research and update the material so that it reflects current understanding (Feamster, 2013).

Based on the explanation above, it can be inferred that research result can also be used as a source of information or teaching materials. Therefore, this research is intended to evaluate the effects of teaching materials taken from the result of ELT research papers as authentic materials for the academic writing course.

There are many researchers who investigate the effect of authentic materials on students' achievement. For instances, Masood (2005), Maroko (2010), and Rahman (2013) conducted a research in exploiting authentic materials in teaching writing. All of them investigated the use of authentic materials in a different context with this study. The study reported here aimed to reveal whether or not there was a significant difference in students' research-based article writing skill between those who were taught by using ELT research papers as authentic materials and those who were taught by using textbook materials. The focus of this research was the use of ELT research papers and research-based article writing.

ELT Research Paper as Instructional Material

The word "instruction" is a science and "instructional design" is a technology of the science (Merriell, 1996). It is a procedure which is not governed by any natural laws, teachers should be creative to produce instructional design model to improve their teaching and learning the process. On another hand, it must relate to scientific principles of instructional strategies. Instruction should allow students to do appropriate learning activities; therefore, teachers should help students control the learning activities that promote learning (Ghufron, Saleh, Warsono, & Sofwan, 2016).

According to Guthrie, Johnson, Pfaff, and Hildebrandt (2012, p.2) Instructional materials are those items such as books, other printed matter, video and audio recordings, computer software, and digital content which are used as part of the instructional process. While the format of instructional materials has evolved and will continue to change, the purpose remains the same.

Maryland State Department of Education (2014) defines instructional materials as a variety of materials in any format which influences the student's learning and the instructor's teaching. They include but are not limited to, textbooks, library books, periodicals, pamphlets, art prints, study prints, pictures, transparencies, films, filmstrips, slides, videocassettes, videodiscs, audio cassettes, sound recordings, compact discs, computer software, CD-ROMS, and electronic resources.

Based on the definitions above, it can be synthesized that instructional materials mean textbooks and other materials written and published for use by students in instruction that are required or essential to students' success in a course of study. Instructional materials are divided into printed and non-printed instructional materials. Printed instructional materials refer to materials that are printed in a book or other printed form. Non-printed instructional materials mean instructional materials in formats other than print and include instructional materials that require the availability of electronic equipment in order to be used as a learning resource, including software programs, video disks, and audio tapes.

Referring to the definition above, research paper writing as instructional material of academic writing course are resource materials that teachers can use when planning and carrying out instruction. The materials focus on research paper writing. The materials teach students how to write research paper well, such as principles of academic writing, writing an abstract, writing an introduction, writing a research method, writing research results, writing discussion section, writing a conclusion, and writing citations and references. These instructional materials are used to teach academic writing for students in higher education.

Academic Writing

Masood (2005) states that writing in the strict sense of the word is derived from speech, and is, in fact, an imperfect visual representation of it, for such purpose as communication at a distance and the keeping of records. Writing is the only conventional device for recording sounds.Whitaker (2009) defines academic writing as the writing which students have to do for university courses. In addition, Prastyo (2014) stated that academic writing is an activity that needs some competences such as linguistics, getting the idea, and organizing the idea. According to Bailey (2003), academic writing is designed for anybody who is studying at colleges and universities and has to write essays and other assignments for exam or coursework. It is a flexible course that allows students to work either with a teacher or by themselves, to practice those areas which are most important for

their studies. Based on the definitions above, it can be concluded that academic writing is writing an essay in which the purpose of that essay is to fulfill the courses in universities.

Authentic Materials

Adams (1995, p.4) defines authentic materials as materials which have not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching. In addition, Gardner and Miller (1999, p.101) states that authentic materials mean any text (printed or digital) or tape which is produced for a purpose other than teaching the target language. In short, authentic materials are any materials which have been produced for real-life use for both interactional and transactional purpose.

Biber (1995, as cited in Maroko, 2010) elaborates some characteristics of authentic materials as follows. First, they are objective as opposed to intuitive. Second, when they are adopted as teaching resources, authentic texts allow for verification of classroom facts. Third, authentic materials are pedagogic in that, as teaching materials, they bring a variety of learning methodology to the classroom, therefore, they could improve students' motivation. They enable teachers to appraise their instruction within the students' lives and provide literacy instruction using the very materials the students will engage with as they live those lives.

METHOD

This study was quasi-experimental with pretest-posttest control group design. The experimental design was conducted in this research because this research aimed to explore the relationship between instructional materials and writing skill. There were two variables in this experimental research. The first was the independent variable that was ELT research papers as authentic materials in teaching writing. The second variable was the dependent variable. *Writing skill* became the dependent variable which was affected by the independent variable.

Participants

The population for this study was the fourth-semester students of English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, East Java, Indonesia, with the total number of 75 students. The sample consisted of 50 students selected through cluster random sampling. The participants were then randomly divided into two classes: (1) II-B as the experimental group; and (2) II-A as the control group.

Instruments

The instrument for this study was a writing test. The objective of the test was to ask the students to write a research paper based on the results of mini research that they had carried out before the treatment. The instruction of the writing test was also tested its readability. Readability is defined as reading ease, especially as it results from a writing style. To know the readability of the writing test, the researcher firstly asked the students who were not the members of the experimental or control group, to read and understand the instruction of the writing test. This step was necessary since there have been some cases in which students failed to do the test due to their difficulty to understand the given instruction. Hughes (1996) mentions some factors to write a good instruction. First, the instruction should be clear and explicit. Second, it should avoid the supposition that all students know what is intended. Third, the test writer should not rely on the students' power of telepathy to elicit the desired behavior. After the instrument was clearly readable, then, it was used to test the experimental and control group after the treatment.

There were two types of materials used in the treatment, ELT research papers as the authentic materials and the textbook materials. The textbook materials used to teach academic writing in English Education Study Program of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro is the fourth edition of a book entitled "Writing Academic English" written by Oshima and Hogue in 2006. On the other hand, the authentic materials used in the treatment was the collection of journal articles focusing on ELT research.

Procedures

There were two groups in this study, one experimental and one control. Before the two groups were treated by using different instructional materials, the pre-test was given. The pre-test was used to test the previous knowledge of the students. Then, the results of the pre-test were analyzed to know whether the students in the two groups have the same starting point or not. After that, the treatment was given to the two groups. ELT research papers as authentic materials were used to teach students in the experimental group while the control group was taught by using textbook materials which were provided by the faculty. After the treatment conducted to the two groups, the post-test was given to the two groups to measure their level of achievement. The results of the posttest, then, were analyzed by checking for the normality and homogeneity as prerequisite testing before *t-test*. At last, the data was tested by using a *t-test* to compare the mean of the two groups (experimental and control). All data yielded from this study was analyzed by using SPSS 16.0.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

Pre-test Results

The pre-test was used to test the previous knowledge of the students included in the study. The test was given in the first meeting before giving any treatment. The students were asked to write a research paper based on a mini research they had done before the treatment. Then, the results of the test were analyzed based on some indicators, i.e. content and organization, usage, sentence construction, and mechanics. The scoring rubric used in this study was New Jersey Holistic Scoring Rubric (2015). The interrater scoring technique was also implemented in this study. There were two scorers who gave the score to the students' writing results. This was done to avoid subjectivity in scoring. The following table shows the summary of pre-test results of experimental and control group.

Table 1.
Descriptive Statistics of Pre-test Results

Group	Number of Students (N)	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	Variance
Experimental	25	66.60	4.06	16.50
Control	25	65.92	3.36	11.33

The students' scores were converted into A, B, C, or D and were written down in the transcript. The score range from 0 – 59 was converted into D, 60 – 69 was C, 70 -79 was B, and 80 – 100 was A. The students who got D were 'failed' and they must join the remidial program. From the mean score of the class, it can be seen that the most students still got C point. The score was still under the passing grade of B point which is 70. It means that there was a problem that was needed to be solved in order to improve their achievement.

To prove that both of experimental and control class have the same starting point (balance), the mean scores of the two classes were compared and tested by using *t-test.* This balancing test must be done before comparing two groups/classes in order to ensure that the difference results of post-test are caused by the treatment, not by other factors such as different intelligence or others. However, before the data were tested by using *the t-test* to know the balance, the data must firstly be analyzed the normality and homogeneity. The results of the test show that p>0.05, therefore, it can be concluded that the data was in normal distribution. The following is the results of normality test.

Table 2.
Normality Test of Pre-test Results

Group	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Significance Level (α)	Results	Conclusion
Experimental	0.55	0.05	p>0.05	Normal

				Distribution
Control	0.21	0.05	p>0.05	Normal Distribution

After the data was known that it was in normal distribution, then, the data was tested its homogeneity. The result of homogeneity test shows that the significant level is 0.29 which is higher than 0.05 or p>0.05, it means that the experimental group and the control group have the same variance (homogeneous).

The next is the analysis of balance test. Based on the result of balance test, the result of *t-value* is lower than *t-table* (*t-value<t-table).* Therefore, it can be concluded that the experimental class and control class are in balance condition. The following is the summary of balance test.

Table 3.
Balance Test

Variable	N	df	Mean	SD	t-value	t-table	α	Conclusion
Experimental	25	48	66.60	4.06	0.64	2.01	0.05	Not
Control	25		65.92	3.36				Significant

Post-test Results

The post-test was given after the two classes treated by different treatment. In this case, the experimental class was treated by using ELT research papers authentic materials and the control class was treated by using the textbook materials (previous textbook provided by the faculty). In the post-test, students were asked to write ELT research paper based on the results of mini research they had done before the treatment. The following table shows the post-test results of experimental and control group.

Table 4.
Descriptive Statistics of Post-test Results

Group	Number of Students (N)	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	Variance
Experimental	25	72.88	3.11	9.69
Control	25	67.72	2.89	8.37

From the mean score of the two classes, it can be seen that the mean of the experimental class is higher than the control class. Therefore, it can be concluded that ELT research papers as authentic materials give good effect toward students' academic writing skill.

After the results of post-test between the two classes were gained, the data, then, were analyzed their normality and homogeneity as prerequisite testing before *t-test*. The *t-*

test of post-test results was the final test done in order to compare between the two classes (experimental and control class) whether or not there is a significant difference in the students' achievement from the two classes. The following table presents the results of normality test of the post-test results in details.

Table 5.
Normality Test of Post-test Results

Group	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Significance Level (α)	Results	Conclusion
Experimental	0.83	0.05	p>0.05	Normal Distribution
Control	0.24	0.05	p>0.05	Normal Distribution

After the data was known that it was in normal distribution, then, the data was tested its homogeneity. The result of homogeneity test shows that the significant level is 0.95 which is higher than 0.05 or p>0.05, it means that the experimental group and the control group have the same variance (homogeneous).

The next is the analysis of *t-test*. Based on the result of *the t-test*, the *t-value* is higher than *t-table* (*t-value>t-table*). Therefore, it can be concluded that there was a significant difference of students' academic writing skill between the students who were taught by using ELT research papers as authentic materials and those who were taught by using the textbook materials (previous textbook provided by the faculty). The following table shows the summary of *t-test* result.

Table 3.
T-test of Post-test

Variable	N	df	Mean	SD	t-value	t-table	α	Conclusion
Experimental	25	48	72.88	3.11	6.07	2.01	0.05	Significant
Control	25		67.72	2.89				

Discussions

This study clearly reveals that the use of ELT research papers as authentic materials improved the quality of learning in the students. The use of ELT research paper as authentic instructional materials in teaching academic writing in terms of research paper writing significantly improved students' skill. Based on the results of *t-test* analysis, it can be concluded that there was significant difference of students' academic writing skill between the students who were taught by using ELT research papers as authentic instructional materials and those who were taught by using the textbook materials which is usually used by the teacher (previous textbook provided by the faculty). This agrees with

the findings of Oladejo, Olosunde, Ojebisi, and Isola (2011) who reveal that learners who were taught by using the improvised instructional material especially from the authentic materials yielded higher scores compared to those who were taught with the textbook instructional material. This finding is supported by the findings of Okobia (2011) who states that the lack of suitable instructional materials and resources cause the students to be passive participants in the learning process. Consequently, there is a lack of enthusiasm in the teaching and learning process by both teachers and students. The findings of this study which prove that authentic materials could significantly affect students' achievement were because, through authentic materials adaptation, teachers would be able to improve their ways of teaching which affect on students motivation and enthusiasm in the teaching/learning process. The materials were improved by considering students' needs, background knowledge, and level. The adapted authentic materials are more contextual than the textbook materials. That is why the adapted authentic materials are better than the textbook materials. This finding, however, contradicts those of Onasanya and Omosewo (2011) who revealed that there was no significant difference in the achievement of students who were taught with adapted authentic materials and textbook materials. Rahman (2013) also agrees that authentic materials can create an effective writing class. To create an effective writing class there should be a mixture of both effective materials and teaching techniques to engage the students with the tasks. Therefore, the students can enhance the opportunities for language learning.

After the use of ELT research papers as authentic materials in teaching writing, the common problems faced by the university students in writing research-based article, such as getting frustrated due to the lack of knowledge in the structure of research papers, the difficulty in organizing ideas into readable text, the difficulty in writing citations, the difficulty in finding some technical terms, and the difficulty in making inferences were decreasing. The students became more motivated, therefore, it also affects their writing skill in which becomes better than before.

Tamo (2009) states that many researchers agree of using authentic materials because of their common idea: "expose", exposure to "real language in authentic life". In other words, the benefit of using authentic materials is that the students get from being exposed or get involved in the real language in authentic materials. The authentic materials should be used in accordance with the students' level of knowledge and the students should be helped by their teachers to overcome the difficulties they encounter.

On the other hand, the students who were taught by using textbook materials achieved lower results in writing skill. This is due to textbooks may not reflect students'

needs since they are written for global markets (Richards, 2005). Besides, textbook materials are less motivating. Consequently, less motivating teaching materials affect on students' writing skill.

Findings from the present study have some implications for the educational policy makers. These include (1) there should be policy formulation that will ensure adequate provision for instructional materials; (2) all subjects/courses teachers should be exposed to and trained in the art of improvisation of instructional materials on a regular basis so as to make teaching-learning more effective.

The study concluded that the importance of instructional materials in the development of learners' intellectual abilities and attainment of teaching/learning objectives cannot be undermined. The students taught with the *ELT research paper as instructional material* have excellent achievement scores compared with those taught by using the materials which are usually used by the teacher (previous textbook provided by the faculty). Improvised instructional material encourage creativity, bringing learning homewards and often better suited to the climatic conditions of the local environment which improve and enhance

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION

Based on the research findings, it can be concluded that authentic materials are effective for teaching writing skill and improving students' writing skill, in this case, is research-based article writing. Consequently, teachers should choose the suitable materials for teaching writing to the students in order to improve their writing skill, in this case, to choose authentic materials rather than employing non-authentic materials.

As the result, authentic materials are proved as an effective material to teach writing. it is so because it offers the possibility for the students to build their courage and to need their curiosity on the genuine language as used by the native speakers. In using authentic materials in teaching writing, teachers should consider some aspects, i.e. the form of authentic materials, the source of authentic materials, how teacher considers authentic materials in teaching writing, how teacher uses authentic materials in teaching writing, the advantages and disadvantages of using authentic materials, the difficulties in using authentic materials, and the solution offered by the teacher.

This study was limited to research-based article writing taught to university students majoring in English Education. This study was implemented in a small scale which is in one university in Indonesia. Therefore, it is highly recommended to other

researchers to conduct such kind of research on a wider scale and context to get more comprehensive results.

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EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING MODEL IN ENHANCING PROSPECTIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS` TEACHING COMPETENCE

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Abstract: This study aimed to describe the effectiveness of Experiential Learning (EL) model in improving prospective EFL teachers' (PETs) teaching competence. The method of this study was Classroom Action Research (CAR) consisting of planning, observing, acting, and reflecting phases. There were two cycles needed in implementing EL to the twenty one EFL learners as the participants. The results revealed that each subcompetence in cycle I and cycle II was achieved in the following score: planning & preparation for learning (Mean in cycle I=2,8; Mean in cycle II=3,38), classroom management (Mean in cycle I=2,5; Mean in cycle II=2,95), delivery of instruction (Mean in cycle I=2,6; Mean in cycle II=2,90), and monitoring, assessment, and follow-up (Mean in cycle I=2,4; Mean in cycle II=2,95). It can be concluded that EL is effective in improving PETs' teaching competence.

Keywords – Experiential Learning, prospective EFL teachers, teaching competence

INTRODUCTION

English as a foreign language is considered to be a compulsory course in a college. English department students are to communicate well both in the classroom and outside the classroom as they begin learning English courses. So, what they need to do is introducing their potentials to the class. The ability to communicate in English, for English department students, can be realized through teaching practice. The ability to communicate are shown at the same time, so each EFL learner needs to be skilled in English skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Blake, 2016). The four skills in English can be divided into "oral and written" and "receiving or producing the message" (SIL International, 2009).

These skills have to be balanced for EFL learners because it enables them use English more properly.

EFL learners have to be ready when they are asked to teach other learners after they graduate. These learners are also called Prospective English Teachers (PETs) whose task is to teach English in the future. Fortunately, teaching skill has to be trained more intensively when they become the students because if not, their teaching skill consisting of English skills, readiness, and mastery on topics cannot be easily achieved. Therefore, it is a great idea that the prospective English teachers` English skills are developed before they finish their undergraduate program. The goal for this is to ensure that the PETs have better English skills when they begin their EFL teaching in a school.

One way to develop the skill is by undertaking teaching practice (TP). TP is an activity which enables PETs to perform their skills and abilities in planning, performing, and acting a lesson. What makes TP become more influential for PETs is that PETs face several opportunities to perform their language teaching theories that they learn before and teaching abilities they have (Kasanda, 1995). Practicing teaching English in the classroom can be connected to teaching in a real classroom (Marais & Meier, 2004). PETs have to adapt themselves in a real classroom atmosphere such as in a classroom teaching practice. It is because PETs need to learn how to plan, administer, perform, and give feedback toward English teaching (Perry, 2004). Language teaching practice allows teachers to develop their theoretical and practical understanding toward knowledge (Borg, 2006). Theories maynot be similar to the field of teaching and learning. To solve this, PETs need some real teaching practices which direct them to analyze the theories of teaching and learning and implement the theories into an expected teaching process.

The process of teaching English in the classroom is said to be different from teaching other courses. The reason is because English as the main lesson is the main language used in an EFL classroom (Brosh, 1996). Bell (2005) states that an effective language teaching must be "clear and enthusiastic teaching that provides learners with the grammatical (syntactical and morphological), lexical, phonological, pragmatic, and sociocultural knowledge and interactive practice they need to communicate successfully in the target language." This reveals that EFL teaching and learning process is supposed to achieve all parts of English skills. It is not only conducted to learn structural forms, but also functional subskills. In line with that, Wichadee and Orawiwatnakul (2012) state that an EFL teaching practice is effective when an EFL teacher focus on some skills such as communicative skills. The importance of communicative skills for both teachers and learners aren't questionable as such skills have better impacts on the teachers' proper

performance in every EFL classes and the improvement on their teaching theories and skills.

To be an effective English language teacher, PETs need to be competent in teaching English. PETs are competent in teaching English when they are able to deliver theories and practices properly (Bhat, Chaudary, & Dash, 2007). The theories are textual knowledge written in a book or a journal, and the practices are the application of the theories. Drakulić (2013) states that a competent language teacher treats each learner properly and based on teaching goals. Each EFL learner is entitled to get knowledge as has been prepared by the EFL teacher. To do this, the EFL teachers have to promote the lesson plan by implementing every subpart of the plan during the teaching process. However, not all plans can be achieved as expected. The EFL teachers are always faced by teaching and learning problems which emerge during the lesson.

Several problems of teaching practice appeared during observation undertaken by the author towards students` teaching practice test. The students seemed to lack knowledge on good teaching practice, because they tended to focus on a topic to present rather than such rules. They felt worried about standing in front of the classroom to act as an English instructor. Readiness for teaching did not emerge inside their mind because they believed that teaching ability would appear after finishing final project. Difficulties in using English in front of the classroom were also considered to be more burdening for teaching practice.

To overcome such problems, an appropriate model of learning needs to be implemented. The students have to experience a real teaching practice which lead them to a qualified teaching competence. The model which provides the students real practices is experiential learning. Experiential learning (EL) is a learning model that relies upon students` experiences in the classroom. Kolb and Kolb (2005) state that experiential learning enables learners to have some opportunities and to practice their own experiences. Glisczinki (2005) defines experiential learning as a continuous cycle through experience (or a disorienting dilemma), critical reflection, dialogue, and renewed action.

In the same line, Kolb and Kolb (2005) state that "learning is best facilitated by a process that draws out the students` beliefs and ideas about ideas so that they can be examined, tested and integrated with new, more refined ideas." Prastyo (2017) states that learning should have spesific and clear purpose in order to give skill and learning for the students as learners. Smith (2001) states that EL is the sort of learning undertaken by students who are given a chance to acquire and apply knowledge, skills and feelings in an immediate and relevant setting. The concept of EL is based on learning which is performed

through experience. Learners are faced with real steps that should be followed. The learners` ability is examined by giving a chance for them to practice a skill. It is believed that EL recalls learners previous knowledge or schemata which is helpful for their experience.

Learning through experience has been implemented in various levels of education. More interestingly, such model has become a theory of educational development. EL theory has steadily gained acceptance and popularity in education and serves as an invaluable resource for teaching and learning (Kolb & Kolb, 2006). The development of EL is due to its potential in providing opportunities to learners to manage their ideas through experience. The ability to understand that meta-cognition often takes the form as an internal dialogue with one's self can be helpful in EL instruction because it affirms the need for the learner to monitor his or her own learning throughout the EL process (National Research Council, 2000). This model helps learners to use their metacognitive abilities which are beneficial for producing ideas during learning.

EL model is simplified into learning cycle (Kolb and Kolb, 2005) consisting of four stages, namely:

1) The learner has a 'concrete experience'.
2) The learner makes observations and reflections based upon the experience.
3) The observation and reflections are assimilated into a new conceptual understanding and interpretation of the meaning of the experience.
4) This conceptual understanding is translated into 'actionable knowledge' that is applied and then used to guide new experiences.

The model begins from a concrete experience. What it means by that is learners are asked to perform their task in front of the classroom in which they act as an instructor. The learners perform stages of teaching based on the topic they choose. The other learners act as students of any kind of level. After presenting their topic through teaching practice, they observe what they have done. They also evaluate their performance by examining the presentation and the students` opinions towards the performance.

Having observing and reflecting the experience, they combine their experience with theories of teaching. These theories are supposed to build new knowledge and expected to enhance further knowledge or performance. Finally, the knowledge should be completed by presenting another topic in front of the classroom. In addition, the following figure has more on the Kolb learning cycle.
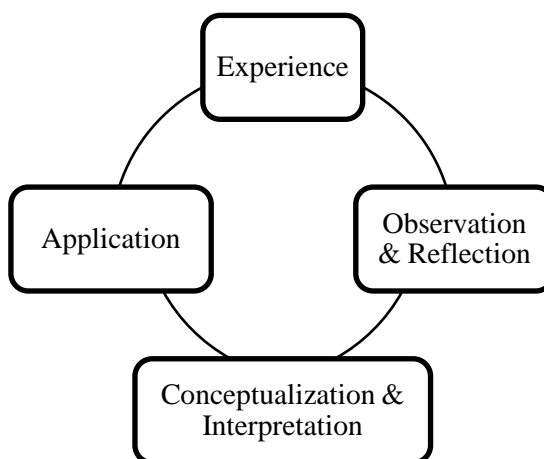
Figure 1. Kolb Learning Cycle

Based on the concept of utilizing EL in enhancing students` teaching competencies above, two research questions were enlisted, as follows:

1) To what extent can Experiential Learning (EL) improve prospective English teachers' teaching competence in the first cycle?
2) To what extent can Experiential Learning (EL) improve prospective English teachers' teaching competence in the second cycle?

Therefore, the author summed up the purpose of this paper. This paper aimed at describing the effectiveness of EL in improving prospective English teachers` teaching competence. It was seen from the improvement of prospective English teachers' teaching competence in the first and second cycles.

METHOD

Design of research

Classroom Action Research (CAR) was employed in undertaking this study. CAR begins with the question "How do I improve my work?" (McNiff, 2002) which implies that CAR relies heavily upon a teacher`s effort to improve what is considered to be lower in both quality and quantity in a classroom. This is in line with Mertler (2012b) who states that CAR is "a process that allows teachers to study their own classrooms in order to better understand them and to be able to improve their quality or effectiveness." CAR focuses on "creating momentum towards more insight into the problem, and greater learning and growth relative to the common issue being investigated" (Clauset, Lick, Murphy, 2008). Therefore, it is the teacher`s task to find out any problem in the classroom. The problem

include learners' lack of knowledge, learners' low score and understanding, and learners' lack of motivation or discipline.

To get a solution, the researcher utilized EL model which is considered to be more appropriate in enhancing prospective EFL teachers. Ferrance (2000) states "the application of a teaching model would result in a positive change to to the fact that teachers are involved in both the study and the application of the findings." This teaching model is needed because it enables the researcher to estimate the process of teaching and learning during the study.

CAR consists of four steps called ongoing, cyclical process of action research namely planning, acting, developing, and reflecting (Mertler, 2012b). This procedure *(see figure 2)* is a standard that should be followed by the researcher in accomplishing this study.
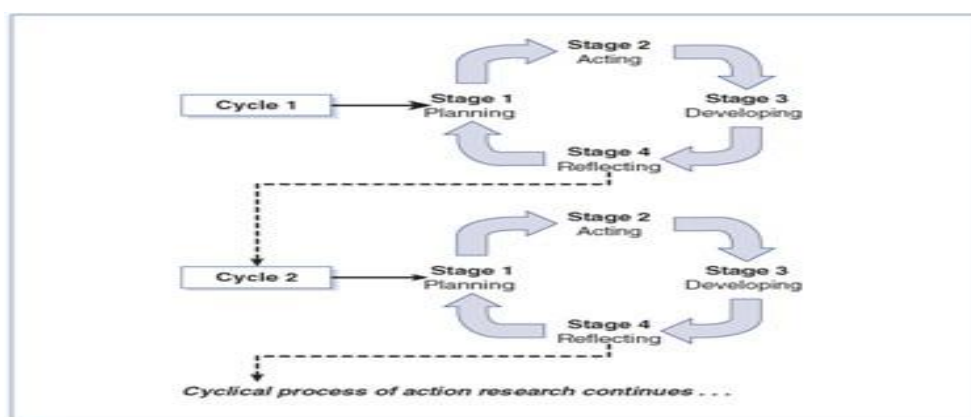

Figure 2. The cyclical process of CAR (Mertler, 2012b)

Participants

The participants of this study were 21 (twenty one) undergraduate students of English department at State Islamic Institute of Kerinci, Indonesia. The prospective EFL teachers were taking the course "Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)" in which the study was being conducted. In this case, the participants were asked to act as an English teacher who employed teaching steps during the practice.

Instruments

In this study, the data were collected by using several instruments. First, the researcher employed teaching evaluation to see the participants` abilities in teaching. The teaching evaluation (Marshall, 2011) consists of four indicators namely

    a.   Planning and preparation for learning,

    b.   Classroom management,

    c.   Delivery of instruction,

    d.   Monitoring, assessment, and follow-up.

Each indicator consists of rubric called teaching evaluation rubric designed by Marshall (2011) which was undertaken to measure the participants` teaching abilities. The rubrics use a four-level rating scale with the following labels: 4=Highly Effective, 3=Effective, 2=Improvement Necessary, 1=Does Not Meet Standards.

The participants were expected to prepare for each indicator that they followed during the teaching practice in front of the classroom. They were allowed to decide an English skill (listening, reading, writing, and speaking, grammar mastery, pronunciation mastery, and vocabulary mastery) to be the main topic of their teaching practice.

Second, the researcher used observation sheet to ensure that every participant followed the teaching steps informed to them before. The sheet consisted of complete teaching steps and was filled in during the study. Third, to get more detailed data the researcher employed a semi-structured interview towards randomly selected participants who informed the researcher their views, opinions, or ideas towards the model being employed. The reason to employ semi-structured interview was because it allows the interviewer to prepare for questions ahead and to dig detailed information based on the answers of those being interviewed (Laforest, 2009). In addition, the interview informed the factors influencing the improvement of participants` teaching abilities.

Data analysis

The data were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative data were analyzed by calculating Mean scores of the data. As to qualitative data, several steps were employed. Data managing, as the first step, enables the researcher to categorize collected data into specific group or category. The data categorized were gathered out of observation, fieldnotes, and interview. Having finished that, reading and memoing are the next step to follow. In this case, the researcher read all categorized data and took some related notes to interpret. Then, the true data were described based on what the researcher has categorized and read. Description is an important part as it describes raw data that normally do not have any detailed explanation. The last step was that the researcher interpreted the data by referring to the description and related theories Gay & Airasian (2000).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

Improvement of prospective EFL teachers` teaching competencies in cycle I

Planning

Planning consists of preparation of time allotment, teaching materials and/or media, syllabus, and lesson plan. There were five meetings allocated for implementing the EL model. The meetings consisted of four meetings for implementing the model and one meeting for evaluating the effectiveness of the method or post-test. This cycle was carried out of around April 2016 when the new semester 2015/2016 began. The reason for conducting the study in that month was to enable the researcher to manage the TEFL course since he taught the course in that classroom. He has good opportunities to implement the teaching model to the course.

To implement the EL model, the researcher prepared for several steps. The first step was to prepare for detailed explanation of the model before the participants went into practice. This was planned to be done for one meeting only. The second step was to enlist selected materials for the teaching practice such as listening skill, reading skill, speaking skill, writing skill, grammar mastery, pronunciation mastery, and vocabulary mastery. The participants were allowed to select one out of those as their teaching material. The third was to prepare for probable media for teaching practice such as boardmarkers, in-focus, laptops, and pictures. The participants prepared for needed media themselves before they began teaching. The preparation was a need during first up to fifth meeting. To sum up, the following table has more.

Table 1. Materials description of cycle I

No	Meeting	Material	Description	Evaluation
1.	First meeting	Explanation on experiential learning model	Before the participants went into teaching practice, the lecturer explained Kolb`s experiential learning cycle and procedures of teaching that should be followed during the practice.	-
2.	Second meeting	Listening skill, Pronunciation	Three participants choosing listening skill and three others choosing pronunciation prepared for their teaching materials including lesson plan and teaching media.	▪ Planning and preparation for learning, ▪ Classroom management,
3.	Third meeting	Reading skill, Speaking skill	Three participants choosing reading skill and three others choosing speaking skill prepared	▪ Delivery of instruction,

			for their teaching materials including lesson plan and teaching media.	▪ Monitoring, assessment, and follow-up
4.	Fourth meeting	Grammar, Vocabulary	Three participants choosing grammar and three others choosing vocabulary prepared for their teaching materials including lesson plan and teaching media.	
5.	Fifth meeting	Writing skill	The last three participants choosing writing skill prepared for their teaching materials including lesson plan and teaching media.	

Listening skill and pronunciation come together because both materials might employ audio media such as a laptop or a recorder. Writing skill stood alone in the fifth meeting since it took much time to teach the skill. In addition, each participant was evaluated by employing a teaching competencies rubric including planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, delivery of instruction, and monitoring, assessment, and follow-up. The evaluation was undertaken during the teaching practice directly.

Action

The first meeting of the study began with explanation on experiential learning model consisting of four phases namely concrete experience, reflexive observation, abstract conceptualizing, and active experimenting. The participants` responses towards this explanation was better that they asked some questions such as about relationship between phases of experiential learning model and teaching steps and the importance of experiential learning model in teachin g English. However, the researcher needed to repeat the explanation since not all participant caught the ideas easily. In addition, the participants were asked to prepare for lesson plan, materials, and media of teaching.

The second meeting became the first day of real action and practice. The topics determined for this meeting were listening skill and pronunciation. Both topics were performed in the same meeting since they employed audio materials and media. Three participants chose listening skill; and three other chose pronunciation as the topic. When a participant acted as a teacher, the others became students. As for the teaching of listening skill, concrete experience was started by asking the students what they have done in their weekend. The teacher and students discussed habits in the weekend and made it as a small talk. The teaching began by asking the students to listen to a short conversation out of a video player. Then, the students discussed what they got from the audio and the teacher gave feedback. Another participant who taught pronunciation did the same steps as well.

After the concrete experience as a teacher was finished, the participants observed what they have done by reflecting every part of the teaching steps. In this case, they returned to the first step of their teaching practice by finding out whether they have prepared for the teaching well, begun the instruction based on the teaching steps, and ended the teaching process by discussing exercises and feedback. Some of the participants teaching listening and pronunciation met difficulties in teaching listening since the audio was taken from native speakers` resources. The pronunciation was also a problem when resources used were authentic. So, evaluation step became more difficult to do.

Further phase of the model is abstract conceptualising. The participants were expected to enlist all problems they faced during the teaching practice. The list of problems were analysed by using some related references such as journals and books. The purpose for conceptualising the findings was to give a solution for the difficulties faced during the concrete experience. The final phase of the model is active experimenting. This phase entailed abstract conceptualising which combine the problem and related references. The researcher asked the participants to determine the solutions and use them as new references or theories of teaching. They were hoped to use the new theories for further teaching practice.

The third, fourth, and fifth meetings of cycle I followed the phases of experiential learning model as they were applied in the second meeting. Each participant whose topic was selected did the teaching practice as concrete experience as a teacher. They, then, reflected their experience by enlisting all problems they faced and good teaching strategies they employed. The reflexive observation was conceptualised into related references which can be in form of journal or books. The last phase was experimenting the conceptualised abstract into a new theory and reference which can be used for further practice.

Observation

As the study continued, observation as a phase in cycle I was conducted in order to find out what has been achieved in the first cycle, what problems were faced during the study, and what have made it successful. More related findings were included in this observation phase. The following table has more.

Table 2. Results of observation in cycle I

No	Category	Results of observation
1.	Learners	a) The learners have good intention towards teaching practice; b) The learners find it hard to prepare for lesson plan, materials, and teaching media; c) Some learners do not teach based on their lesson plan;

		d) Some learners couldn`t get any topic that supports their interest; e) Some learners couldn`t undertake any appropriate evaluation and feedback; f) Most of the learners do not follow the steps of experiential learning model; and g) Some learners pretending as students do not respond well to a pretending teacher.
2.	Lecturer	a) The lecturer manages to explain experiential learning model clearly; b) The lecturer controls learners` performance during the teaching practice; c) The lecturer helps learners enlist their teaching problems and find possible solutions; and d) The lecturer allows learners as teachers choose their own topic of interest.
3.	Classroom atmosphere	a) The class becomes a bit noisy when a learner practices teaching; b) The class does not support appropriate teaching media; and c) The class is more challenging and interesting.

Reflection

To find out some possible solution for the problems observed in cycle I, reflection phases was undertaken. This phase was intended to enlist both the strengths and the weaknesses of experiential learning model.

Table 3. Reflection in cycle I

No	Category	Reflection
1.	Strengths	a) Experiential learning model motivates learners to practice teaching; b) Experiential learning model enables learners to reflect on previous experience; c) Experiential learning model triggers up learners` ideas related to teaching competencies; and d) Experiential learning model develops learners` awareness on the importance of teaching competencies.
2.	Weaknesses	a) Some learners could not understand the procedures of experiential learning model; b) Some learners do not come up with ideas during and after teaching practice; and c) Some learners do not pay attention to the others who act as teachers.

To evaluate the teaching practice, the researcher employed teacher evaluation rubsrics (Marshall, 2011) to all participants. The rubrics were used to evaluate planning

and preparation for learning, classroom management, delivery of instruction, monitoring, assessment and follow-up. Each rubric consists of categories and scores which enabled the researcher to measure how far the participants achieved the experiential learning model through teaching steps. The categories of each rubric are highly effective 4 point, effective or 3 point, improvement necessary or 2 point, and does not meet standards or 1 point. This means that the results of participants` teaching competencies were described both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Table 4. Scores of teaching competencies in cycle I

Competence	Mean	Std. Deviation
Planning & preparation for learning	2,8	0,35
Classroom management	2,5	0,67
Delivery of instruction	2,6	0,66
Monitoring, assessment, and follow-up	2,4	0,5

It can be clearly seen from the table 4 that the level of teaching competencies among the participants is low. There was no competence that goes higher than 3 point in term of mean scores. The mean of planning & preparation for learning was 2,8 and SD was 0,35; the mean of classroom management was 2,5 and SD was 0,67; the mean of delivery of instruction was 2,6 and SD was 0,66; and the mean of monitoring, assessment, and follow-up was 2,4 and SD was 0,5. Based on the rating of the rubrics, it can be concluded that the teaching competencies among the prospective EFL teachers are improvement necesssary which means that it needs further training and practice to improve the competencies. In other words, further cycle or cycle II is needed. To see the detail, the following chart has more.

Figure 3. Prospective teachers` teaching competencies in cycle I
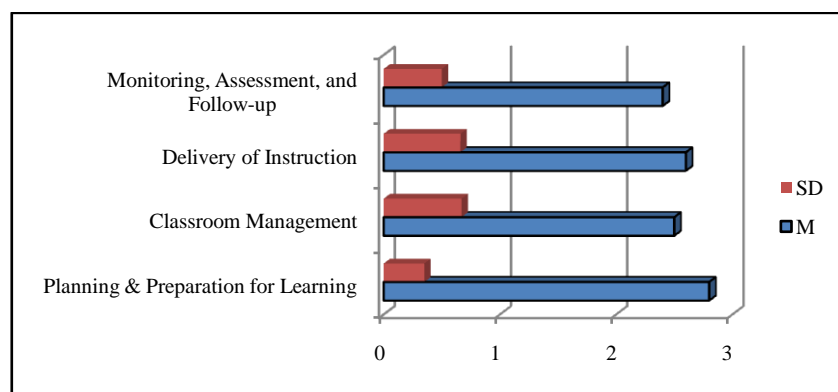
Improvement of prospective EFL teachers` teaching competencies in cycle II

Planning

Having finished undertaking cycle I, the researcher prepared for several plans which reflected the problems faced in cycle I. The planning phase in cycle II consisted of time allotment and materials. There were four meetings needed to accomplish cycle II and each meeting was utilized to perform teaching practice by determining topics of teaching practice. This cycle was conducted at the end of April 2016 as the it began at the beginning of that month.

The materials of cycle II consisted of skills like those in cycle I. The difference was that the first meeting of cycle II presented reading skill and vocabulary. The second meeting was conducted to present grammar and writing skill. Further meeting, the third day, was about pronunciation. The last meeting was undertaken to present listening and speaking skills. All topics of teaching practice were randomly selected in order to refresh each performance of the participants. The researcher also took some minutes to explain the procedures of teaching practice through EL model. The purpose was to ensure that every participant understood how to practice teaching. The participants were also asked to prepare for their lesson plans, materials, and media of teaching.

A different idea appeared in cycle II which entailed ideas in the previous cycle. Each participant was expected to apply the theories they constructed through active experiment phase in the previous cycle. The theory is paramount because it reflects concrete experience and improves various problems faced during teaching practice. Applying the theory helped the participants avoid similar mistakes and get away of probable problems which entailed.

Action

In the first meeting, six prospective EFL teachers commenced their teaching practice by explaining lesson plan to the fellow students so that the students became aware of the teaching steps. Brainstorming was used to recall their students` schemata or previous experiences and to blow up their mind about reading skill or vocabulary. As for reading skill, the prospective teachers handed on a selected text as teaching media. Interactive and communicative discussion towards the lesson relied upon better classroom management and instruction. The teaching ended up by some exercises and feedback. As for vocabulary, the prospective teachers used some pictures that resembled real life or authentic materials. Their students discussed lists of words in the picture by using their own ideas.

Grammar and writing skill were presented in the second meeting and were combined since grammar is more important in producing better writing. The practice of teaching grammar and writing skill in cycle II was different that the prospective teachers utilized pictures, charts, and graphs to help their students follow sequence of story in writing. Grammar was taught through contexts or contextual grammar which highlights more on how it is used in real life situation.

The third and fourth meetings also show some improvement in preparation, delivery, evaluation, and feedback. Pronunciation was taught by using simple, clear recording and handout which were much helpful for their students. The prospective teachers offered several authentic videos which reflected both British and American pronunciation. Listening and speaking skills, presented in the fourth meeting, were more communicative compared with the previous cycle. Their students were indulged in every activity of the teaching.

Having finished the teaching practice as concrete experience, each prospective teacher who were also the participants of the study reflected on what they have performed and how they did it. It was followed by abstract conceptualising which enabled the prospective teachers to combine the findings of their teaching experience with references from journals or books. They, then, constructed new theories of teaching competencies based on the abstract concepts they combined earlier. This last phase is called active experimenting through which the prospective teachers produced new theories of teaching competencies.

Observation

Based on the observation phase in cycle II, it showed that much improvement on teaching practice by the prospective EFL teachers was made. As to the prospective English teachers, the improvement was seen when they became more enthusiastic to follow every procedure of experiential learning model. Most of them prepared for lesson plans, materials, and teaching media as expected. They were able to use a variety of teaching techniques during the teaching practice. Evaluation step of teaching seemed more successful than it was before. However, the problem appeared during cycle II was that the participants who acted as students did not give good response to the participants acting as teachers.

As to the classroom atmosphere, the noise faded out that the participants attended every teaching practice. The participants were more disciplined than they were during the previous cycle. The lecturer kept controlling the classroom atmosphere and managing

procedures of teaching practice. The participants and the lecturer interacted more communicatively during this cycle. Unfortunately, some participants did not accomplish the teaching practice as expected. They presumably did not understand all procedures of the experiential learning model though it was clearly explained in the beginning of each meeting of each cycle.

Reflection

The reflection in cycle II reflected several problems found during observation phase. To overcome the problem, there were several efforts that the research undertook. The noisy atmosphere was improved by asking the participant acting as students to prepare for questions, opinion, or suggestions towards the teaching practice. They were to interact with the teachers communicatively. They were informed that each participant got a turn to practice teaching, so each of them needed to respect one another. The importance of teaching competencies for prospective English teachers was paramount because the competencies help the prospective teachers undertake their teaching and achieve teaching objectives.

During the teaching practice for four meetings in cycle II, the participants were evaluated by using Teaching Competencies rubrics consisting of planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, delivery of instruction, monitoring, assessment, and follow-up. The results show that there is improvement of prospective English teachers` teaching competencies through experiential learning model. The improvement can be seen from both qualitative and quantitative analysis. Qualitatively, the improvement is concerned with higher motivation, discipline, attention towards teaching procedures, appropriate teaching teachniques, evaluation, and feedback, and communicative interaction. Quantitative result shows that the mean for planning and preparation for learning is 3,38 (SD=49); the mean of classroom management is 2,95 (SD=0,66); the delivery of instruction is 2,90 (0,62); and, the mean of monitoring, assessment, and follow-up is 2,95 (SD=0,74).

Table 5. Scores of teaching competencies in cycle II

Competence	Mean	Std. Deviation
Planning & preparation for learning	3,38	0,49
Classroom management	2,95	0,66
Delivery of instruction	2,90	0,62
Monitoring, assessment, and follow-up	2,95	0,74

The result can also be clearly seen from the following chart. The chart indicates that the score of planning and preparation for learning is the highest of all competencies. Fortunately, the scores of all teaching competencies are higher compared to those in the previous cycle. The following chart has more.

Figure 4. Prospective teachers` teaching competencies in cycle II
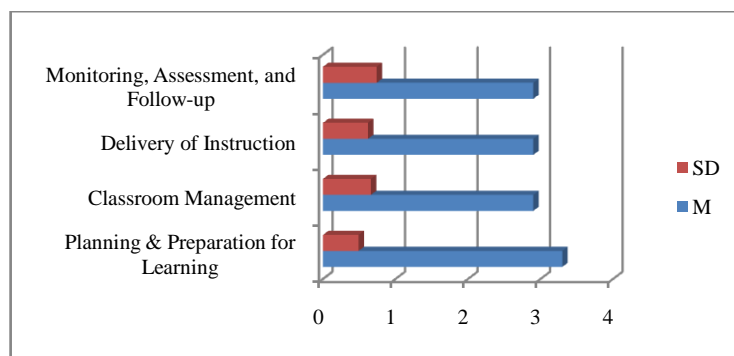
Discussions

This present study revealed that teaching experiences were much helpful in learning both concepts and practices of EFL teaching process. The importance of experiential learning (EL) in improving prospective EFL teachers' (PETs) teaching competence can be clearly seen from the teaching practices undertaken by the PETs in EFL classroom. The process of teaching English through EL was successfully undertaken in cycle I and II. It shows that EL was needed by PETs to adjust themselves with EFL classroom atmosphere. An ordinary teaching experience is paramount because it helps PETs adjust themselves with real classroom atmospheres and construct their own teaching concept (Tomlinson & Kilner, 1992). The concept of EL does not only promote learning as a theoretical knowledge, but also as a practical activities which require PETs to interact with both theories and practices. Hansen (2000) states that EL helps extend future teaching abilities. It is because learning by doing or acting can increase learners' skills in teaching. In line with that, experience and learning are two inseparated parts that result in competent teaching practice. Experience in learning is built up by planning what should be done or by letting whatever happens around experience (Dange, 2014). Teaching experiences teach PETs how to manage the learners, how to face some problems during the lesson, and how to be engaged in communicative interaction between the teachers and the learners.

Teaching practice is the real example of learning through experience. Teaching experience leads prospective EFL teachers to plan the lesson, administer the materials, deliver the lesson, evaluate the results, and give feedback (Marlow & McLain, 2011). Kolb

and Kolb (2005) states that a better way of learning is through an experience which enables learners to do an action, observe the classroom, utilize the materials, and focus on what has been done in teaching. Marshall's (2011) teaching elements reveal that practising EFL teachers need to learn how to conduct teaching process. Teaching experiences should not be focused on the output of the experiences, but the goal is on the process of the teaching (UC Davis, 2011). Therefore, it is clearly stated that EL helps developing EFL teaching competence.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION

To conclude, prospective EFL teachers can improve their teaching abilities and skills by experiencing real teaching practice in the EFL classroom. Experiential learning (EL) is a teaching model that promotes practical experiences to EFL learners and allows the learners to act as an EFL teacher. EL helps PETs to improve their teaching competence. It is pointed out that EL has a four-stage cycle as the teaching procedure and that EL allows EFL learners to experience a teaching process by experiencing, observing, reflecting, conceptualizing, interpreting, and implementing. To begin, the EFL learners as PETs perform some teaching steps including pre-teaching (i.e motivating, brainstorming), whilst-teaching (i.e reading a text, listening to an audio file etc.), and post-teaching (reviewing, giving feedback). Having conducted the teaching steps, the PETs observe what they have implemented, the problems they faced and reflect how they implement each teaching step. The next step is to construct their own experience into a concept or an idea. In doing this, the PETs should refer to some related literature which allow them to strengthen their ideas and enable them to expand the concepts. This can also be followed by interpreting the concepts constructed by analyzing each noticeable idea generated from the teaching experience. The last step is to set some preparation for further experience. The concepts constructed need to be models and they should be integrated with the lesson plan.

The experience of implementing EL has potential connectedness with PETs' teaching competence which consists of planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, delivery of instruction, and monitoring, assessement, and follow-up. First, EL enable the PETs to learn how to set a good plan and appropriate preparation before teaching is conducted. The preparation is conceptualized into a lesson plan. The more the PETs experience how to plan a teaching process, the better the teaching will be. Second, classroom management can be experienced when the PETs begins entering the classroom. EL helps the PETs to control over the learners, ask them to join the lesson, and ensure that the objectives are achieved. It isn't an easy task for every PET to manage the classroom

appropriately. The classroom atmosphere is sometimes different from what the PETs have planned and prepared. The PETs' creativity to find another way of controlling over the learners will much useful for their teaching success. Fortunately, the PETs will find it beneficial to learn how they can manage the classroom by implementing EL as their learning model. Third, EL allows the PETs to experience how to start a lesson, how to interact with the learners, how to evaluate the lesson, and what they should do to complete the objectives of the lesson. All of these subcompetence have to be challenged by the PETs whenever they begin teaching English. Fourth, EL is an effective model to learn how to monitor learning achievement, how to assess the learners' learning goals, and how to give them some follow-up for future implications. The success of teaching depends on how far the PETs can keep monitoring their learners ranging from the first meeting until to the last meeting. Assessment needs to be conducted in order to ensure that the learners get fair scores for their work or tasks. A follow-up helps both PETs and the EFL learners to prepare and plan for their future teaching more appropriately.

In this study, the results showed that the improvement in EFL teaching competence was influenced by the implementation of EL. Two cycles were undertaken in implementing EL in improving PETs' teaching competence. Much improvement was made in term of English skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Based on the teaching competence of the PETs, it was found that each subcompetence in cycle I and cycle II was achieved in the following score: planning & preparation for learning (Mean in cycle I=2,8; Mean in cycle II=3,38), classroom management (Mean in cycle I=2,5; Mean in cycle II=2,95), delivery of instruction (Mean in cycle I=2,6; Mean in cycle II=2,90), and monitoring, assessment, and follow-up (Mean in cycle I=2,4; Mean in cycle II=2,95). Based on the results of the study, it can be stated that EL can better improve PETs' teaching competence. In other words, EL is effective for PETs in learning how to teach English in a real classroom.

Some suggestions need to be addressed in order to promote the results of this study. First, it is suggested that EFL teachers implement experiential learning as their teaching model in the EFL classroom. Second, prospective EFL teachers are suggested to learn the concept of experiential learning model and implement it in their teaching practice. EL can be a good teachin model for them before they begin teaching in schools. Third, university teachers are suggested to promote experiential learning model to learners who will undertake microteaching activities in final semesters.

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ANXIETY: A SOURCEOF TEST BIAS?

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Abstract: The examination of the various individual learner differences as bias factors in language test performance has been a major concern in the field of language testing for almost three decades. The present study investigated the foreign language classroom anxiety and test anxiety as sources of bias in English vocabulary and grammartests.Based on this objective,first, 158 intermediate EFL learners were selected as the participants. Second, the participants respectively took the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), Test Anxiety Scale (In'nami, 2006), the vocabulary test of the study, and the grammar test of the study in a2-week period. The standard multiple regression was employed for data analysis. The results revealed that, classroom anxiety and test anxiety had significant negative correlations with the vocabulary and grammar test results. The results of the study may provide certain theoretical implications for testing specialists regarding the redefinition of the construct of second language ability in the process of test validation.

Keywords – Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, Individual Learner Differences, Test Anxiety, Test Bias, Test Performance

INTRODUCTION

There is considerable variation among language learners regarding their success in language acquisition (Ellis, 2004). This variation is limited to the rate of acquisition for the children who are acquiring their native language. That is, although children differ in the speed of acquiring their mother tongue, they achieve perfect mastery of every aspect of that language (Bley-Vroman, 1988; Clark, 2009). However, this is not true for second

language learners. As Bley-Vroman (1988) noted, most of these learners do not achieve a native-like competence in the use of the second language. According to him:

> The general characteristics of foreign language learning tend to the conclusions that the domain-specific language acquisition of children ceases to operate in adults, and in addition, that foreign language acquisition resembles general adult learning in fields for which no domain-specific learning system is believed to exist (p. 25).

Therefore, in the case of second language acquisition, the variation involves both The learners' rate and ultimate level of achievement (Ellis, 2004, 2008). According to Ellis (2004), the differences in achievement among second language learners may stem from three general sets of factors including: *social*, *cognitive*, and *affective* factors. As he further argued, since the cognitive and affective factors lie inside the language learner, the researchers have investigated them as individual learner differences. These differences are "enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 4). They are "factors specific to individual learners which may account for differences in the rate at which learners learn and their level of attainment" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 278).

Horwitz (2000) noted that, the investigation of the individual learner differences has always been a major concern in the field of applied linguistics. However, as she argued, there has been an evolutionary and noticeable change regarding the terms that are used to refer to these differences. According to her:

> The terms good and bad, intelligent and dull, motivated and unmotivated have given way to a myriad of new terms such as integratively and instrumentally motivated, anxious and comfortable, field independent and field sensitive, auditory and visual (p. 532).

As Ellis (2008) stated, the investigation of individual learner differences has been motivated by different purposes. According to him, some of the studies have tried to identify the language learners who are likely to be more successful in studying certain foreign languages in comparison with the others (e.g. Carrol, 1981). Other studies have tried to determine the relationship between different individual characteristics and second language acquisition (e.g. Gliksman, Gardner &Smythe, 1982). Finally, a number of studies have investigated the individual learner differences as potential sources of bias in language learners' test performance (e.g. Hansen & Stanfield, 1981).

According to Bachman (1990), the individuals' scores on different tests may be influenced by both a group of personal characteristics such as cognitive style and ambiguity tolerance, and a number of group characteristics including race and ethnic background. As he further noted, unlike the random factors which have an unpredictable

and transient effect on the learners' scores, the personal or individual characteristics influence the learners' scores regularly. However, as he explained, these characteristics are not part of the language ability that the language tests measure, and as a result, are regarded to be *systematic* sources that influence the validly of the inferences that are made based on the test results. As he stated, the "systematic differences in test performance that are the result of differences in individual characteristics other than the ability being tested" (p. 271) are sources of *test bias*. In other words, a test or a single test item is biased "if its scores are consistently too high or too low, for an individual test taker or a group of test takers" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 53).

As Bachman (1990) pointed out, the studies of test bias are essential in the field of language testing since they provide a better understanding of the validity of the language tests. According to him, these studies " raise questions about the extent to which language abilities as constructs are independent of the content and context of the language use elicited in their measurement" (p. 279). Moreover, as he explained, these studies may help us judge about the measurement value of the different tests as instruments for testing the language ability. Furthermore, as he noted, they may help us to determine the characteristics of successful language learners and the role of the individual learner differences in the process of language acquisition. Finally, as Farhady (1982) argued, these studies may help us redefine the construct of *language ability*.

A review of the related literature (e.g. Alpert & Haber, 1960; Arnold, 1999; Horwitz, 2001; Kleijn, Van der Ploeg, &Topman, 1994; Scovel, 1978) shows that, among the individual learner differences, anxiety has been investigated by a number of SLA researchers.

Anxiety is one of the affective variables that have received a lot of attention in the field of SLA (Ellis, 2008). It can be defined as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system" (Spielberger, 1983, p. 1). In other words, it is associated with the "feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension or worry" (Scovel, 1978, p. 134). Anxiety is "quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process" (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p. 8). Furthermore, Pramuktiyono and Wardhono (2016) stated thta anxiety is merely promising if language educators are well aware of the existence of the anxiety.

There is unanimous approval among various researchers that anxiety affects second language learning and performance (Arnold, 1999; Horwitz& Young 1991; MacIntyre, 1999, 2002; Young, 1999).

However, the investigation of anxiety has always been plagued by theoretical challenges (Oxford, 1999). More specifically, this affective variable cannot be easily categorized with the other affective characteristics such as the motivation or personality factors (Bailey, 1983). Moreover, anxiety "is usually not seen as a unitary factor but a complex made up of constituents that have different characteristics" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 198).

Anxiety can be *facilitative* or *debilitative* (Alpert & Haber, 1960, Scovel, 1978). The facilitative anxiety is associated with *emotionality* and the debilitative anxiety is related to *worry*. It can be argued that, *worry* is the cognitive component of anxiety and has a negative effect on language performance while *emotionality* is its affective component and may have a positive effect on language learning (Dörnyei, 2005).

Moreover, anxiety may have different types including: *trait*, *state*, and *situation-specific* anxiety (Oxford, 1999). Trait anxiety is "a more permanent predisposition to be anxious" (Scovel, 1978, p. 135) and as a result should be treated as a personality factor (Ganschow& Sparks, 1996). State anxiety is "the apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to a definite situation and therefore is a combination of trait and situation- specific anxiety" (Ellis, 2008, p. 691). In the field of SLA, the researchers have focused on a specific kind of situation-based anxiety which is called *foreignlanguage anxiety* (Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). This kind of anxiety involves "worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language" (MacIntyre, 1999, p. 27) According to Horwitz (2001), it is an independent variable which may not be correlated with the other kinds of anxiety. Moreover, a number of researchers (e.g. Brown, 2007; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre& Gardner, 1989, 1991) have argued that, language anxiety consists of a number of sub-components. According to Brown (2007), this kind of anxiety consists of three components including:

a) Communication apprehension, arising from learners' inability to adequately express mature thoughts and ideas;

b) Fear of negative social evaluation, arising from a learner's need to make a possible social impression on others;

c) Test anxiety or apprehension over academic evaluation (p. 162).

Among these components, test anxiety has attracted the researchers' attention more than the others (e.g.Horwitz, 1986; Joy, 2013). It can be defined as a "special case of general anxiety consisting of phenomenological, physiological, and behavioral responses

related to a fear of failure and to experience of evaluation or testing" (Sieber, 1980, p. 17). As Knox, Schacht and Turner (1993) stated, this type of anxiety plays a very important role in educational contexts since the failure to manage it can result in "failing courses, dropping out of school, a negative self-concept and a low earning potential" (p. 295).

Kleijn, Van der Ploeg, and Topman (1994) discussed three causes of test anxiety. As they explained, the first cause of this type of anxiety is the inappropriate preparation for the examination which stems from the lack of sufficient learning strategies. The second cause of the test anxiety is the focus on the task-irrelevant stimuli during tests which negatively affects test performance. Finally, as they stated, the third cause of this kind of anxiety is the test takers' wrong beliefs about their readiness for the tests. That is, contrary to the reality, some of the test takers assume that they have prepared for the test in an appropriate way, and when they are not satisfied with their results, they begin to question their test-taking ability.

However, a close examination of the relevant literature shows that, most of the empirical studies of anxiety have tried to determine its sources (e.g. Bailey, 1983; Matsumuto, 1987; Oxford, 1992) and have ignored its role as a source of bias in language tests. Moreover, these studies have only focused on foreign language classroom anxiety (e.g. Chastain; 1975; Kleinmann; 1978) and have not dealt with the test anxiety. Finally, the majority of these studies (e.g. Horwitz; 1986; MacIntyre& Gardner, 1994) have been conducted in second language contexts, and there is not sufficient information about anxiety in foreign language contexts.

In the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context of Iran, the empirical studies of anxiety have followed a similar trend. More specifically, there is a lack of research regarding the role of anxiety as a source of test bias in the results of the tests of the second language. The present study was an attempt to deal with the mentioned gaps of the literature regarding the language anxiety. Based on this aim, it tried to provide more information regarding the role of Iranian intermediate-level male EFL learners' foreign language classroom anxiety and test anxiety as bias factors in their performance on the vocabulary and grammar tests.

METHOD

Design of the study

As Creswell (2011) pointed out, the correlational research design takes two main forms including; the *explanatory design* and the *prediction design*. In explaining the prediction design he stated that:

The purpose of the prediction design is to identify variables that will predict an outcome or criterion. In this form of research the researcher identifies one or more *predictor* variables and a *criterion* or *outcome* variable. A predictor variable is a variable which is used to make a forecast about an outcome in correlational research….The outcome being predicted in correlational research, however, is called the criterion variable (p. 341).

An examination of the purpose, data collection, and data analysis of the present study shows that, it employed a quantitative approach and was conducted based on a predictive correlational design in which the foreign language classroom anxiety and test anxiety were the predictor variables and the learners' performances on the vocabulary and grammar tests were the criterion variables.

Participants

In the present study, 158 intermediate EFL learners were selected from among 324 language learners of a private language institute in Urmia (Iran) as the participants of the study based on their results on the Objective Placement Test (Lesley, Hansen, &Zukowski, 2003). The selected participants: were male, raged in age from 15 to 26, and had 2 to 3 years of language studies in the language institute. They were from Urmia and were native speakers of Azeri. In order to select these participants, first, the researchers determined the mean value of the 324 language learners' results on the proficiency test of the study. Second, they selected the learners whose score were within 1 Standard Deviation (SD) below and above the mean value of the group.

The instruments and materials of the study

The following instruments and materials were employed in the present study:

Proficiency test

The determination of the proficiency level and the homogeneity of the selected participants are essential in order to guarantee the validity of the inferences that are made based on the results of the empirical studies in the field of second language acquisition (Mackey &Gass, 2016). The present study tried to determine the relationship between the intermediate EFL learners' anxiety and their test performance. Based on this aim, the Objective Placement Test, from New Interchange Passages Placement and Evaluation Package (Lesley, Hansen, &Zukowski, 2003) was employed in order to select the participants of the study. This test consisted of four parts: Listening, Grammar, Vocabulary, and Reading. The Listening section involved 20 recorded items. The Grammar section had

30 items. The Vocabulary section consisted of 30 items and the Reading section had 20 items.

The foreign language classroomanxiety scale

In order to assess the participants' language anxiety, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz et al., 1986) was employed in this study. This questionnaire involves 33 items which are rated on a 5-point Likert scale. The answers to each item range from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree.* As the researchers stated, in determining the learners' anxiety level a score of 5 is given to the *strongly agree* and a score of 1 is given to *strongly disagree*. According to them, a higher score on FLCAS shows a higher level of language anxiety. In order to determine the reliability of this questionnaire, Horwitz et al. (1986) employed a test-retest method. According to them, since the "test-retest reliability over eight weeks yielded an r = .83 (p <.001)" it was argued that, the questionnaire was a highly reliable instrument in determining foreign language anxiety. On the other hand, Aida's (1994) factor analysis of the items of this questionnaire showed that, they are highly valid in examining the learners' level of language anxiety.

The test anxiety scale

In order to measure the participants' test anxiety, the modified version of Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) (In'nami, 2006) was employed in this study. The original form of this questionnaire (with 37 yes/no items) was developed by Sarason (1975), and was employed in order to examine the learners' anxiety in taking different kinds of language tests. In an attempt to increase the accuracy of the responses to the questionnaire items, In'nami (2006) changed the yes/no answers to the items with a 5-point Likert scale (i.e. 1= completely disagree; 2 = disagree; 3= neutral; 4= agree; 5= completely agree). Moreover, he factor analyzed the items of questionnaire and stated that, the questionnaire is a highly valid and reliable instrument for determining test anxiety. The employed version of this questionnaire in the present study involves 37 items which are scored on the mentioned 5-ponit Likert scale. According to In'nami (2006), a high score on this questionnaire indicates a high level of test anxiety.

The vocabulary test

Based on the aims of the present study, a 40-item researcher-made multiple-choice vocabulary test was employed in order to determine the participants' vocabulary test performance. The items of this test were developed based on the vocabulary items of the reading texts of *Intermediate Select Readings* (Lee &Gundersen, 2011). In order to

guarantee that the test was a reliable and valid instrument for measuring the participants' vocabulary knowledge, it was piloted with 75 male ELF learners which had similar characteristics to the participants of the study. Since the items of the test were based on the reading texts that were specifically developed for the intermediate-level language learners, their content validity was guaranteed. However, in order to determine the empirical (concurrent) validity of the test, the results of the selected 75 learners on this test were correlated with their results on the vocabulary section of the Objective Placement Test, (Lesley, Hansen, &Zukowski 2003). The results of the analysis showed that, the empirical validity index of the test was .82 which, as Harris (1969) stated, is regarded to be satisfactory for researcher/teacher-made tests. Moreover, a test-retest method was employed in order to determine the reliability of the test. Based on this aim, the selected 75 EFL learners took this test twice during a one month period and their results on the two sessions were correlated. The results of this analysis showed that, the reliability index of the vocabulary test was .87 which, as Harris (1969) stated, is regarded to be satisfactory for researcher/teacher-made tests.

The grammar test

In order to determine the selected participants' grammar test performance, a 40-item researcher-made multiple-choice grammar test was employed in the present study. Similar to the vocabulary test, the items of this test were based on the reading texts of *Intermediate Select Readings* (Lee &Gundersen, 2011). That is, the researchers extracted the grammar points of these reading texts and developed the test items based on these points. In order to guarantee the reliability and validity of this test, the researchers piloted it with 75 male EFL learners with similar characteristics to selected participants. Since the test items were based on intermediate-level reading texts (i.e. texts of *Intermediate Select Readings*) their content validity was guaranteed. However, in order to determine the empirical (concurrent) validity of the test, the results of the selected 75 learners on this test were correlated with their results on the grammar section of the Objective Placement Test, (Lesley, Hansen, &Zukowski, 2003). The results of the analysis showed that, the empirical validity index of the test was .78 which, as Harris (1969) stated, is regarded to be satisfactory for researcher/teacher-made tests. Moreover, a test-retest method was employed for determining the reliability of the test items. That is, the selected learners took the test twice during a one month period and their results were correlated. Based on the results, the reliability index of the grammar test was .84 which, as Harris (1969) stated, is regarded to be satisfactory for researcher/teacher-made tests.

The procedure of the study

According to Pallant (2007), in order to be able to generalize the results of a study to other relevant studies, there is a needfor an appropriate sample size in Multiple Regression. As she further discussed, the following formula may be employed for the calculation of the required sample size:"N > 50 + 8m (where *m* shows thenumber of independent variables)" (p. 148). The present study had 2 independent variables (i.e. classroom anxiety & test anxiety). Therefore, the number of the participants had to be more than 66. However, the researchers decided to select all of the participants with the required characteristics from among the available learners to increase the generalizability of the study results. Based on this issue, in this study, first, 158 intermediate EFL learners were selected from among 324 language learners of a private language institute in Urmia (Iran) as the participants of the study based on their results on the Objective Placement Test (Lesley, Hansen, &Zukowski, 2003). Second, the FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) was administered to the selected participants of the study in order to assess their foreign language classroom anxiety. It took the participants about 15 minutes to answer the items of this questionnaire. Third, the participants received the TAS (In'nami, 2006) for the assessment of their test anxiety. They answered the items of this questionnaire in about 20 minutes. Fourth, the vocabulary test of the study was administered to theparticipants for the determination of their English vocabulary test performance. This test took about 45 minutes of the class time. Finally, the participants took the grammar test of the study for the determination of their English grammar test performance. They answered the items of this test in about 45 minutes. The questionnaires and the tests of the study were administered to the participants during 4 sessions in a 2-week period. The researchers employed the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20 for the data analysis of the study.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

The first research question of the study tried to determine the relationship between the EFL learners' anxiety and their vocabulary test performance. Based on the aims of this research question, a Standard Multiple Regression test was run between the participant's results on the language anxiety inventory and test anxiety inventory of the study and their performance on the vocabulary test. In the regression analysis, first, the assumption of multicoliniarity had to be checked. In order to check this assumption, the collinearity

diagnostics including *Tolerance* and *Variance Inflation Factor* (VIF) were determined. According to Pallant (2007):

Tolerance is an indicator of how much of the variability of the specified independent is not explained by the other independent variables in the model. If this value is very small (less than .10), it indicates that the multiple correlation with other variables is high, suggesting the possibility of multicollinearity. The other value given is the VIP, which is just the inverse of the Tolerance value (1 divided by Tolerance). VIF values above 10 would be a concern, indicating multicollinearity (p. 156).

The Tolerance and VIF values of the regression model for the vocabulary test are provided in Table 1 below:

Table 1. The collinearity diagnostics of the learners' anxiety types and vocabulary test performance

Model	Tolerance	VIF
Classroom Anxiety	.999	1.001
Test Anxiety	.999	1.001

As Table 1 shows, the Tolerance values of the model were more than 0.10, and the VIF values were less than 10. Therefore, the multicollinearity assumption was not violated. Moreover, in order to determine the outliers, the Mahalanobis distance value was checked. As Pallant (2007) noted, for a model with 2 independent variables this value should not exceed "13.82" (p. 157). The results of *residuals statistics* for this model are provided in Table 2 below:

Table 2. The residuals statistics of the regression model of the learners' anxiety types and vocabulary test performance

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mahal. Distance	.070	7.949	1.987	1.803	158
Cook's Distance	.000	.055	.006	.009	158

As Table 2 shows, the maximum value of the Mahalanobis distance (7.949) was less than 13.82, and therefore the outlier assumption was not violated. Finally, in order to

check the remaining assumptions, the value of the Cook's distance was determined. As Pallant (2007) argued, this value should be less than 1. According to Table 2, the maximum value for the Cook's distance (.055) was less than 1, and therefore none of the other assumptions was violated.

Since all of the assumptions of the Multiple Regression were present, the regression model of the learners' anxiety types and vocabulary test performance was evaluated. Table 3 below provides the summary of this model:

Table 3. The regression model summary of the learners' anxiety types and vocabulary test performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.394	.155	.144	7.141

According to Table 3, this model explains 0.155 (i.e. *R Square* value) of the variance of the learners' performance on the vocabulary test. That is, this model explains 15.5 percent (R Square value multiplied by 100, by shifting the decimal point two places to the right) of the variance in the vocabulary test performance. However, in order to check the statistical significance of the predictive power of the model the results of the ANOVA test of the model had to be checked. The results of this test are provided in Table 4 below:

Table 4. The ANOVA test of the regression model of the learners' anxiety types and vocabulary test performance

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1430.542	2	715.271	14.026	.000
Residual	7802.151	153	50.994		
Total	9232.692	155			

As Table 4 shows, the predictive power of the model was not equal to 0 since the p-value of the ANOVA test .000 (marked as *Sig.*) was less than the level of significance .05.

Finally, in order to determine the contribution of each of the independent variables to the prediction of the variance of the vocabulary test results the *Standardized Coefficients* had to be checked. These results are provided in Table 5 below:

Table 5. The coefficients of the regression model of the learners' anxiety types and vocabulary test performance

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	33.757	2.464		13.698	.000
Classroom Anxiety	-.041	.016	-.194	-2.606	.010
Test Anxiety	-.048	.010	-.349	-4.695	.000

According to Table 5, the Beta value for the Test Anxiety variable (-.349) is larger than the other variable. Therefore, it can be argued that, this variable makes a stronger unique contribution to explaining the results of the vocabulary test when the variance explained by the other variable in the model is controlled. Moreover, since the p-value for this variable .000 (marked as *Sig*.) was less than the level of significance .05, it was argued that, this variable made a statistically significant unique contribution to the prediction of the vocabulary test results. Furthermore, Classroom Anxiety (Beta=-.194, Sig=.010) also made a statistically significant contribution to the results of this test. The significant contributions of these variables to the explanation of the results of this test are respectively depicted in Figure 1 and Figure 2 below:

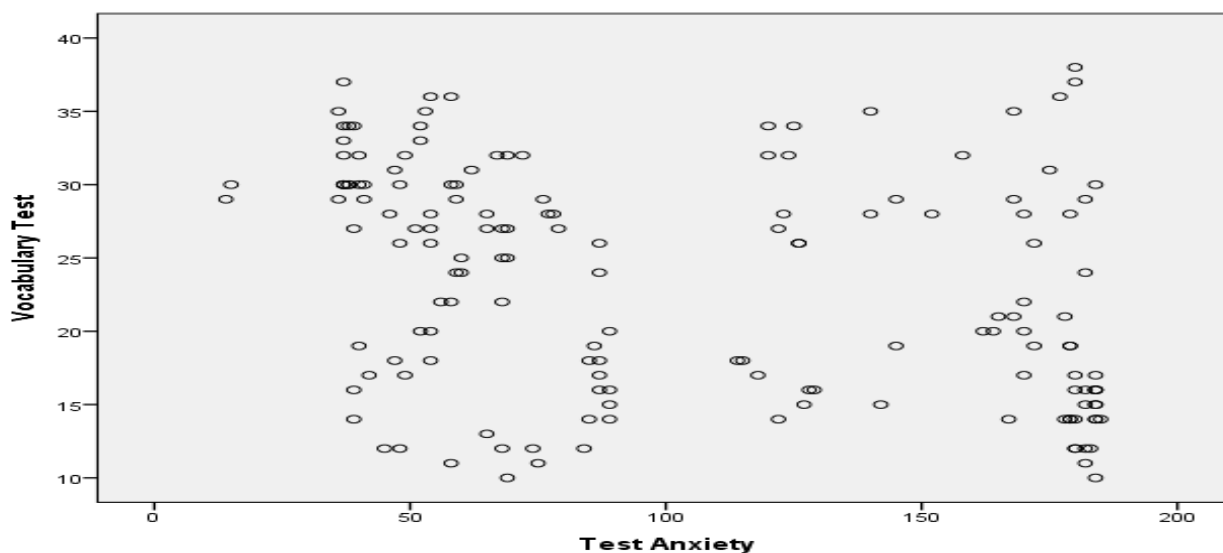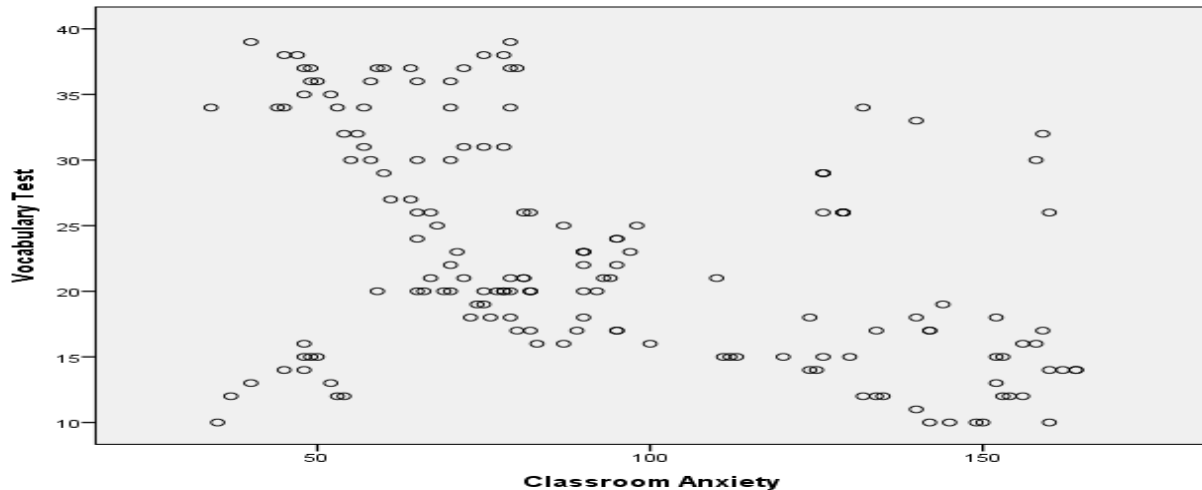Figure 1.The correlation between the learners' test anxiety and vocabulary test performance

Figure 2.The correlation between the learners' classroom anxiety and vocabulary test performance

The second research question of the study tried to determine the relationship between the EFL learners' anxiety and their grammar test performance. Based on the aims of this research question, a Standard Multiple Regression test was run between the participant's results on the language anxiety inventory and test anxiety inventory of the study and their performance on the grammar test. In the regression analysis, first, the assumption of multicoliniarity had to be checked. The Tolerance and VIF values of the regression model for the grammar test are provided in Table 6 below:

Table 6. The collinearity diagnostics of the learners' anxiety types and grammar test performance

Model	Tolerance	VIF
Classroom Anxiety	.957	1.045
Test Anxiety	.957	1.045

As Table 6 shows, the Tolerance values of the model were more than 0.10, and the VIF values were less than 10. Therefore, the multicollinearity assumption was not violated.

Moreover, in order to determine the outliers, the Mahalanobis distance value was checked. The results of *residuals statistics* for this model are provided in Table 7 below:

Table 7: The residuals statistics of the regression model of the learners' anxiety types and grammar test performance

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mahal. Distance	.112	7.579	1.987	2.913	158
Cook's Distance	.000	.292	.010	.031	158

As Table 7 shows, the maximum value of the Mahalanobis distance (7.579) was less than 13.82, and therefore the outlier assumption was not violated. Moreover, the maximum value for the Cook's distance (.292) was less than 1. Therefore, none of the assumptions was violated. Since all of the assumptions of the Multiple Regression were present, the regression model of the learners' anxiety types and grammar test performance was evaluated. Table 8 below provides the summary of this model:

Table 8: The regression model summary of the learners' anxiety types and grammar test performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.328	.107	.096	7.521

According to Table 8, this model explains 0.107 (i.e. *R Square* value) of the variance of the learners' performance on the grammar test. That is, this model explains 10.7 percent (R Square value multiplied by 100, by shifting the decimal point two places to the right) of the variance in the grammar test results. However, in order to check the statistical significance of the predictive power of the model the results of the ANOVA test of the model had to be checked. The results of this test are provided in Table 9 below:

Table 9. The ANOVA test of the regression model of the learners' anxiety types and grammar test performance

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1053.630	2	526.815	9.313	.000
Residual	8767.820	155	56.567		
Total	9821.449	157			

As Table 9 shows, the predictive power of the model was not equal to 0 since the p-value of the ANOVA test .000 (marked as *Sig*.) was less than the level of significance .05.

Finally, in order to determine the contribution of each of the independent variables to the prediction of the variance of the grammar test results the *Standardized Coefficients* had to be checked. These results are provided in Table 10 below:

Table 10. The coefficients of the regression model of the learners' anxiety types and grammar test performance

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	19.429	4.240		4.582	.000
Classroom Anxiety	.061	.026	-.180	-2.315	.022
Test Anxiety	-.034	.011	-.239	-3.084	.002

According to Table 10, the Beta value for the Test Anxiety variable (-.239) is larger than the other variable. Therefore, it can be argued that, this variable makes a stronger unique contribution to explaining the results of the grammar test when the variance explained by the other variable in the model is controlled. Moreover, since the p-value for this variable .002 (marked as *Sig*.) was less than the level of significance .05, it was argued that this variable made a statistically significant unique contribution to the prediction of the

grammar test results. Furthermore, Classroom Anxiety (Beta=-.180, Sig=.022) also made a statistically significant contribution to the results of this test. The significant contributions of these variables to the explanation of the results of this test are respectively depicted in Figure 3 and Figure 4 below:

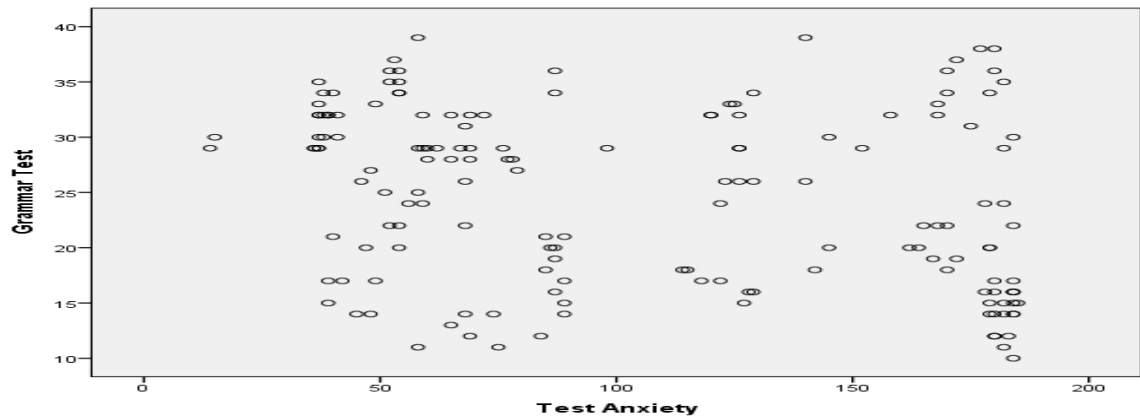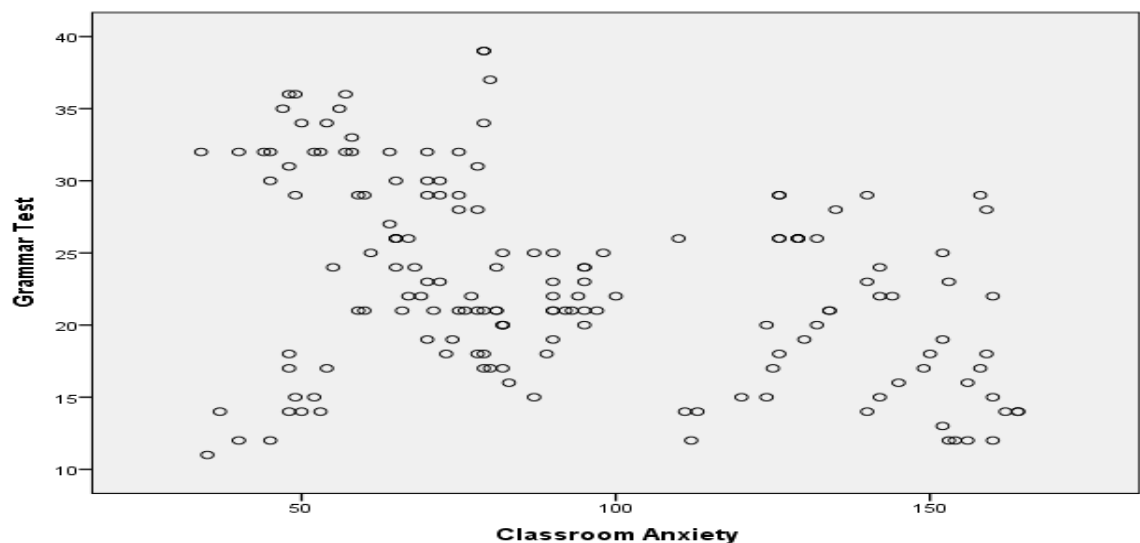Figure 3. The correlation between the learners' test anxiety and grammar test performance

Figure 4. The correlation between the learners' classroom anxiety and grammar test performance

Discussions

The first research questions of the study tried to determine the relationship between the learners' anxiety and their performance on thevocabularytest of the study. More specifically, it tried to determine how much of the variance in the learners' results on the vocabulary test can be explained by the learners' anxiety. The results of the data analysis revealed that, the learners' Test Anxiety and Classroom Anxiety significantly contributed to the explanation of the variance in the results of this test. Moreover, based on the results, Test Anxiety made a stronger contribution to the results in comparison with the Classroom Anxiety. These results are in line with the results of the studies by Horwitz

(1986),MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, 1994)who have reported significant negative correlations between the language anxiety types and second language test performance.

According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), the second language anxiety including both the classroom anxiety and the test anxiety can have debilitative effects on the language learners' performance on second language tests. As they explained, the beginner-level learners usually do not experience high levels of language anxiety. That is, anxiety may not be a powerful predictor of language achievement at the lower proficiency levels. However, as they noted, when the learners reach the post-beginner and the intermediate levels, they may experience higher levels of language anxiety as a result of unsatisfactory learning experiences in their classrooms. According to them, this kind of anxiety may prevent the learners from focusing and learning the different aspects of the second language. As they concluded, at this stage, the increase of the second language anxiety acts as a predictor of language achievement in general, and second language test performance in particular. More specifically, the higher levels of language anxiety lead to the learners' weak performance on second language tests.

Based on these issues, it can be argued that, the intermediate-level learners of the present study with high levels of classroom and test anxiety had a weaker performance on the vocabulary test of the study in comparison with the others since they were not able to focus and learn the formal aspects of the second language including its vocabulary. Therefore, it can be concluded that, the learners' test anxiety and classroom anxiety may be systematic sources of test bias and affect their performance on the vocabulary tests of the second language.

The second research question of the study tried to determine the relationship between the learners' anxiety and their performance on the grammar test of the study. The results of the data analysis revealed that, the learners' Test Anxiety and Classroom Anxiety significantly contributed to the explanation of the variance in the results of this test. Moreover, based on the results, Test Anxiety made a stronger contribution to the results in comparison with the Classroom Anxiety. These results are in line with the results of the studies by Birjandi and Alemi (2010), and Salehi and Marefat (2014) who have reported significant negative correlations between the anxiety types and second language test performance.

As MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) stated, the students' language anxiety usually has a negative effect on their second language acquisition. As they explained, the learners at the intermediate proficiency levels of language acquisition are likely to be more affectively inhibited in comparison with the beginner-level learners. According to them, most of these

learners experience a higher level of language anxiety in the language classrooms in comparison with the learners who are at the basic or elementary proficiency levels. As they concluded, the learners with this kind of anxiety are not able to properly pay attention to and learn the different aspects of the second language including the grammatical structures.

Based on these issues, it can be argued that, the intermediate-level learners of the present study with high levels of classroom and test anxiety had a weaker performance on the grammar test of the present study in comparison with the others since they were not able to recognize and pay attention to the grammatical structures of the second language and could not use them accurately. Therefore, it can be concluded that, the learners' test anxiety and classroom anxiety may be systematic sources of test bias and affect their performance on the grammar tests of the second language.

Finally, it should be noted that, the results of the present study do not support the results of the studies by Chastain (1975) who reported mixed results regarding the relationship between language anxiety and test performance. Moreover, the results are in contrast with the results of the study by Kleinmann (1978) who reported a significant positive correlation between the language anxiety and second language test performance. Finally, the results are not in line with the results of the study by In'nami (2006) who did not find any significant relationship between the participants' test anxiety and their second language test performance.

According to Bailey (1983), the learners' second language anxiety may stem from: their competitive nature in classrooms, their perceived relationship with the second language teacher, and the nature of the evaluation system of the classroom. Moreover, as Oxford (1992) noted, this kind of anxiety may be related to the learners' fear of losing themselves in the target culture. Finally, as Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) stated, the language anxiety may be influenced by the language learners' personality traits such as perfectionism in language acquisition.

According to Skehan (1989), the different sources of anxiety may influence the relationship between language anxiety and second language acquisition. That is, the various factors that provoke anxiety may modify the relationship between the learners' experienced language anxiety and their performance in the second language.

Based on these issues, it can be argued that, the participants' affective variables (e.g. their competitive nature in classrooms, their fear of losing themselves in the target culture, & their personality traits) along with the situational factors (e.g. the nature of the evaluation system of the classroom) have led to the difference between the results of the present study and the studies by Chastain (1975), Kleinmann (1978), and In'nami (2006).

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION

The present study investigated the relationship between the EFL learners' anxiety and their vocabulary and grammar test performance. The results of the study showed that, the learners' test anxiety and classroom anxiety had significant negative correlations with their performances on the vocabulary and grammar tests of the study. Based on these results, the EFL teachers are recommended to employ reliable and valid instruments (e.g. FLCAS& TAS) in order to determine their learners' anxiety types. Moreover, the teachers are recommended to reduce their learners' second language anxiety by the means of various techniques. For example, they can motivate the learners to participate in the activities of the classroom and can encourage them to express their opinions about the usefulness of the various classroom tasks. Furthermore, they can reduce the learners' anxiety by asking them: to participate in different kinds of pair and group activities, and to employ affective strategies when they are using the second language in the classroom. In addition, the teachers can discuss the problems which most of the learners encounter in the process of language acquisition.

Finally, the language teachers can reduce their learners' test anxiety by explaining the evaluation system of the classroom to them and assuring them that they can pass their tests easily. That is, during the second language course, they should tell their students about: the parts of the lessons which will be included in the language tests, the structure of the tests, and the sessions in which they will take the tests.

Based on the mentioned results of the study regarding the learners' anxiety types, the EFL syllabus designers are recommended to include sufficient pair and group activities in the EFL textbooks in order to reduce the learners' second language anxiety. Moreover, they should include certain sections in the textbooks in which the learners become familiar with various kinds of test items and are instructed to employ appropriate test-taking strategies in order to answer them. Finally, they are recommended to include sufficient information regarding the affective strategies in the textbooks in order to reduce the language learners' anxiety types.

Finally, as Skehan (1989) noted, the language testing specialists are recommended to adopt a research-then-theory approach in the studies of individual learner differences in order to provide more information regarding the random, non-linear, and context-specific role of these differences in the explanation of the variance in the results of different measures of the second language.

However, it should be noted that, there is a need for various empirical studies of individual learner differences in different learning contexts and educational settings in order to make wide-reaching conclusions about the role of these differences as test bias factors. For instance, the future studies should investigate larger samples including both male and female second language learners. Moreover, they should involve language learners from different age groups. The investigation of these personal attributes may help to answer certain questions regarding the differential development of language ability based on the learners' age and gender (Bachman, 1990). Furthermore, the future studies should involve language learners from different mother tongues, and language proficiency levels in order to provide more information regarding the non-linear and variable role of the individual learner differences in the explanation of the variance in second language tests.

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Darwin used the metaphor of the tree of life "to express the other form of interconnectedness–genealogical rather than ecological" (Gould & Brown, 1991, p. 14).

Indirect Quotation with Author as a part of the Narrative
Gould and Brown (1991) explained that Darwin used the metaphor of the tree of life "to express the other form of interconnectedness–genealogical rather than ecological"(p. 14).