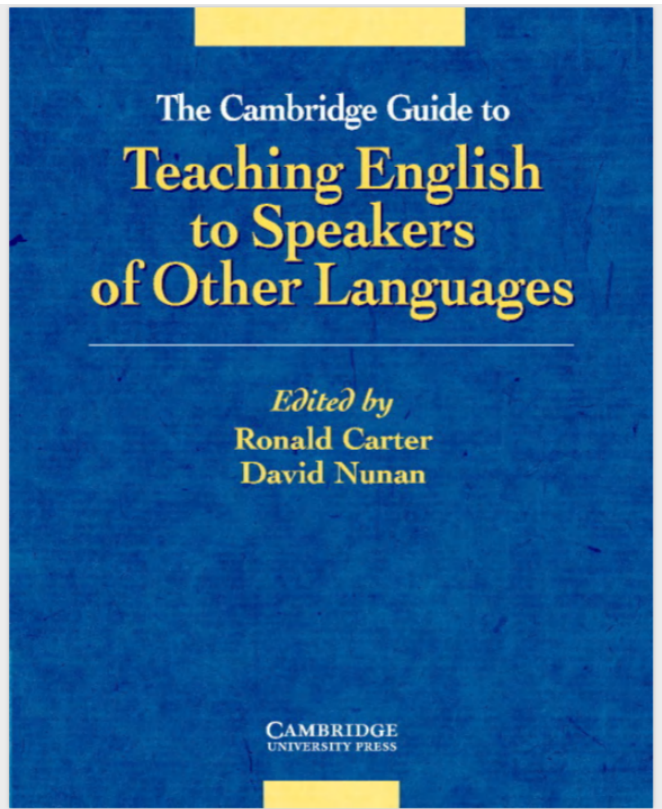


Carter



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2. What should be *selected* as appropriate content? Given a linguistic focus, which particular structures and vocabulary should be covered or, given a communicative focus, which particular uses of language or types of tasks should be selected?
3. How should the content be *subdivided* so that it can be dealt with in manageable units? In other words, what is selected as content may be broken down to contributory or constituent parts for ease of teaching and learning in real time.
4. How should the content be *sequenced* along a path of development? A syllabus may adopt a step-by-step progression from less to more complex knowledge and capabilities, or it may be cyclic where earlier knowledge and capabilities are revisited and refined at later points.

These four principles of organisation define a syllabus. In the history of language teaching, the last 20 years in particular have revealed significant developments in syllabus design that have led to the application of each of these principles in alternative ways.

### Background

Generally speaking, there are four types of syllabus currently used in language teaching. Syllabus designers, textbook writers, and teachers have evolved versions of these, but their main characteristics usefully reveal the development of syllabus design over the last 20 years or so. Before describing the types of syllabus, I give a brief history of their emergence to illustrate their differences (for further details of these developments, see Breen 1987; Nunan 1988b; White 1988; Stern 1992).

Before the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT) in the late 1970s, it was widely accepted that the syllabus should focus upon linguistic knowledge and the skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing, usually in that order. In the 1970s, research in the social and conversational use of language, coupled with growing dissatisfaction with learners' apparent failure to use the linguistic knowledge outside the classroom which they had gained within it, initiated a major change in syllabus design. Applied linguists advocated a focus upon *language use* rather than the formal aspects of language (e.g. Council of Europe 1971; Wilkins 1972b; Brumfit and Johnson 1979). The initial phase of this transition was exemplified in the development of functional syllabuses focusing upon particular purposes of language and how these would be expressed linguistically. At the same time – in response to the particular needs of certain groups of learners – special purpose syllabuses and teaching materials were quickly developed focusing upon language knowledge and skills needed for academic study or specific occupations, e.g. engineering or medicine (Mackay and Mountford 1978; Mumby 1978; Trimble *et al.* 1978).

In the early 1980s this functional movement in syllabus design became challenged from two directions. The teaching of a repertoire of functions or special purpose language was considered by some as limiting the learner's potential to certain fixed communicative situations or fixed social and occupational roles. They argued that a focus upon formal aspects of language at least allowed learners to generalise from one situation or communicative demand to another on the basis of the system of rules and the range of vocabulary that they have learned (Brumfit 1981; Wilkins *et al.* 1981).

The second challenge echoed earlier doubts expressed about formal syllabuses. Both types of syllabus could be seen as 'synthetic' in that learners were expected gradually to accumulate separated bits of knowledge, be they forms or functions, largely through de-contextualised *language-focused* activities before applying such knowledge as typically synthesised in real communication. They were also seen as partial because either formal or functional knowledge of linguistic structures or utterances were just two elements within broader communicative competence. Such competence entailed *over-riding* language forms, the conventions for the social use of language, and the interpretation and expression of meanings as a unified activity (Breen and

Candlin 1980; Canale and Swain 1980). This view was informed by linguistic and sociolinguistic analyses of extended spoken or written discourse and by how it was constructed and participated in by language users (see, e.g., Widdowson 1978, 1989).

During the 1980s, therefore, the wider development of CLT evolved in two new directions subsequent to functionalism. Both reflected a shift in the kind of research on which they were based. As we have seen, formal and functional syllabuses had been based on *how linguists described language*, and the latter were motivated by an extended awareness of the nature of language use in social situations. The two new directions for syllabus design were oriented towards psycholinguistic and educational accounts of *how language learning is actually undertaken* by the learner. Such an orientation led to task-based and process syllabus types.

**Task-based syllabuses** had their origins in research on second language acquisition (SLA) during the 1980s. Building upon discoveries from first language (L1) acquisition and Krashen's influential view that language was best acquired through the learner's focus upon meaning in the input provided to the learner (summarised in Krashen 1985), researchers began to focus upon how learners interacted in order to negotiate meaning both inside and outside the classroom (Hatch 1978; Long 1981; for a review, see Pica 1994). From this perspective, a learner's use of the formal and social conventions governing language were seen to serve the struggle for meaning during interaction. The goal of the syllabus designer or teacher therefore became the provision of suitable tasks to encourage interaction and, through it, negotiation for meaning. In essence, a learner's expression and interpretation of meaning during appropriate tasks would enable the acquisition and refinement of linguistic knowledge and its social use. Some researchers and practitioners therefore proposed that *task* should be the key unit within the syllabus rather than aspects of language, be these formally or functionally identified (Breen *et al.* 1979; Prabhu 1984; Long 1985b; Candlin and Murphy 1987; Long and Crookes 1992).

Two main task types are identified in task-based syllabus design: a syllabus may be constituted of (1) communicative or target-like tasks or (2) metacommunicative or learning tasks. The former are those involving learners in sharing meaning in the target language about everyday tasks. Any task-based syllabus varies according to the particular curriculum within which it is located. A curriculum serving the needs, for example of school-age learners might include a syllabus of age-appropriate everyday tasks, such as planning a trip or solving a maths/science problem (see Chapters 18, 19 and 27).

The second task type is facilitative of the learner's involvement in communicative or target-like tasks. Metacommunicative or learning tasks (sometimes called pedagogic tasks) involve learners in sharing meaning about how the language works or is used in target situations and/or sharing meaning about students' own learning processes. Typical metacommunicative tasks are deducing verb-form patterns in spoken or written texts, or mapping how, e.g., narratives or scientific reports are structured.

Also focusing upon how language learning is undertaken – specifically in the context of the broader curriculum and the classroom – a second proposal for syllabus design in the 1980s was derived from educational perspectives on curriculum design and the teaching-learning process. A key argument was that *what* learners have to learn and *how* teaching and learning are done are unavoidably interrelated. Content, teaching methodology and learning constantly interact and influence each other during classroom work so that the teaching and learning process is itself a highly significant part of the content of language lessons (Postman and Weingartner 1969; Freire 1970 [1996], 1972; Stenhouse 1975; Breen and Candlin 1980). These ideas coincided with innovations in teaching methodologies which provided alternatives to grammar translation, audiolingual and other teacher modeling and feedback methodologies that had typified the use of formal syllabuses in particular (Stevick 1976, 1980).

This orientation to how language may be learned in ways that could be directly related to how teaching and learning may be done in the classroom had motivated the adoption of tasks as a key component of the syllabus. However, the idea that negotiation for meaning during tasks facilitates

### *How Large Can a Receptive Vocabulary Be?*

ROBIN GOULDEN, PAUL NATION, and JOHN READ

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*Studies of vocabulary size based on dictionary sampling have faced several methodological problems. These problems occur in trying to answer the following three questions: (1) How do we decide what to count as words? (2) How do we choose what words to test? (3) How do we test the chosen words? The present study attempts to overcome these problems and checks in several ways to see if the problems have been overcome. The results indicate that what were previously thought of as conservative estimates of vocabulary size are likely to be the most accurate. These estimates suggest that well-educated adult native speakers of English have a vocabulary of around 17,000 base words. This represents an acquisition rate of around two to three words per day.*

#### 1. WHY STUDY VOCABULARY SIZE?

In countries like Great Britain, the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, learners of English as a second language attend the same schools and universities as native speakers of English and follow the same classes. An obvious and striking difference between these two groups is in the size of their vocabulary. A young immigrant might arrive at school knowing almost no English words at all. A foreign student might enter an English medium university knowing only a few thousand words of English. What is the size of the vocabulary learning task facing such learners? How can they best be helped to manage it? How long will it take them to perform at a level comparable to that of native speakers? Diller (1978) put this last question another way: 'How long does it take to produce a bilingual?'

In one of the few studies in this area, Jamieson (1976) found that the rate of vocabulary increase was similar for five- and seven-year-old native speakers of English and learners of English as a second language who were in the same school system. This meant that the second language learners' rate kept pace with that of their native-speaking peers. However, the second language learners did not bridge the gap between their vocabulary size and that of the native speakers that already existed when they entered the school system.

In a more recent study, Cummins (1981) showed that the gap can be narrowed, but only after a number of years of English-medium education. He analysed the vocabulary test results of 1,210 foreign-born ESL students in the Toronto school system in relation to their age on arrival and length of residence in Canada. On the average, he found that children who had immigrated at the age of six or later took five to seven years to achieve scores that approximated those of native-born students at their grade level. As Cummins points out, this can have serious consequences for immigrant students because of the extent to

which vocabulary knowledge influences performance on verbal IQ tests. These students may be wrongly diagnosed as having low academic potential on the basis of IQ tests administered to them during their first five years of residence in the host country.

Cummins relates his findings to a more general distinction between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive-academic language proficiency (CALP). According to this analysis, a major problem in assessing immigrant ESL learners is that they may rapidly acquire fluency in BICS within one or two years of arrival and thus give the impression that they have achieved a level of competence in the language equivalent to that of their native-speaking peers, whereas tests of vocabulary and reading comprehension reveal that they lack the underlying proficiency (or CALP) that is required to cope with academic study through the medium of their second language. Therefore, in this context, measures of vocabulary size—particularly the size of academic vocabulary—are important indicators of the ability of second language learners to achieve academic success.

Another perspective on the effect of inadequate vocabulary knowledge on academic performance is provided by Corson (1983), who suggests that the significance of the gap may be one not so much of size as of the type of vocabulary involved. His studies with native-speaking students of different social class backgrounds show 'a lexical bar' existing between the very frequent, largely monosyllabic, mainly Anglo-Saxon vocabulary of conversational English and the Graeco-Latin vocabulary of the English of academic study. The size and nature of the gap between learners on one side of the lexical bar and those on the other would have a direct influence on the type of help teachers would provide. If the gap was small for a particular group of learners, it might be more effective to encourage the learning of particular sets of words, like the university word list (Xue and Nation 1984). If the gap was large, concentration on vocabulary learning strategies and procedures would be more effective.

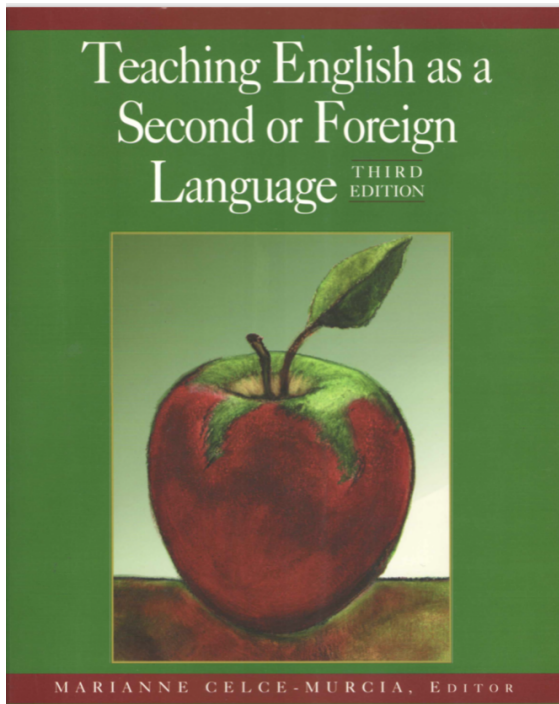
Investigations of vocabulary size then are of interest to teachers of English as a second language in that they can provide information about the size of the task facing second language learners and the most suitable ways of dealing with the task.

## 2. PREVIOUS STUDIES

Investigations of vocabulary size, particularly of native speakers, have been published since early this century. The most notable feature of these investigations is the enormous divergence among the results. The various estimates of the number of words known by college students and adults, for example, range from 3,000 words to 216,000 words (Fries and Traver 1960; Lorge and Chall 1963; Diller 1978).

These results are more striking if they are turned into daily estimates. Diller (1978), for example, estimates that secondary school children learn 20,000 words a year. This works out to be a rate of around 60 words a day! The lower estimates of vocabulary size, for example Diack (1975), convert to around three

Celce-Murcia (2001:104)





# Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language

THIRD EDITION

MARIANNE CELCE-MURCIA  
EDITOR

HEINLE & HEINLE  
THOMSON LEARNING

UNITED STATES • AUSTRALIA • CANADA • MEXICO • SINGAPORE • SPAIN • UNITED KINGDOM

Canale and Swain's (1980) adaptation of Hymes's theory of communicative **competence** proposes that the ability to communicate in a language comprises four dimensions: *grammatical competence* (including rules of phonology, orthography, vocabulary, word formation, and sentence formation), *sociolinguistic competence* (rules for the expression and understanding of appropriate social meanings and grammatical forms in different contexts), *discourse competence* (rules of both cohesion—how sentence elements are tied together via reference, repetition, synonymy, etc.—and coherence—how texts are constructed), and finally, *strategic competence*, (a repertoire of compensatory strategies that help with a variety of **communication** difficulties).

The impact of communicative **competence** theory on second and foreign language teaching cannot really be overstated: few ESL materials published in the last decade or so fail to claim that their materials reflect "the communicative approach." What features of this theoretical approach are relevant to teaching oral skills? Perhaps the most obvious way in which oral skills pedagogy has evolved as a result of this theory is that it is no longer acceptable to focus *only* on developing the grammatical **competence** of our students, as was the case with a number of language teaching methodologies which were popular in the past. Today, teachers are expected to *balance* a focus on accuracy with a focus on *fluency* as well. According to Hedge (1993, pp. 275–276) the term *fluency* has two meanings. The first, which is "the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness or undue hesitation," is what is commonly understood as fluency in language teaching materials and in language assessment procedures. But Hedge proposes a second, more holistic sense of fluency, that of "natural language use," which is likely to take place when speaking activities focus on meaning and its negotiation, when speaking strategies are used, and when overt correction is minimized. This second, broader definition is certainly consistent with the aims of many ESL classrooms today where the negotiation of meaning is a major goal.

A second implication is that multiple skills should be taught whenever possible. In fact, Murphy (1991) believes that oral skills teachers should always connect speaking, listening, and pronunciation teaching although the focus in any one class or activity may highlight one or another. More broadly, oral skills classes may use reading and writing activities as the basis or follow-up for speaking activities.

Training learners to use strategies and encouraging strategy use is another prominent feature of today's oral skills classroom. Books such as *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know* (Oxford 1990) discuss this topic in detail; while the utility of teaching "communication strategies" is a debated theoretical issue (see Dörnyei 1995), it is clear that language learners must become competent at using strategies, such as circumlocution, hesitation devices, and appeals for help, and that the oral skills teacher should at least advocate and model their use.

A final feature which characterizes the current ESL classroom is that students are encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning. No longer is learning seen as a one-way transfer of knowledge from teacher to student; today we understand that students learn from teachers, from classmates, and from the world outside the classroom, and the more the learner seeks these opportunities, the more likely he or she will learn to use the language. In the oral skills classroom, students should be allowed and encouraged to initiate **communication** when possible, to determine the content of their responses or contributions, and to evaluate their own production and learning progress.

## The Oral Skills Class

In deciding how to structure and what to teach in an oral skills class, questions such as the following should be considered: Who are the students? Why are they there? What do they expect to learn? What am I expected to teach?

One basic consideration is the level of the students and their perceived needs. Level may be determined by a placement test administered

Jamal, 2013) in (Rofi'ah & Huda, 2020).

The effectiveness of the drilling method on enriching students vocabulary  
(A Study at Seventh Grade of Islamic Junior High School An-Nuriyah Benjeng Gresik)

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**Abstract**

This study is generally attempted to find the effectiveness of the drill method on student's vocabulary skill for the first-grade student's at MTs. An-Nuriyah Benjeng Gresik academic year 2016/2017. To know this technique is valid or not, the researcher used a pre-experimental study applied in VII A class. The research has been done in six meetings that are designed, First meeting is for pre-test, four sessions are for treatments, and the last session is for post-test. As the quantitative method, the researcher analysed the data by using t-test. The result shows that There is a significant difference in the student's vocabulary achievement taught with drill method. The researcher uses the degree of significance of 5% and 1%. In the table of relevance, it can be seen the df 24, and the degree of importance of 5% and 1% the value of the degree of significance are 2,06 and 2,80. If compare with each value of the degrees of relevance, the result is  $2,06 < 10,506 > 2,80$ . The result of calculation  $t_0$  (t-observation) is higher than  $t_t$  (t-table),  $t_0 > t_t$ , the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) is rejected. If the result of calculation  $t_0$  (t-observation) is lower than  $t_t$  (t-table),  $t_0 < t_t$ , the null hypothesis is accepted. Since the score obtained from the result of calculating, the alternative hypothesis ( $H_a$ ) is accepted and the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) is rejected. In other words, the writer hypothesis is accepted. It means that there are significant differences between a student's achievement in learning vocabulary skill using the drill method.

**Key Words:** Enriching, Students' Vocabulary Skill.

## L INTRODUCTION

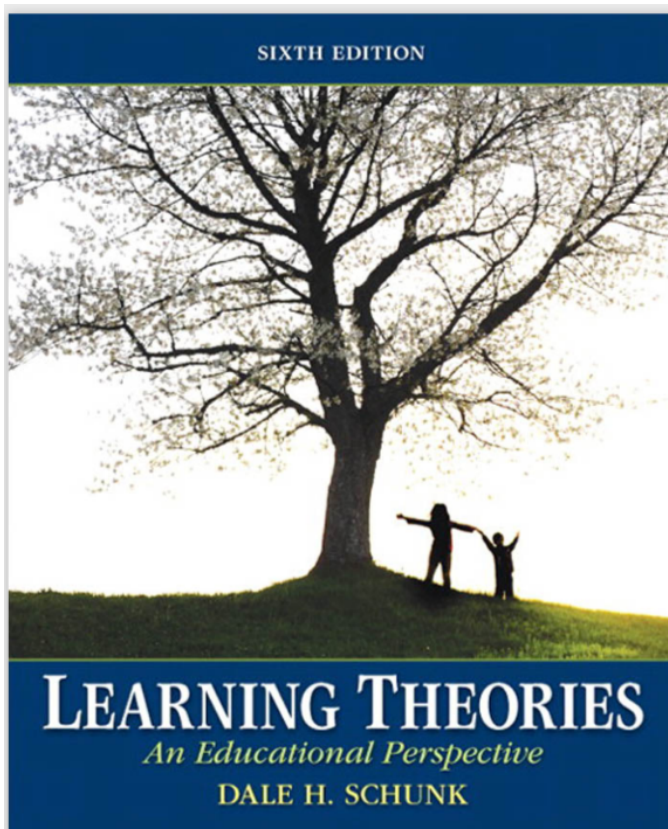
The objective of learning English is to enable students to communicate in English orally and written form. Accuracy and fluency are aspects of language proficiency (Aziz & Dewi, 2019). Efficiency refers to mastering language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing (Aziz & Dewi, 2019). Moreover, learning language skills is the objective of English teaching based on the current School Based Curriculum. The aim of learning vocabulary for the first grade of junior high school is to enable students to master vocabulary about functional text and monologue text or paragraph in the form of descriptive and procedure. Learners expect to be able to express meaningful ideas in term of technical writing and simple short essay in the way of graphic and process to interact with people in their nearest environment (Daif-Allah & Khan, 2016). The work of vocabulary is presented in the form of text types, usually know as genres (Lepola, Lynch, Laakkonen, Silvén, & Niemi, 2012). All language skills include vocabulary in their activities. And all the students are hoped to master a lot of dictionaries. Learners will be more comfortable to show their ideas, making compositions, and many other activities dealing with language. By knowing and understanding the dictionary, the student will successfully achieve the four English language skills.

According to Richards and Rodgers, Vocabulary was one of the essential aspects

of foreign language learning (Richards, 2013). Vocabulary is central to English language teaching. Because without sufficient dictionary, students cannot understand others or express their ideas (Aziz, 2019). The teachers have a great deal of influence on Indonesian students in learning English. Developing a student's interest in learning vocabulary has always been one of the principal challenges for the teachers. To make students in mastering English, many teachers have to use different methods for the same purpose, to understand, learn and remember vocabulary more easily.

According to Asmani, Drill method is called by training method (Jamal, 2013). It is a manner of teaching to implant certain activities. For instance, this method can be used to get skill and competent. And according to (Sagala, 2010), the drill method is an activity in the form of repeat to response will be reliable and not easy to be forgotten. According to (Schunk, 2012), in applying this method, the learners will be able to use the energy of thoughts is well, because with the excellent teaching the learners are more careful in motivating their power of ideas. And according to (Johar & Hanum, 2016) drill method is a manner of teaching student does exercises, the student has the skill and competent are higher than what did they learn. And drill method is a method in education and determining with coaching the student to the material of the lesson that was given (Gudu, 2015).

Schunk (2012)



# Learning Theories

## An Educational Perspective

Sixth Edition

**Dale H. Schunk**

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro



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Motivation 383

failure. Not all students with learning problems enter this cycle; some continue to feel confident and display positive attributional patterns. One factor that may be important is frequency of failure: Students who fail in many school subjects are especially susceptible. Reading deficits are particularly influential; poor reading skills affect learning in many content areas. Reading deficits can promote negative beliefs even in areas that involve little or no reading (e.g., mathematics; Licht & Kistner, 1986).

Variables associated with the instructional environment can prevent students with learning problems from entering this cycle and can help them overcome it (Friedman & Medway, 1987). Attributional feedback can alter students' maladaptive achievement beliefs and behaviors. Teachers also need to give students tasks they can accomplish and feedback highlighting progress toward learning goals (Schunk, 1995; Stipek, 2002). Stipek and Kowalski (1989) found that teaching task strategies to children who de-emphasized the role of effort raised their academic performance.

We will now examine an important influence on motivation—self-concept, which has received much attention by researchers and practitioners as they attempt to understand **student motivation** and achievement.

---

### SELF-CONCEPT

Psychologists and educators have studied self-concept for years, stimulated in large part by attempts to understand human personality and functioning. Although many believed that self-concept related positively to academic achievement, theoretical and research evidence to support this claim was missing.

This situation has been dramatically altered as theory and research on self-concept have undergone a resurgence (Hattie, 1992). Teachers are concerned with issues such as how self-concept relates to motivation and learning, how self-concept can be improved, and how social and instructional factors influence self-concept. This section provides an overview of the makeup of the self-concept and its role in academic motivation and learning.

#### Dimensions and Development

*Self-concept* refers to one's collective self-perceptions (a) formed through experiences with, and interpretations of, the environment and (b) heavily influenced by reinforcements and evaluations by significant other persons (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982). Self-concept is multidimensional and comprises elements such as self-confidence, self-esteem, self-concept stability, and self-crystallization (Pajares & Schunk, 2001, 2002; Rosenberg & Kaplan, 1982; Schunk & Pajares, 2009). *Self-esteem* is one's perceived sense of self-worth, or whether one accepts and respects oneself. Self-esteem is the evaluative component of self-concept. *Self-confidence* denotes the extent to which one believes one can produce results, accomplish goals, or perform tasks competently (analogous to self-efficacy). Self-esteem and self-confidence are related. The belief that one is capable of performing a task can raise self-esteem. High self-esteem might lead one to attempt difficult tasks, and subsequent success enhances self-confidence.

Goldman et al., (2010)



## Introduction

The National Reading Panel (NICHHD, 2000) identified vocabulary as one of five major components of reading. Its importance to overall school success and more specifically to reading comprehension is widely documented (Baker, Simmons, & Kame'enui, 1998; Anderson & Nagy, 1991). The National Reading Panel (NRP) stated that vocabulary plays an important role both in learning to read and in comprehending text: readers cannot understand text without knowing what most of the words mean. "Teaching vocabulary will not guarantee success in reading, just as learning to read words will not guarantee success in reading. However, lacking either adequate word identification skills or adequate vocabulary will ensure failure" (Biemiller, 2005).

Vocabulary is generally defined as the knowledge of words and word meanings. More specifically, we use vocabulary to refer to the kind of words that students must know to read increasingly demanding text with comprehension (Kamil & Hiebert, 2005). It is something that expands and deepens over time.

The NRP's synthesis of vocabulary research identified eight findings that provide a scientifically based foundation for the design of rich, multifaceted vocabulary instruction. The findings are:

- **Provide direct instruction of vocabulary words for a specific text.** Anderson and Nagy (1991) pointed out "there are precise words children may need to know in order to comprehend particular lessons or subject matter."
- **Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important.** Stahl (2005) cautioned against "mere repetition or drill of the word," emphasizing that vocabulary instruction should provide students with opportunities to encounter words repeatedly and in a variety of contexts.
- **Vocabulary words should be those that the learner will find useful in many contexts.** Instruction of high-frequency words known and used by mature language users can add productively to an individual's language ability (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). Research suggests that vocabulary learning follows a developmental trajectory (Biemiller, 2001).
- **Vocabulary tasks should be restructured as necessary.** "Once students know what is expected of them in a vocabulary task, they often learn rapidly" (Kamil, 2004).
- **Vocabulary learning is effective when it entails active engagement that goes beyond definitional knowledge.** Stahl and Kapinus (2001) stated, "When children 'know' a word, they not only know the word's definition and its logical relationship with other words, they also know how the word functions in different contexts."
- **Computer technology can be used effectively to help teach vocabulary.** Encouragement exists but relatively few specific instructional applications can be gleaned from the research (NICHHD, 2000).

## Takac (2008)

*Book reviews System 37 (2009) 538-549*

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pedagogy and culture. Most articles examine actual speech data collected by the authors, which provide readers with a first-hand resource for further studies.

The five articles in Part One and Part Three, except for the article by Kanno, examine the use of Japanese by native and/or non-native speakers. For example, Ono and Jones carefully analyse the data of conditionals from a recently developed usage-based model, and demonstrate that the actual use of conditionals is 'much more lexical than has been assumed previously' (p. 43). The findings in these articles indicate the need to carefully reflect on what has been taught in JSL/JFL research and teaching. Indeed, different schools of linguistics have viewed the same linguistic behaviour differently. A paradigm shift from heavily theory-driven research to usage-based studies seems to be taking place in applied linguistics.

The four articles in Part Two and one article by Kanno in Part Three provide instructive insights for non-native speakers of Japanese. Wetzel discusses the ideology of Japanese *keigo* or polite language from a historical point of view, and claims that native-speakers' consciousness of *keigo* 'has been shaped by their education in Japan' (p. 127). This point illustrates how directly and indirectly one is moulded by the invisible power of education. Related to this issue is Kanno's survey on the recent language policies made by the government. Though the educational ministry of Japan (MEXT) has been promoting English language education, Kanno claims that linguistic support for foreign children living in Japan is still remarkably weak, especially for those who live in Japan temporarily. The Japanese should be cognizant of this very issue.

Although the book is ambitious and instructive, I found one significant problem with it. Almost half of the articles discuss issues of language policy and ideology. To tackle such complex and delicate matters, contributions should really be by authors from a variety of academic backgrounds. All the contributors in the book, however, were educated in American universities and currently teach in the United States, Canada or Japan. Because academic environments can strongly bias one's mental framework, some readers may challenge the validity of the critiques and analyses made by these authors. Nevertheless, I recommend that this book should be read critically by students, professionals and non-specialist readers who are interested in language policies and pedagogies. It will certainly provide a good springboard for discussing issues that are inevitable during this era of globalization.

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Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Foreign Language Acquisition, V Pavičić Takač, Multilingual Matters Ltd., Clevedon (2008), vii + 197 pp

Some readers of *System* may be familiar with my website [www.lognostics.co.uk](http://www.lognostics.co.uk), which contains a massive, searchable database of research relating to vocabulary learning and vocabulary use in a second language. When I first built this site, I thought that it would be useful to know what kind of queries people were posting. I saw this as a kind of radar looking into the future of vocabulary research: if lots of people were querying the data base about mnemonic techniques, for example, then that would indicate a resurgence of interest in this area. Much to my surprise, the most popular query – about ten times more frequent than the second most frequent topic – was **strategies**. I must confess, that I found this astonishing. Although there is quite a lot of material dealing with strategies in the data base, most of it is not very exciting. It tends to consist of accounts of classroom observation studies where the authors have observed a small number of L2 learners



Nation (2001:342)

## Learning Vocabulary in Another Language

*I. S. P. Nation*

Victoria University of Wellington



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Table 1.2. Text coverage by the different kinds of vocabulary in an economics textbook

Type of vocabulary	Number of words	Text coverage
1st 2000 word families	1,577	82.5%
Academic vocabulary	636	8.7%
Other vocabulary	3,225	8.8%
Total	5,438	100.0%

Table 1.3. The coverage by the different kinds of vocabulary in an academic corpus

Type of vocabulary	% coverage
1st 1000 words	71.4%
2nd 1000 words	4.7%
Academic Word List (570 words)	10.0%
Others	13.9%
Total	100.0%

Coxhead (1998) used an academic corpus made up of a balance of science, arts, commerce and law texts totalling 3,500,000 running words. Table 1.3 gives the coverage figures for this corpus.

Figure 1.1 presents the proportions in a diagrammatic form. The size of each of the sections of the right-hand box indicates the proportion of the text taken up by each type of vocabulary.

Table 1.4 gives the typical figures for a collection of texts consisting of five million running words.

Some very important generalisations can be drawn from Table 1.4 and the other information that we have looked at. We will look at these generalisations and at questions that they raise. Brief answers to the questions will be given here but will be examined much more closely in later chapters.

**High-frequency words**

There is a small group of high-frequency words which are very important because these words cover a very large proportion of the running words in spoken and written texts and occur in all kinds of uses of the language.

Sustained-yield management ought to be long-term government policy in indigenous forests *coned* for production. The adoption of such a policy would represent a *breakthrough* – the boundary between a *pioneering, extractive phase* and an *era* in which the *timber industry adjusted* to living with the forests in *perpetuity*. A forest *sustained* is a forest in which *harvesting and mortality* combined do not exceed *regeneration*. Naturally enough, faster-growing forests produce more *timber*, which is why attention would tend to swing from *podocarps to forest* forests regardless of the state of the *podocarp* resource. The colonists cannot be blamed for *plunging* in without thought to whether the resource had limits. They brought from *Britain* little experience or understanding of how to *maintain forest structure* and a *timber supply* for all time. Under *German* management it might have been different here. The *Germans* have practised the *sustained approach* since the seventeenth century when they faced a *timber shortage* as a result of a series of wars. In *New Zealand* in the latter part of the twentieth century, an *anticipated shortage* of the most valuable native *timber, rimu*, prompts a *similar response* – no more *contraction* of the *indigenous forest* and a *balancing of yield* with *increment* in selected areas.

This is not to say the idea is being *aired* here for the first time. Over a century ago the first *Conservator of Forests* proposed *sustained harvesting*. He was *cried down*. There were far too many *trees left to bother* about it. And yet in the *pastoral context* the dangers of *overgrazing* were appreciated early in the piece. *New Zealand geography* students are taught to this day how *overgrazing* causes the *degradation* of the soil and *hillsides to slide away*, and that with them can go the *viability* of hill-country sheep and cattle *farming*. That a forest could be *overgrazed* as early was not widely accepted until much later – so late, in fact, that the *counter* to it, *sustained-yield management*, would be forced upon the industry and come as a shock to it.



Figure 1.1 Vocabulary type and coverage in an academic text

How large is this group of words? The usual way of deciding how many words should be considered as high-frequency words is to look at the text coverage provided by successive frequency-ranked groups of words. The teacher or course designer then has to decide where the coverage gained by spending teaching time on these words is no longer worthwhile. Table 1.5 shows coverage figures for each successive 1,000 lemmas from the *Brown Corpus* – a collection of various 2,000-word texts of American English totalling just over one million tokens.

Usually the 2,000-word level has been set as the most suitable limit for high-frequency words. Nation and Hwang (1995) present

Table 1.4. Vocabulary size and coverage (Carroll, Davies and Richman (1971))

Number of words	% text coverage
86,741	100
43,831	99
12,448	95
5,000	89.4
4,000	87.6
3,000	85.2
2,000	81.3
1,000	74.1
100	49
10	23.7

Table 1.5. The percentage text coverage of each successive 1000 lemmas in the Brown Corpus

1000 word (lemma) level	% coverage of text (tokens)
1000	72
2000	79.7
3000	84
4000	86.7
5000	88.6
6000	89.9

evidence that counting the 2,000 most frequent words of English as the high-frequency words is still the best decision for learners going on to academic study.

*What are the words in this group?* As has been noted, the classic list of high-frequency words is Michael West's *General Service List* which contains 2,000 word families. About 165 word families in this list are function words such as *a, some, two, because* and *to* (see appendix 6). The rest are content words, that is nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Older series of graded readers are based on this list.

*How stable are the high-frequency words?* In other words, does one properly researched list of high-frequency words differ greatly from another? Frequency lists may disagree with each other about the frequency rank order of particular words but if the research is based on a well-designed corpus there is generally about 80% agreement about

Table 1.6. Ways of learning and teaching high-frequency words

Direct teaching	Teacher explanation Peer teaching
Direct learning	Study from word cards Dictionary use
Incidental learning	Guessing from context in extensive reading Use in communication activities
Planned encounters	Graded reading Vocabulary exercises

what particular words should be included. Nation and Hwang's (1995) research on the *General Service List* showed quite large overlap between it and more recent frequency counts. Replacing some of the words in the *General Service List* with other words resulted in only a 1% increase in coverage. It is important to remember that the 2,000 high-frequency words of English consist of some words that have very high frequencies and some words that are only slightly more frequent than others not in the list. The first 1,000 words cover about 77% and the second 1,000 about 5% of the running words in academic texts. When making a list of high-frequency words, both frequency and range must be considered. Range is measured by seeing how many different texts or subcorpora each particular word occurs in. A word with wide range occurs in many different texts or subcorpora.

*How should teachers and learners deal with these words?* The high-frequency words of the language are clearly so important that considerable time should be spent on them by teachers and learners. The words are a small enough group to enable most of them to get attention over the span of a long-term English programme. This attention can be in the form of direct teaching, direct learning, incidental learning, and planned meetings with the words. The time spent on them is well justified by their frequency, coverage and range. Table 1.6 lists some of the teaching and learning possibilities that will be explored in more detail in later chapters of this book.

In general, high-frequency words are so important that anything that teachers and learners can do to make sure they are learned is worth doing.

Table 1.7. Text type and text coverage by the most frequent 2000 words of English and an academic word list in four different kinds of texts

Levels	Conversation	Fiction	Newspapers	Academic text
1st 1000	84.3%	82.3%	75.6%	73.5%
2nd 1000	6%	5.1%	4.7%	4.6%
Academic	1.9%	1.7%	3.9%	8.5%
Other	7.8%	10.9%	15.7%	13.3%

### Specialised vocabulary

It is possible to make specialised vocabularies which provide good coverage for certain kinds of texts. These are a way of extending the high-frequency words for special purposes.

*What special vocabularies are there?* Special vocabularies are made by systematically restricting the range of topics or language uses investigated. It is thus possible to have special vocabularies for speaking, for reading academic texts, for reading newspapers, for reading children's stories, or for letter writing. Technical vocabularies are also specialised vocabularies. Some specialised vocabularies are made by doing frequency counts using a specialised corpus, others are made by experts in the field gathering what they consider to be relevant vocabulary.

There is a very important specialised vocabulary for second language learners intending to do academic study in English. This is the *Academic Word List* (Coxhead, 1998; see appendix 1). It consists of 570 word families that are not in the most frequent 2,000 words of English but which occur reasonably frequently over a very wide range of academic texts; the list is not restricted to a specific discipline. That means that the words are useful for learners studying humanities, law, science or commerce. Academic vocabulary has sometimes been called sub-technical vocabulary because it does not contain technical words but rather formal vocabulary.

The importance of this vocabulary can be seen in the coverage it provides for various kinds of texts (Table 1.7).

Adding the academic vocabulary from the UWL to the high-frequency words changes the coverage of academic text from 78.1% to 86.6%. Expressed another way, with a vocabulary of 2,000 words, approximately one word in every five will be unknown. With a vocabulary of 2,000 words plus the *Academic Word List*, approximately

one word in every ten will be unknown. This is a very significant change. If, instead of learning the vocabulary of the *Academic Word List*, the learner had moved on to the third 1,000 most frequent words, instead of an additional 10% coverage there would only have been 4.3% extra coverage.

*What kinds of words do they contain?* The *Academic Word List* is in appendix 1. Much research remains to be done on this list to explain why the same group of words frequently occur across a very wide range of academic texts. Sometimes a few of them are closely related to the topic, but most probably occur because they allow academic writers to do the things that academic writers do. That is, they allow writers to refer to others' work (*assume, establish, indicate, conclude, maintain*); and they allow writers to work with data in academic ways (*analyse, assess, concept, definition, establish, categories, seek*). We consider this issue again in chapter 6.

Technical words contain a variety of types which range from words that do not usually occur in other subject areas (*cabotage, amortisation*) to those that are formally like high-frequency words but which have specialised meanings (*demand, supply, cost* as used in economics). Chapter 6 looks more fully at technical words.

*How large are they?* There has been no survey done of the size of technical vocabularies and little research on finding a consistently applied operational definition of what words are technical words. A rough guess from looking at dictionaries of technical vocabulary, such as those for geography, biology and applied linguistics, is that they each contain less than a thousand words.

*How can you make a special vocabulary?* The *Academic Word List* was made by deciding on the high-frequency words of English and then examining a range of academic texts to find what words were not among the high-frequency words but had wide range and reasonable frequency of occurrence. Range was important because academic vocabulary is intended for general academic purposes. Making a technical vocabulary is a little more problematic. One of the problem areas is that some technical vocabulary occurs in the high-frequency words and the *Academic Word List*. *Wall* in biology, and *price, cost, demand* in economics are all high-frequency words which have particular technical uses. Sutarsyah, Nation and Kennedy (1994) found that 33 content words made up over 10% of the running words of an economics text, but accounted for less than 1% of the running words in a similar sized set of mixed academic texts. One way of making a technical vocabulary is to compare the frequency of words in a specialised text with their frequency in a general corpus.

What should teachers and learners do about specialised vocabulary? Where possible, specialised vocabulary should be treated like high-frequency vocabulary. That is, it should be taught and studied in a variety of complementary ways. Where technical vocabulary is also high-frequency vocabulary, learners should be helped to see the connections and differences between the high-frequency meanings and the technical uses. For example, what is similar between a cell *wall* and other less specialised uses of *wall*? Where technical vocabulary requires specialist knowledge of the field, teachers should train learners in strategies which will help them understand and remember the words. Much technical vocabulary will only make sense in the context of learning the specialised subject matter. Learning the meaning of the technical term *morpheme* needs to be done as a part of the study of linguistics, not before the linguistics course begins.

### Low-frequency words

There is a very large group of words that occur very infrequently and cover only a small proportion of any text.

What kinds of words are they?

1. Some low-frequency words are words of moderate frequency that did not manage to get into the high-frequency list. It is important to remember that the boundary between high-frequency and low-frequency vocabulary is an arbitrary one. Any of several thousand low-frequency words could be candidates for inclusion within the high-frequency list simply because their position on a rank frequency list which takes account of range is dependent on the nature of the corpus the list is based on. A different corpus would lead to a different ranking particularly among words on the boundary. This, however, should not be seen as a justification for large amounts of teaching time being spent on low-frequency words at the third or fourth thousand word level. Here are some words that in the *Brown Corpus* fall just outside the high-frequency boundary: *curious*, *wing*, *arm* (vb), *gate*, *approximately*.
2. Many low-frequency words are proper names. Approximately 4% of the running words in the *Brown Corpus* are words like *Carl*, *Johnson* and *Ohio*. In some texts, such as novels and newspapers, proper nouns are like technical words – they are of high-frequency in particular texts but not in others, their meaning is closely related to the message of the text, and they could not be

- sensibly pre-taught because their use in the text reveals their meaning. Before you read a novel, you do not need to learn the characters' names.
3. 'One person's technical vocabulary is another person's low-frequency word.' This ancient vocabulary proverb makes the point that, beyond the high-frequency words of the language, people's vocabulary grows partly as a result of their jobs, interests and specialisations. The technical vocabulary of our personal interests is important to us. To others, however, it is not important and from their point of view is just a collection of low-frequency words.
  4. Some low-frequency words are simply low-frequency words. That is, they are words that almost every language user rarely uses, for example: *eponymous*, *gibbous*, *bifurcate*, *plummet*, *ploy*. They may represent a rarely expressed idea; they may be similar in meaning to a much more frequent word or phrase; they may be marked as being old-fashioned, very formal, belonging to a particular dialect, or vulgar, or they may be foreign words.

*How many low-frequency words are there and how many do learners need to know?* A critical issue in answering this question is to decide what will be counted as a word. For the purpose of providing a brief answer to the question of desirable vocabulary size, word families will be used as the unit of counting. Webster's *Third New International Dictionary* (Gove, 1963) contains 267,000 entries of which 113,161 can be counted as base words including base proper words, base compound words, and homographs with unrelated meanings (Goulden, Nation and Read, 1990: 351). Calculations from *The American Heritage Word Frequency Book* (Carroll, Davies and Richman, 1971) suggest that in printed school English there are 88,533 distinct word families (Nagy and Anderson, 1984: 315). Although not all these words need to be known to be a very successful language user, it is very important that learners continue to increase their vocabulary size. To read with minimal disturbance from unknown vocabulary, language users probably need a vocabulary of 15,000 to 20,000 words.

*How should teachers and learners deal with low-frequency vocabulary?* Teachers' and learners' aims differ with low-frequency vocabulary. The teacher's aim is to train learners in the use of strategies to deal with such vocabulary. These strategies include guessing from context clues, using word parts to help remember words, using vocabulary cards and dictionaries. When teachers spend time on low-frequency

the learner already knows *mend*, is negligible. One problem in forming lemmas is to decide what will be done with irregular forms such as *mice*, *is*, *brought*, *beaten* and *best*. The learning burden of these is clearly heavier than the learning burden of regular forms like *books*, *runs*, *talked*, *washed* and *fastest*. Should the irregular forms be counted as a part of the same lemma as their base word or should they be put into separate lemmas? Lemmas also separate closely related items such as the adjective and noun uses of words like *original*, and the noun and verb uses of words like *display*. An additional problem with lemmas is what is the headword – the base form or the most frequent form? (Sinclair, 1991: 41-42).

Using the lemma as the unit of counting greatly reduces the number of units in a corpus. Bauer and Nation (1993) calculate that the 61,805 tagged types (or 45,957 untagged types) in the *Brown Corpus* become 37,617 lemmas which is a reduction of almost 40% (or 18% for untagged types). Nagy and Anderson (1984) estimated that 19,105 of the 86,741 types in the Carroll, Davies and Richman (1971) corpus were regular inflections.

#### *Word families*

Lemmas are a step in the right direction when trying to represent learning burden in the counting of words. However, there are clearly other affixes which are used systematically and which greatly reduce the learning burden of derived words containing known base forms. These include affixes like *-ly*, *-ness* and *un-*. A word family consists of a headword, its inflected forms, and its closely related derived forms.

The major problem in counting using word families as the unit is to decide what should be included in a word family and what should not. Learners' knowledge of the prefixes and suffixes develops as they gain more experience of the language. What might be a sensible word family for one learner may be beyond another learner's present level of proficiency. This means that it is usually necessary to set up a scale of word families, starting with the most elementary and transparent members and moving on to less obvious possibilities.

#### **How many words do native speakers know?**

A less ambitious way of setting vocabulary learning goals is to look at what native speakers of the language know. Unfortunately, research on measuring vocabulary size has generally been poorly done (Nation, 1993c), and the results of the studies stretching back to the late nine-



# TEACHING AND LEARNING VOCABULARY

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increasingly larger role in literacy, than does the oral vocabulary.

*Productive vocabulary* is the set of words that an individual can use when writing or speaking. They are words that are well-known, familiar, and used frequently. Conversely, *receptive, or recognition, vocabulary* is that set of words for which an individual can assign meanings when listening or reading. These are words that are often less well known to students and less frequent in use. Individuals may be able assign some sort of meaning to them, even though they may not know the full subtleties of the distinction. Typically, these are also words that individuals do not use spontaneously. However, when individuals encounter these words, they recognize them, even if imperfectly.

In general, recognition or receptive vocabulary is larger than production vocabulary. And, as noted earlier, for beginning readers, oral vocabulary far outstrips print vocabulary. This is one of the determining factors in shaping beginning reading instruction. Beginning reading instruction is typically accomplished by teaching children a set of rules to decode printed words to speech. If the words are present in the child's oral vocabulary, comprehension should occur as the child decodes and monitors the oral representations. However, if the print vocabulary is more complex than the child's oral vocabulary, comprehension will *not* occur. That is, the process of decoding a word to speech does nothing more than change its representation from visual print to oral speech. If it is not in the child's vocabulary, it is simply an unusual collection of speech sounds. The details of this "theory" of vocabulary and reading instruction can be summarized in the following way: *Comprehension is a function of oral language and word recognition*. That is, comprehension of print is a result of the ability to decode and recognize words and oral language knowledge. There are two intermediate steps, though. The first is the link between decoding and oral language.

(Wibisono et al., 2021:421)

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### **Denotative and Connotative Meaning on Honne's Selected Songs Lyric for Literature Teaching**

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#### **Abstract.**

In literary work, denotative and connotative meaning will always side by side. Palmer defined that denotative meaning is the original or literal meaning of a word based on the dictionary. Connotation is part of word meaning which has an implicit meaning. This study aimed to identify denotative and connotative meaning found in Honne's selected songs lyric, to explain denotation and connotation in language, and to elaborate the contribution of the study to the literature teaching. The research design of this study was qualitative research. For collecting the data, the researcher analyzed Honne's selected songs such as location unknown, crying over you, Day one, I might, me & you, and 306. The researcher found that not all song lyrics contained both connotative and denotative meaning. In "Day One" song, the researcher found five words. In song entitled "Location Unknown", it found seven both words and group words. In song, "Crying Over You" the researcher found nine words and group words. The song entitled "I might"; it found four words. In song entitled "Me & You", it found six both words and group words. And in "306" song, the researcher found five words. Honne's songs mostly use denotative meaning than the connotative one. It is suitable to Palmer's theory the lyrics meaning can easily find in real-world experience. The denotative and comotative meaning realized in Honne's selected song lyrics can be used as the reference or alternative source learning to literature teaching. The researcher suggests that the students should learn more about meaning of words. It is not only denotative and connotative meaning but it can be broader. This study is also expected to give worthy contribution for the teacher to teach literature studies by using songs as media.

**Keywords:** denotative meaning, connotative meaning, Honne' song lyric, literature teaching

#### **Introduction**

Meaning plays an important role in communication. It functions for revealing something or some relations or ideas from the communicator to the hearer. Meaning always relates to word. Words are an important part of linguistic knowledge and constitute a component of our mental grammars, but one can learn thousands of words in a language and still not know the language. According to Palmer (2010), word has two types of meaning, namely denotative and connotative meaning. Palmer defined that denotative meaning is the original or literal meaning of a word based on the dictionary. Thus, denotative meaning is "dictionary" meaning. Furthermore, Cruse (2006) defines denotation as a meaning aspect in a linguistic

form which potentially uses as a basis to make a true statement about the world. However, sometimes denotation cannot be interpreted only by concerning the word, but the reader has to concern on the context as well. According to Chris (2001), connotation is part of word meaning which has an implicit meaning. For instance "Rainbow has seven colors.", in this sentence rainbow can be defined as an arc or circle that exhibits in concentric bands the colors of the spectrum and that is formed opposite the sun by the refraction and reflection of the sun's rays in raindrops, spray, or mist; a multicolored array (cited from: merriamwebster.com), however, it will have different meaning and interpretation in the sentence "You are such a rainbow which colors my life, sweetie."

Denotative and connotative meaning can be found in many works, one of them is in literary work such as poetry, song, drama script, short story, and novel. In literary work, denotative and connotative meaning will always side by side. They play a significant role in understanding an explicit and implicit meaning in a literary work. Denotative and connotative meaning in literary work especially in a song successfully catches researcher's attention. Everybody listens to the song almost every single day, and they will meet denotative and connotative meaning in it. In order to make the listeners enjoy the song, the composer will compose it with good lyrics. Lyrics can be one of composer's media to reveal his expression, critics, compliment, or everything to the listeners. It also can explain the song's meaning, but it will meet the hard time if the listeners just receive the basic ideas of song lyrics. Therefore, in this study the researcher conducted a research entitled "Denotative and Connotative Meaning on Honne's Selected Songs Lyric for Literature Teaching".

#### Literature Review

Semantics is one of linguistic studies which discuss about meaning in language (Hurford et al., 2007:1). In contrast to morphology or syntax, semantics does not discuss about grammar in language. It is also different from pragmatics which discusses meaning based on the context; semantics discuss all level in language; word, phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph, and discourse. This phenomenon is supported by Riemer (2010) that defining semantics as one of the richest and most fascinating parts of linguistics. The term of semantics was introduced in a paper read to the American Philological Association in 1894 entitled *Reflected meanings: a point in semantics* (Nilsen & Palmer, 1976). In linguistics history, there are other studies which also discuss about meaning namely semasiology, semology, semiotics, senemics, and semics. However, semantics is more often used in linguistics study because the other studies have wider objects. They do not only discuss about language in text but also in signs or symbols which are not in texts. Meanwhile, meanings which are discussed in semantics are referring to ideas or concepts. It can be transferred from the mind of the speaker to the mind of the hearer by embodying them in the forms of one language or another (Martin & Rose, 2007:26). The term concept helps to understand the meaning of meaning itself. People are normally interested in characterizing the conceptual meaning and less concerned with the associative meaning of the words.

Leech (1974:10) said that denotative meaning is called conceptual or cognitive meaning which is widely assumed to be the central factor in linguistic communication. Denotation is a definition of word, which is the literal meaning of word. Denotation is related with human awareness or cognition, and also is related to factual information or statements. Words which are not contained suggestive meaning or certain feelings are considered as denotative words,

## Decarrico (2001:286)



### Vocabulary Learning and Teaching

JEANETTE S. DECARRICO

"Vocabulary Learning and Teaching" focuses initially on current issues in teaching, i.e., deciding which items to teach and how to teach them on explicit and implicit learning and vocabulary learning strategies; and on the role of collocations. The other focus is recent corpus studies and their implications for analysis of multiword phrasal units and for new directions in vocabulary instruction.

**INTRODUCTION**

Vocabulary learning is central to language acquisition, whether the language is first, second, or foreign. Although vocabulary has not always been recognized as a priority in language teaching, interest in its role in second language (L2) learning has grown rapidly in recent years and specialists now emphasize the need for a systematic and principled approach to vocabulary by both the teacher and the learner. The increased interest in this topic is evidenced by a rapidly expanding body of experimental studies and pedagogical material, most of which addresses several key questions of particular interest for language teachers. For example, what does it mean to know a word? Which words do learners need to know? How will they learn them? These questions reflect the current focus on the needs of learners in acquiring lexical competence and on the role of the teacher in guiding them toward this goal.

**HISTORICAL OVERVIEW**

There is now general agreement among vocabulary specialists that lexical competence is at the very heart of communicative competence, the ability to communicate successfully and appropriately (Coady and Huckin 1997). Given the current focus on vocabulary study, many non-specialists might be surprised to learn that, in past years, this area of teaching was often neglected because it was thought that vocabulary

could simply be left to take care of itself. Although by the late 1970s and early 1980s more and more voices began to challenge this view (Judd 1978; Meara 1981; McCarthy 1984; Laufer 1986), in 1988, Carter and McCarthy were still taking note of the relative neglect of vocabulary in previous years. By then its reputation as the poor relation in language teaching was rapidly coming to an end.

The low status of vocabulary study and vocabulary teaching was in large part due to language teaching approaches based on American linguistic theories that had been dominant throughout the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s. Most influential in the early years was Charles Fries's *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (1945), based on American structural linguistics, which emphasized grammatical and phonological structure. Fries believed that grammar should be the starting point of language learning, and he also adopted the view, borrowed from behaviorist psychology, that learning was a matter of habit formation. His audiolingual method incorporated these ideas by paying systematic attention to intensive drills of basic sentence patterns and their pronunciation. Because the emphasis was on teaching grammatical and phonological structures, the vocabulary needed to be relatively simple, with new words introduced only as they were needed to make the drills possible (Larsen-Freeman 2000b; Zimmerman 1997). The assumption was that once students learned the structural frames, lexical items to fill the grammatical slots in the frames could be learned later, as needed.

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Although the shift to generative (transformational) linguistics in the 1960s brought about revolutionary changes in linguistic theory, triggered by Chomsky (1957), it did little to challenge the idea that the role of lexis was secondary to that of grammar. Chomsky rejected the behaviorist notion of habit formation and supplanted it with a rationalist framework, the central assumption being that language is represented as a speaker's mental grammar: a set of abstract rules for generating grammatical sentences. The rules generate the syntactic structure, and lexical items from appropriate grammatical categories (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) are selected to fill in the corresponding slots in the syntactic frame. The interests of generative linguistics centered mainly on rule-governed behavior and on the grammatical structure of sentences and did not include concerns for the appropriate use of language. Language learning approaches based on this theory viewed learning as rule acquisition, not habit formation, and emphasized grammatical rules. Vocabulary was afforded somewhat more importance, but the focus on rules of grammar still served to reinforce the idea that lexis was somewhat secondary (Carter and McCarthy 1988).

Hymes (1972), while not rejecting Chomsky's model, extended it and gave greater emphasis to the sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors governing effective use of language. Hymes was especially concerned with the concept of *communicative competence*, which emphasized using language for meaningful communication, including the appropriate use of language in particular social contexts (for example, informal conversation at the dinner table versus formal conversation at the bank, etc.). The teaching approach that evolved from these notions (see also Halliday 1973), referred to as communicative language teaching, promoted fluency over accuracy and consequently shifted the focus from sentence-level forms to discourse-level functions (e.g., requests, greetings, apologies, and so on). Once again, though, vocabulary was given secondary status, taught mainly as support for functional language use. As in previous approaches, it was generally assumed that vocabulary would take care of itself (Schmitt 2000).

This picture has changed dramatically within the last two decades. The challenge to the status

quo began in the late 1970s and early 1980s, and by the late 1980s and early 1990s, vocabulary studies were developing exponentially and vocabulary teaching was coming into its own. One reason for the resurgence of interest on the part of researchers was that computer-aided research was providing vast amounts of information that had not previously been available for analysis, such as information about how words behave in actual language use, larger units that function in discourse as single lexical items, and differences between written and spoken communication. Further, psycholinguistic studies were providing insights concerning mental processes involved in vocabulary learning, such as memory, storage, and retrieval. Interest in these issues led in turn to related studies concerned with developing more effective vocabulary teaching and learning strategies.

#### CURRENT ISSUES

A central debate emerging from these studies deals with whether effective vocabulary learning should focus on explicit or implicit learning. In the 1970s and 1980s, the communicative approach led naturally to a focus on implicit, incidental learning. Teachers encouraged students to recognize clues to word meanings in context and to use monolingual dictionaries rather than bilingual dictionaries, and textbooks emphasized inferring word meaning from context. Currently, however, while acknowledging that exposure to words in various contexts is extremely important to a deeper understanding of a word's meaning, most researchers recognize that providing incidental encounters with words is only one method of facilitating vocabulary acquisition, and that a well-structured vocabulary program needs a balanced approach that includes explicit teaching together with activities providing appropriate contexts for incidental learning.

#### Explicit Learning

In explicit vocabulary learning students engage in activities that focus attention on vocabulary. Sökmen (1997) highlights several key principles of explicit learning that can help guide teachers in deciding basic questions of what to teach and

## Alqahtani (2015:22)

### THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND HOW TO BE TAUGHT

MOFAREH ALQAHTANI

#### Abstract:

Vocabulary learning is an essential part in foreign language learning as the meanings of new words are very often emphasized, whether in books or in classrooms. It is also central to language teaching and is of paramount importance to a language learner. Recent research indicate that teaching vocabulary may be problematic because many teachers are not confident about best practice in vocabulary teaching and at times don't know where to begin to form an instructional emphasis on word learning (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008)

In this article, I summarize important research on the importance of vocabulary and explaining many techniques used by English teachers when teaching English, as well as my own personal view of these issues.

#### Keywords:

Vocabulary

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### Introduction

Vocabulary, as one of the knowledge areas in language, plays a great role for learners in acquiring a language (Cameron, 2001). Harmon, Wood, & Keser, (2009) as well as Linse (2005) state that learners' vocabulary development is an important aspect of their language development. Although it has been neglected for a long time, researchers have increasingly been turning their attention to vocabulary e.g. Carter and McCarthy (1988), Nation (1990), Arnaud and Bejoint (1992), Huckin, Haynes and Coady (1995), Coady and Huckin (1997), Schmitt (1997, 2000) Read (1997).

### Literature Review

#### The importance of learning vocabulary

Vocabulary knowledge is often viewed as a critical tool for second language learners because a limited vocabulary in a second language impedes successful communication. Underscoring the importance of vocabulary acquisition, Schmitt (2000) emphasizes that "lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language" p. 55)

Nation (2001) further describes the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and language use as complementary: knowledge of vocabulary enables language use and, conversely, language use leads to an increase in vocabulary knowledge.

The importance of vocabulary is demonstrated daily in and out of the school. In classroom, the achieving students possess the most sufficient vocabulary.

Researchers such as Laufer and Nation (1999), Maximo (2000), Read (2000), Gu (2003), Marion (2008) and Nation (2011) and others have realised that the acquisition of vocabulary is essential for successful second language use and plays an important role in the formation of complete spoken and written texts. In English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) learning vocabulary items plays a vital role in all language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) (Nation, 2011). Rivers and Nunan (1991), furthermore, argue that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful second language use because without an extensive vocabulary, we will be unable to use the structures and functions we may have learned for comprehensible communication.

Research has shown that second language readers rely heavily on vocabulary knowledge and the lack of that knowledge is the main and the largest obstacle for L2 readers to overcome (Huckin, 1995). In production, when we have a meaning or concept that we wish to express, we need to have a store of words from which we can select to express this meaning or concept. "When students travel, they don't carry grammar books, they carry dictionaries" (Krashen, as cited in Lewis, 1993, p.25). Many researchers argue that vocabulary is one of the most important-if not the most important- components in learning a foreign language, and foreign language curricula must reflect this. Wilkins (1972) states that: "There is not much value in being able to produce grammatical sentences if one has not got the vocabulary that is needed to convey what one wishes to say ... While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" p.97). Other

Tannenbaum et al., (2006:383)

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### Relationships Between Word Knowledge and Reading Comprehension in Third-Grade Children

Kendra R. Tannenbaum, Joseph K. Torgesen & Richard K. Wagner  
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## Relationships Between Word Knowledge and Reading Comprehension in Third-Grade Children

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The relationship between word knowledge and reading comprehension has been well documented in research; however, the nature of this relationship remains unclear. Researchers usually distinguish between 2 aspects of an individual's word knowledge: breadth and depth. In addition to these 2 factors, it may be important to also consider fluency in the study of word knowledge. Two hundred and three 3rd-grade students took part in a study that examined the relationships between 3 dimensions of word knowledge and reading comprehension. Confirmatory factor analyses, structural equation modeling, and hierarchical regression analyses show that a 2-factor model of breadth and depth/fluency provides the best fit to the data. Breadth has a stronger relationship to reading comprehension than does depth/fluency; however, the 2 dimensions of word knowledge have significant overlapping variance that contributes to the prediction of reading comprehension.

One of the most important skills learned by young students is the ability to understand written text, which is usually referred to as reading comprehension. Comprehension of the information in text, or of the author's meaning, is the ultimate reason for reading. To comprehend larger units of text such as paragraphs and stories, a child must understand the smaller word units (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000). The relationship between word knowledge and

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quency likely affects both knowledge of a word's meaning and how accurately the word is read in text. In other words, the reduction in comprehension that resulted from replacement of high-frequency words with low-frequency synonyms could be due to the words being read less well because they are encountered less in print.

Additional experimental evidence for the relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension is available from studies that taught word meanings to children to enhance comprehension of text. Some of these experiments have used methods to enhance word knowledge that have had an impact on both word knowledge and comprehension (Beck, McCaslin, & McKeown, 1980; Beck & McKeown, 1983), whereas others have produced impacts on word knowledge but only marginal effects on comprehension (Jenkins, Pany, & Schreck, 1978, Experiment 3; Pany & Jenkins, 1977; Tuinman & Brady, 1974).

Beck and her colleagues hypothesized that for vocabulary instruction to affect reading comprehension, the instruction must go beyond establishing a definition for a word; it must develop complex, in-depth knowledge about the words being taught. Good vocabulary instruction therefore provides contextual information in addition to definitional information about a word. A child needs to develop knowledge of the core concept of the word and how the word is used in different contexts to develop flexible knowledge about a word that contributes to reading comprehension. In addition, instruction should provide multiple, varied encounters with the words being taught. Multiple repetitions help improve the speed of accessing the word's meaning (Beck et al., 2002). Studies that provided this rich vocabulary instruction showed gains in both accuracy of word knowledge and comprehension of text containing the taught words (Beck & McKeown, 1983; McKeown, Beck, Omanson, & Perfetti, 1983).

Researchers usually distinguish between two aspects of an individual's vocabulary knowledge: breadth and depth. *Breadth* of vocabulary refers to the size of the mental lexicon and is the number of words that have some level of meaning to the individual. However, breadth does not specifically address how well each of these words is known. It is a dimension defined by how many words have meaning for the individual (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). *Depth* refers to the richness of knowledge that the individual possesses about the words that are known. Depth is not an all-or-none concept. At the most basic level, a word can be recognized but not well defined. As more depth is acquired, this word can be defined in greater detail. Finally, relations can be made between the word and other words, multiple meanings of a word can be learned, and the word can be used in different contexts. As depth of word knowledge increases, words can be used more flexibly, and their meaning can be readily appreciated and accessed within multiple contexts (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Beck et al., 2002; Stahl, 1998). In one study, artificial words were taught to college students either in a single context or varied contexts. Students who received instruction in varied contexts were significantly better at understanding the word overall and understanding the word in novel contexts (Nitsch, 1978).

Sadeghi et al., (2021:3)



## Research article

## The washback effect of TOEFL iBT and a local English Proficiency Exam on students' motivation, autonomy and language learning strategies



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## ABSTRACT

This study aimed to investigate the washback effect of two high stakes tests, a global language proficiency test (i.e., TOEFL iBT) and a local English Proficiency Exam (developed and administered by a state university) on students' motivation and their autonomy. The study also examined whether proficiency level moderated the potential washback effect among the two groups of test takers. Additionally, the study tried to find out the language learning strategies used by both groups and explore the reasons behind their preferences. The study was conducted with two English language preparatory programs offered at a state university in Turkey: University Preparatory Program (UPP) and Dual Degree Program (DDP). At the end of the UPP program, the students are required to take the university's proficiency test while as for the UPP, they need to take a valid TOEFL iBT. Data were collected from 152 preparatory students (N = 65 for DDP; N = 87 for UPP) whose proficiency levels were based on the CEFR Framework ranging from A2 (upper elementary) to B1 (pre-intermediate) to B2 (intermediate). In addition to the above proficiency tests, data were gathered via motivation questionnaire, autonomous learning scale and student interviews. The results revealed no washback of TOEFL iBT exam on students' motivation regardless of their proficiency level. No washback was also observed on students' autonomy except for A2 level DDP students who had higher level of autonomy than the A2 level UPP students. Finally, the two groups used more similar than different language learning strategies while practicing the four language skills. The findings afford pedagogical implications for the use of high-stakes tests in English preparatory programs.

## 1. Introduction

Having a long history, testing dates back to the Chinese Imperial examinations as it was the first state-wide attempt for a centrally controlled exam (Spolsky, 2017). In the education context, tests have a crucial role because of their potential impact on learners' achievement when exposed to specific teaching programs. Whether testing is done with or without explicit purposes, its impact on teaching/learning and learners is undeniable. Therefore, various changes could be observed in teaching and learning processes and products regardless of the primary aims of test designers because of the complicated relationship between the different forces inside and outside of the school (Cheng and Curtis, 2004).

The washback hypothesis, proposed by Alderson and Wall (1992), assumes that "teachers and learners do things they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test" (p. 6). The researchers argued that washback could not be considered the same with the influence of tests on

teaching and learning because what happens in the classroom are not the things only caused by the test itself. They made distinction between test impact and washback, with the former being a broader area, which constitutes a crucial place to figure out what actually happens in the classroom. To be more precise, washback was thought to be one aspect of impact by language examiners (Tsagari, 2007). Recently, Alderson (2004) stated that washback was such a complex issue that it was a lot more than the negative consequences of tests; however, there was no hesitation about the existence of washback. Similarly, Watanabe (2004) emphasised the dimensions of washback as, specificity, intensity, length, intentionality, and value indicated that washback could be caused by any test or type of test or a specific characteristic of a test.

Given the fact that there are many issues related to washback, it is not surprising that each test's impact will be different from that of the others. The main feature that may change the outcomes of a test is its stakes. High-stakes tests are considered to have more substantial effects compared to those with lower stakes (Menken et al., 2017). Although the

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because self-motivation is influential for autonomous learning. When learners start finding the grounds for their language learning and specify their objectives, it will raise their level of self-motivation. Given that motivation and autonomy are closely connected, and the standing of autonomous learning in proficiency development, autonomy was another variable explored in this study.

#### 2.4. Washback and language learning strategies

Strategy was referred by Oxford and Crookall (1989) as "learning techniques, behaviors, or actions; or learning to learn, problem solving or study skills" (p. 404). Similarly, strategy has been described as "a conscious technique used by a learner purposely to assist the language learning process" (Grainiger, 2005, p.328). Analyzing different descriptions of this term, Purpera (1999) highlighted four concerns in defining strategy: the precise nature of the behaviors that makes a strategy, the issue of observability, the issue of intentionality, and the directness of the learning or performance.

Early focus of strategy use has emphasized its importance in the process of learning. According to Woolfolk (1998), learning strategy is "a plan implemented to achieve the learning objectives" (p. 78). Similarly, learning strategies have been defined as "the processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language" (Cohen, 1998, p. 4) which facilitates the "process of self-learning for the student" (Ozer, 2002, p. 17). In short, the better the language learners are, the more strategic they are compared to their less effective counterparts (Chamot, 1998). Therefore, when learners are equipped with the necessary strategies, they have greater potential to achieve success in language tests.

Cohen and Weaver (2006) classified the use of strategies depending on the language skills favored by the learner such as productive (writing and speaking) or receptive (reading and listening). Nonetheless, general skill-related strategies as vocabulary, grammar, or translation strategies are also employed across different skills. In addition, the use learning strategies can be dependent on the learner's goal as well.

Considering the stages in test preparation, Ellis (2010) emphasized two influential categories, learner and social/situational factors suggesting that age, motivation, learning style, gender, task type, etc. could be factors affecting the strategies being used. As highlighted in previous studies, language learning strategy use correlates with learners' language proficiency supporting the fact that more strategic learners are more successful than less strategic ones (Andersen, 2005; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006; Park, 2010). Therefore, using specific learning strategies for test preparation may be considered as an immediate and accurate indicator of students' language performance which is another focus of this study.

#### 3. Recent research on washback

Many scholars have highlighted the importance of washback of institutional, national or international standardized tests on students or teachers (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Barnes, 2010, 2016; Fox and Cheng 2013; Reynolds, 2010). However, TOEFL IBT has not been a popular topic for washback studies. The few existing TOEFL washback studies took different directions as they observed its washback on students (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Barnes, 2010; Reynolds 2010; Fox and Cheng, 2015), on teachers (Barnes, 2016; Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996) or on the program (Barnes, 2016; Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996). In addition, researchers examined the washback of different high-stakes exams and reached similar results in terms of the washback observed in the classroom practices (Gennaro, 2017; Stoseman, 2006; Tsagari, 2011). Similarly, washback studies were also carried out in Turkey both on high school students and lower grades (Kılıçkaya, 2016; Sayın and Aşlan, 2016) and on university level students and academics (Alan, 2016; Akpınar & Çakıldere, 2013; Büyükkalep, 2016;

Hatipoğlu, 2016; Karataş & Okan, 2019; Kılıçkaya, 2016; Ömen, 2011; Polat, 2015; Sağlam & Farhady, 2019; Yıldırım, 2010).

Washback may be explained in terms of affective factors in language learning like motivation, self-confidence, learner identity or anxiety (Booth, 2018, p.58). Related literature has revealed the existence of washback of high stakes tests (as student motivation increased) particularly for higher proficiency level students (Büyükkalep, 2016; Pan, 2014; Pan and Newfields, 2013; Reynolds, 2010). Similarly, learner autonomy has been found to be related to the level of self-motivation (Bilal, 2017). As highlighted in Pan's (2014) study, language learning autonomy was directly affected by the test itself.

Test takers' preparation strategies for TOEFL IBT were also investigated by some researchers (Liu, 2014; Noviani and Anji, 2020). While some studies on different high stakes tests like GMATE (General Multimedia Assisted Test of English) showed a washback on the students' preparation practices (Gennaro, 2017), others did not find any washback on skill practices of students who needed to take GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) and TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) (Pan, 2014) or observed a modest change in their test preparation practices for a proficiency test (Pan and Newfields, 2013). On the other hand, a negative washback was reported by Sağlam and Farhady (2019) who looked into the potential washback effect of the University English Language Proficiency Test prepared locally by a Turkish university. The results showed that the practiced learning strategies focused more on the skills tested in the exam.

In brief, although extensive research has been carried out on washback effect of different exams, comparative studies between local and international high stakes tests are still scarce. To meet these objectives, the following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Is there any difference in the motivation level of the DDP and UPP students across different proficiency levels?
2. Is there any difference in the learning autonomy level of the DDP and UPP students across different proficiency levels?
3. What are the perceptions of the two groups about the language learning strategies they use across different proficiency levels?

#### 4. Methodology

High-stakes tests are described as the tests "whose results are seen - rightly or wrongly - by students, teachers, administrators, parents, or the general public, as being used to make important decisions that immediately and directly affect them" (Madans, 1988, p. 7). Having this much of a power, high-stakes tests have serious impacts on test takers and the education program (Alderson and Wall, 1992; Shohamy, 2017). In this study, the global TOEFL IBT and the local English Proficiency Exam were both considered as high-stakes tests as both are used as proofs of language proficiency to allow students to continue their undergraduate studies.

In this study, an exploratory sequential mixed method design was used to explore the washback effect of TOEFL IBT and the English Proficiency Exam on test-takers' motivation, learner autonomy and test-preparation strategies. In a mixed method research "the researcher mixes (or integrates or links) the two forms of data concurrently by combining them (or merging them), sequentially by having one built on the other, or embedding one within the other" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 5). Therefore, in this study, the quantitative data were complemented using qualitative evidence to provide deeper understanding of the findings.

#### 4.1. Setting and participants

This research was approved by Bahcesehir University review board. The study was conducted in an English Language Preparatory School running two different preparatory programs namely, University Preparatory Program (UPP) and Dual Degree Program (DDP). The program

August et al., (2005:53)

## Vocabulary Knowledge

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Our aim in this paper is to summarize what is known about the role of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension. Though word identification skills are important in reading, this paper is concerned exclusively with *knowledge of word meanings*. An assessment of the number of meanings a reader knows enables a remarkably accurate prediction of this individual's ability to comprehend discourse. Why this is true is poorly understood. Determining why is important because what should be done to build vocabulary knowledge depends on why it relates so strongly to reading. The deeper reasons why word knowledge correlates with comprehension cannot be determined satisfactorily without improved methods of estimating the size of people's vocabularies. Improved assessment methods hinge, in turn, on thoughtful answers to such questions as what is a word, what does it mean to know the meaning of a word, and what is the most efficient way of estimating vocabulary size from an individual's performance on a sample of words.

### Vocabulary Knowledge and Linguistic Ability

Measures of vocabulary knowledge are potent predictors of a variety of indices of linguistic ability. The strong relationship between vocabulary and general intelligence is one of the most robust findings in the history of intelligence testing. Terman (1918), for instance, reported a correlation of .91 between mental

## The Critical Role of Vocabulary Development for English Language Learners

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English language learners (ELLs) who experience slow vocabulary development are less able to comprehend text at grade level than their English-only peers. Such students are likely to perform poorly on assessments in these areas and are at risk of being diagnosed as learning disabled. In this article, we review the research on methods to develop the vocabulary knowledge of ELLs and present lessons learned from the research concerning effective instructional practices for ELLs. The review suggests that several strategies are especially valuable for ELLs, including: taking advantage of students' first language if the language shares cognates with English; ensuring that ELLs know the meaning of basic words, and providing sufficient review and reinforcement. Finally, we discuss challenges in designing effective vocabulary instruction for ELLs. Important issues are determining which words to teach, taking into account the large deficits in second-language vocabulary of ELLs, and working with the limited time that is typically available for direct instruction in vocabulary.

This article highlights the need for sustained attention to the vocabulary development of English language learners (ELLs), reviews the research on means to develop the vocabulary knowledge of ELLs, presents lessons learned from the research, and describes several important issues that should be considered in the development of practices to build vocabulary knowledge in this group of students.

Past models of reading considered vocabulary knowledge an important source of variation in reading comprehension, particularly as it affects higher-level language processes such as grammatical processing, construction of schemata, and text models (Adams & Collins, 1977; Chall, 1987). Skilled readers can tolerate a small proportion of unknown words in a text without disruption of comprehension and can even infer the meanings of those words from sufficiently rich contexts. However, if the proportion of unknown words is too high, comprehension is disrupted (Carver, 1994). More recently, vocabulary has taken a more central role in models of reading as research uncovers its influence on earlier reading and reading-related skills including phonological, orthographic, and morphosyntactic processes (Anglin, 1993; Carlisle & Nomadhy, 1993; Muter & Dethlefsen, 2001; Verhallen & Schoonen, 1993; Wang & Geva, 2003).

National data confirm that there are large and persistent gaps between the reading performance of language-minority and English-only (EO) children. Fourth-grade performance on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)

reading test shows a 22-29 point scale score advantage for children living in homes where a language other than English was never used compared with children who lived in homes where a language other than English was always used (National Center for Education Statistics, 2003).

ELLs who experience slow vocabulary development are less able to comprehend text at grade level than their EO peers, and they may be at risk of being diagnosed as learning disabled, when in fact their limitation is due to limited English vocabulary and poor comprehension that results in part from this limitation. A recent report funded by the U.S. Department of Education underscores this possibility (Development Associates, 2003). The report refers to a large city school district where:

the key issues faced in identification of Special Education LEP students is the shortage of credentialed personnel. In particular, there is a shortage of bilingual special educators and bilingual school psychologists who can participate in the assessment process. Early identification of students is especially problematic in the district since teachers often do not have the expertise to distinguish a learning problem from a delay in acquiring English language skills (p. 32).

The report also indicates that in most school districts, achievement and content area tests (83.8 percent of school districts sampled) or oral proficiency tests in English (73 percent of districts) were used as one source of information for assigning services to special education LEP students. Of the 11 sources of information used to make decisions about instructional services, six sources directly assessed English

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The former group also outperformed the pronunciation and memorization group on text recall. This study shows that active processing of word meanings leads to greater recall and understanding of word meanings, but it was only a brief learning trial using one list of words, so its long-term implications cannot be assessed.

Another vocabulary study with ELLs examined the effectiveness of procedures for presenting words to first-grade Spanish dominant students (Vaughn-Shavuo, 1990). In this doctoral dissertation, children were randomly assigned to two groups. Both groups received vocabulary instruction during a 30-minute daily English as a Second Language (ESL) class. One group worked on learning words that were presented in individual sentence contexts. The other group worked on words presented in meaningful narratives, dictated their own sentences using the target words, and examined picture cards that illustrated the word meanings. During 3 weeks of instruction, 31 words were presented to each group. By the end of the training, the latter group, whose instruction was more elaborated than the first group, showed better ability to use the English vocabulary than did the control group (21 words learned vs. 9).

Carlo et al. (2004) developed, implemented, and evaluated an intervention designed to build breadth and depth of word knowledge and reading comprehension in 254 bilingual and monolingual children from nine fifth-grade classrooms in four schools in California, Virginia, and Massachusetts. The intervention, which consisted of 15 weeks of instruction, was organized around the topic of immigration; the curriculum relied on a variety of text genres including newspaper articles, diaries, firsthand documentation of the immigrant experience, historical accounts, and fiction. Instruction was delivered for 30-45 minutes 4 days a week. Every fifth week was devoted to review of the previous 4 weeks' target words. Students' classroom teachers were trained by the researchers to deliver the instruction. In accordance with research indicating words are best learned from rich semantic contexts, target vocabulary words were selected from brief, engaging reading passages. A relatively small number of vocabulary items were introduced each week (12); the words were those that students at this level were likely to encounter repeatedly across texts in different domains. Although there were relatively few words introduced each week, activities helped children make semantic links to other words and concepts and thus attain a deeper and richer understanding of a word's meaning as well as learn other words and concepts related to the target word. In keeping with research-based best practice previously cited, the lessons also taught students to infer meanings from context and to use roots, affixes, cognates, morphological relationships, and comprehension monitoring.

Although there were no treatment gains on the PPVT, the ELLs improved on several measures of vocabulary and comprehension. Students did better in generating sentences that conveyed different meanings of multimeaning words, in completing cloze passages, in tests of knowledge of word meanings, and on measures of word association and morphological knowledge. On a cloze test, used to evaluate comprehension, students showed significant improvement, but the impact on comprehension was much lower than on word learning. It is clear from these results that this multifaceted training led to improved knowledge of the words studied.

A recent study to develop breadth and depth of vocabulary in ELLs involved 293 Spanish-dominant limited English proficient third-grade students enrolled in eight elementary schools in two school districts in El Paso, Texas (Caldern et al., in press). Both the experimental and control students had been instructed in Spanish for reading, language arts, and content areas since kindergarten. The students had been identified by their schools as "ready to begin their transition into English." Over the course of approximately 23 weeks, vocabulary was taught as one component of a 90-minute reading block. It was taught in two contexts—through decodable books and through children's literature. To build word knowledge through decodable texts, DVDs were used to preview the vocabulary. The DVDs contained skits that illustrated key vocabulary that appeared in the decodable books. In addition, 30 minutes per day of oral language activities revolved around grade-level children's literature.

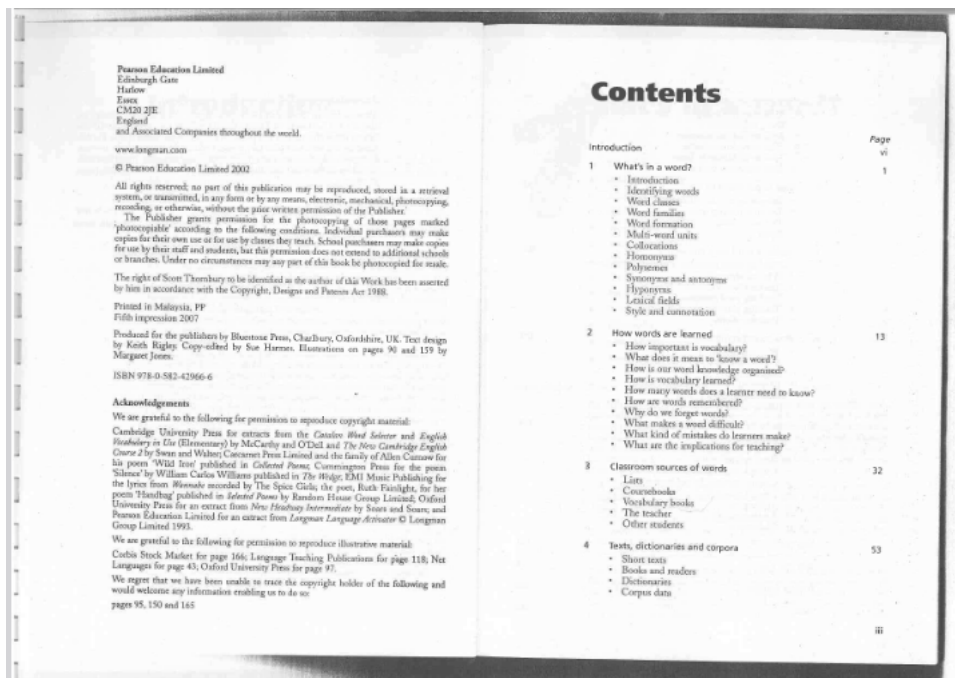
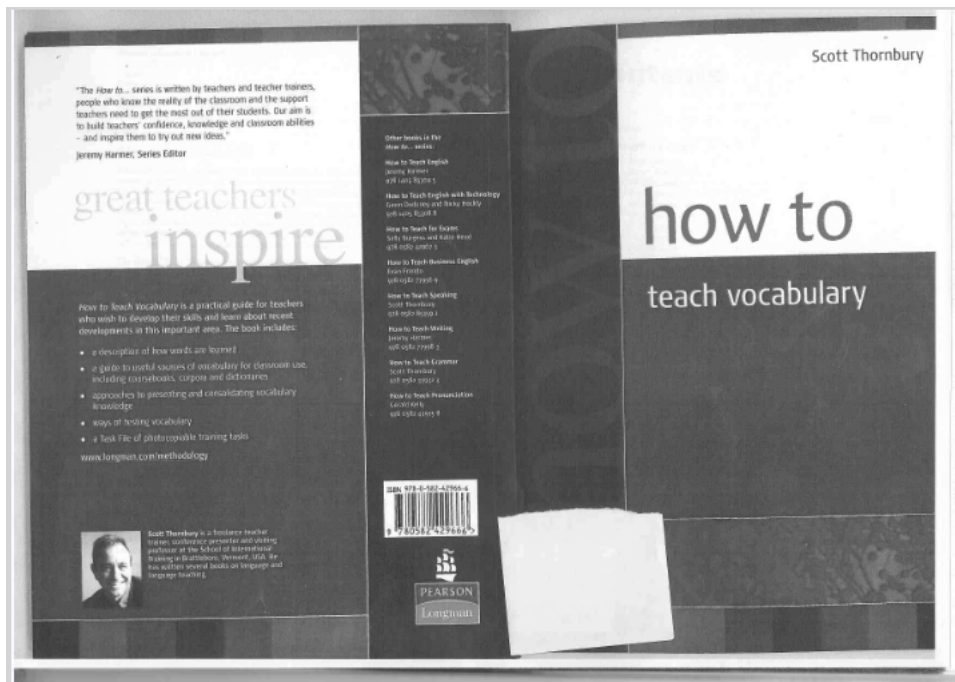
This second venue provided the primary method for building children's vocabulary knowledge. Teachers pretaught vocabulary, developed vocabulary through reading and discussing each book, and reinforced vocabulary through oral language activities that occurred after the story had been read. Children in the control group participated in Reader's and Writer's Workshops. The Reader's Workshop was a daily forum for focused attention to reading. In guided reading, shared reading, and independent reading, students worked with their teacher and with other students to hone their decoding skills, increase their fluency, and monitor their comprehension. In book discussion and activities to build vocabulary and enrich their comprehension, students improved their understanding of texts, learned to make inferences and connections about texts, and became more competent and confident readers. The Writer's Workshop set the stage for teaching and learning about writing. The workshop format established a daily time block focused on writing. The emphasis was on the writing process, which mimicked the stages of writing that expert writers use: from generating ideas to getting thoughts down on paper or on the computer, from drafting to soliciting and incorporating comments, and from revising to polishing for clarity and correctness. The writing process culminated when students published and presented finished pieces to their classmates.

Children in both conditions were pretested in the fall and posttested in the spring using four subtests of the Woodcock Language Proficiency Battery-Revised (WLPBR; Woodcock, 1991) in both Spanish and English: picture vocabulary, letter-word identification, word attack, and passage comprehension. After adjusting for the initial pretest difference, the experimental group outperformed the control group on three of the four measures: word attack with an effect size of +0.21, passage comprehension with an effect size of +0.16, and picture vocabulary with an effect size of +0.11.<sup>1</sup>

### LESSONS LEARNED FROM THE RESEARCH

This section describes lessons learned from the research that might be useful in developing future interventions to build the vocabulary of ELLs. It is important to keep in mind that each intervention discussed in the previous section consisted

Thornbury (2002:27-28)





- **Affective depth:** Related to the preceding point, affective (i.e. emotional) information is stored along with cognitive (i.e. intellectual) data, and may play an equally important role on how words are stored and recalled. Just as it is important for learners to make cognitive judgements about words, it may also be important to make affective judgements, such as *Do I like the sound and look of the word? Do I like the thing that the word represents? Does the word evoke any pleasant or unpleasant associations?* In this vein, Christopher Isherwood, continuing his discussion about *table* and *Tisch* (see page 19), makes the point that 'the difference between a table and ein Tisch was that a table was the dining-table in his mother's house and ein Tisch was ein Tisch in the Cosy Corner [a low-life bar in Berlin]'.

Similarly, the reforming educationalist Sylvia Ashton-Warner, who taught reading and writing skills to underprivileged children in New Zealand in the 1960s, used the affective value of words as the basis of what she called her 'key vocabulary' approach. Her primary school children chose the words they wanted to learn. These often had a strong emotional charge, such as *Mummy, Daddy, kiss, frightened, ghost*. In teaching early literacy one of Ashton-Warner's basic principles was that 'First words must be made of the stuff of the child himself, whatever and wherever the child' (from Ashton-Warner S, *Teacher, Virago*).

#### Why do we forget words?

Even with the best will in the world, students forget words. As a rule, forgetting is rapid at first, but gradually slows down. This is true in both the short term (e.g. from lesson to lesson) and in the long term (e.g. after a whole course). It has been estimated that up to 80 per cent of material is lost within 24 hours of initial learning, but that then the rate of forgetting levels out. And a study of learners' retention of a foreign language (Spanish) over an extended period showed that – in the absence of opportunities to use the language – rapid forgetting occurred in the first three or four years after instruction, but then levelled out, with very little further loss, even up to 50 years later. Two factors seemed to determine retention. First, those words that were easy to learn were better retained. (See the following section for a discussion of what makes a word easy or difficult to learn.) Secondly, those words that were learned over spaced learning sessions were retained better than words that were learned in concentrated bursts – consistent with the principle of distributed practice (see page 24).

Forgetting may be caused both by interference from subsequent learning and by insufficient recycling. With regard to interference, most teachers will be familiar with the symptoms of 'overload', when the price for learning new language items is the forgetting of old ones. This seems to be particularly acute if words are taught that are very similar to recently acquired words. The new words have the effect of 'overwriting' the previously learned material. This is an argument *against* teaching words in lexical sets where words have very similar meanings (see Chapter 3).

More important, perhaps, as a remedy against forgetting, is **recycling**. Research shows that spaced review of learned material can dramatically reduce the rate of forgetting. But it's not enough simply to repeat words, or

to re-encounter them in their original contexts. Much better is to recycle them in different ways, and, ideally, at successive levels of depth. Research suggests that if learners see or use a word in a way different from the way they first met it, then better learning is achieved. For example, study this sentence (in Maori), and its translation:

E Hōhepa e tangi, kāti ra te tangi!  
(Joseph, you are crying, but you have cried enough!)  
(from *The Penguin Book of New Zealand Verse*)

Even if you can't make much sense of the grammar, the novel encounter with *tangi*, in its sense of 'crying', is further reinforcement of *tangi* = funeral.

#### What makes a word difficult?

Anyone who has learned a second language will know that some words seem easier to learn than others. Easiest of all are those that are more or less identical, both in meaning and form, to their L1 equivalents. When this is due to the fact that they derive from a common origin, they are called **cognates**. Thus Catalan *vocabulari*, French *vocabulaire*, Italian *vocabolario* and English *vocabulary* are all cognates and hence relatively easily transferable from one language to the other. The global spread of English has also meant that many English words have been borrowed by other languages. Examples of such **loan words** in Japanese are *shampoo* (shampoo), *shoppingu* (shopping), and *sunakku* (snack). Cognates and loan words provide a useful 'way in' to the vocabulary of English, and are worth exploiting (see page 35). However, as we have seen, there are a number of traps for new players, in the form of **false friends**. Knowing that *actually* and *aktualnie* are false friends may make the learning of *actually* difficult for a Polish speaker (or a French or Spanish speaker, for that matter), since they may tend to avoid using it altogether.

Other factors that make some words more difficult than others are:

- **Pronunciation:** Research shows that words that are difficult to pronounce are more difficult to learn. Potentially difficult words will typically be those that contain sounds that are unfamiliar to some groups of learners – such as *regular* and *lorry* for Japanese speakers. Many learners find that words with clusters of consonants, such as *strength* or *crisps* or *breakfast*, are also problematic.
- **Spelling:** Sound-spelling mismatches are likely to be the cause of errors, either of pronunciation or of spelling, and can contribute to a word's difficulty. While most English spelling is fairly law-abiding, there are also some glaring irregularities. Words that contain silent letters are particularly problematic: *foreign, listen, beadache, dimbing, bored, honest, cupboard, muscle*, etc.
- **Length and complexity:** Long words seem to be no more difficult to learn than short ones. But, as a rule of thumb, high frequency words tend to be short in English, and therefore the learner is likely to meet them more often, a factor favouring their 'learnability'. Also, variable stress in

polysyllabic words – such as in word families like *necessary, necessity* and *necessarily* – can add to their difficulty.

- **Grammar:** Also problematic is the grammar associated with the word, especially if this differs from that of its L1 equivalent. Spanish learners of English, for example, tend to assume that *explain* follows the same pattern as both Spanish *explicar* and English *tell*, and say *he explained me the lesson*. Remembering whether a verb like *enjoy, love, or hope* is followed by an infinitive (*to swim*) or an *-ing* form (*swimming*) can add to its difficulty. And the grammar of phrasal verbs is particularly troublesome: some phrasal verbs are separable (*she looked the word up*) but others are not (*she looked after the children*).
- **Meaning:** When two words overlap in meaning, learners are likely to confuse them. *Make* and *do* are a case in point: *you make breakfast and make an appointment*, but *you do the housework and do a questionnaire*. Words with multiple meanings, such as *since* and *still*, can also be troublesome for learners. Having learned one meaning of the word, they may be reluctant to accept a second, totally different, meaning. Unfamiliar concepts may make a word difficult to learn. Thus, culture-specific items such as words and expressions associated with the game cricket (*a sticky wicket, a hat trick, a good innings*) will seem fairly opaque to most learners and are unlikely to be easily learned.
- **Range, connotation and idiomaticity:** Words that can be used in a wide range of contexts will generally be perceived as easier than their synonyms with a narrower range. Thus *put* is a very wide-ranging verb, compared to *impose, place, position*, etc. Likewise, *skin* is a safer bet than *skinny, slim, slender*. Words that have style constraints, such as very informal words (*chuck for throw, swap for exchange*), may cause problems. Uncertainty as to the connotations of some words may cause problems too. Thus, *propaganda* has negative connotations in English, but its equivalent may simply mean *publicity*. On the other hand, *eccentric* does not have negative connotations in English, but its nearest equivalent in other languages may mean *deviant*. Finally, words or expressions that are idiomatic (like *make up your mind, keep an eye on ...*) will generally be more difficult than words whose meaning is transparent (*decide, watch*). It is their idiomaticity, as well as their syntactic complexity, that makes phrasal verbs so difficult.

#### What kind of mistakes do learners make?

Given the kinds of difficulty outlined above, it is not surprising that learners make mistakes with words. In fact, the researcher Paul Mears estimates that lexical errors outnumber other types of error by more than three to one. Here is a sample of lexical errors (underlined):

- 1 I hope after biggining English studying I shill not have a free time at all.
- 2 I'd like to spend a couple of week somewhere on a peopleless island.
- 3 I like watching flowers and inhaling their lovely smell.

All lexical errors are instances of a wrong choice of form – whether a spelling error (e.g. *biggining, shill*), or a suffix error (*peopleless*), or the wrong word altogether (*hope, watching, inhaling*). However, for convenience we can categorise errors into two major types:

- form-related
- meaning-related

**Form-related** errors include **mis-selections, misformations, and spelling and pronunciation errors**. A mis-selection is when an existing word form is selected that is similar in sound or spelling to the correct form – the equivalent to a native speaker's malapropism (see page 16). For example: *My girlfriend was very hungry with me (for angry)*. Or, *He persuaded me to have a noise operation (for nose)*.

Misformations often result from misapplying word formation rules (see page 5), producing non-existent words, as in a *peopleless island*, or his *hopeness of peace*. Sometimes these misformations will show a clear influence from the learner's mother tongue, as in *the people looked emocionated* – from the Spanish *emocionado* (excited). Whole words may be combined wrongly to form non-existent combinations: *Most of time I just watch shops' window (for go window-shopping)*. Idioms and fixed expressions are vulnerable to this kind of mix up: *A strike could kill the gold eggs goose and cause the ruin of a country*.

Spelling mistakes result from the wrong choice of letter (*shill for shall*), the omission of letters (*studying for studying*), or the wrong order of letters (*litted for little*). Pronunciation errors may result from the wrong choice of sound (*leave for live*), addition of sounds (*school for school*), omission of sounds (*poduk for product*) or misplaced word stress (*comFORTable for comfortable*).

**Meaning-related** errors typically occur when words that have similar or related meanings are confused and the wrong choice is made: *Thus: I hope ... I shill not have a free time (instead of I expect ...)*. And *I like watching flowers and inhaling their lovely smell*. While *watching* belongs to the set of verbs related to seeing it is inappropriate for relatively static objects like flowers. Similarly, *inhaling* tends to be used for smoke or gas, and not smell. That is to say, *inhaling* doesn't collocate with *smell*. Many 'wrong word' mistakes are in fact wrong collocations. For example: *I have fifteen years experience as a particular professor (rather than a private teacher)*.

Meaning-related wrong-choice errors may derive from the learner's L1, where the meaning of an L1 word may not exactly match its L2 equivalent. A common example made by Spanish speakers is: *I'm live with my fathers in Mexico city*. In Spanish, the plural of *padre* (father) means *parents*.

Learners may also be unaware of the different **connotations** of related words, causing wrong-choice errors such as: *I have chosen to describe Stephen Hawking, a notorious scientific of our century*. Wrong choice may result in clashing styles, as in this letter by a Japanese student to the accommodation bureau at my place of work:



Megawati (2014:25)

PENGUNAAN METODE DRILL UNTUK MENINGKATKAN  
KEMAMPUAN MEMBACA  
MATA PELAJARAN BAHASA INDONESIA SISWA KELAS II  
DI MI MUHAMMADIYAH DANUREJO MAGELANG  
TAHUN PELAJARAN 2013/2014



SKRIPSI  
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Universitas Islam Negeri Sunan Kalijaga Yogyakarta  
untuk Memenuhi Sebagian Syarat Memperoleh  
Gelar Sarjana Strata Satu Pendidikan Islam

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UNIVERSITAS ISLAM NEGERI SUNAN KALIJAGA  
YOGYAKARTA  
2014

d. Tujuan Teknik Mengajar Metode *drill*

- 1) Memiliki ketrampilan motoris/gerak, seperti menghafalkan kata-kata, menulis, mempergunakan alat pembuat suatu benda, melaksanakan gerak dalam olahraga.
- 2) Mengembangkan kecakapan intelektual, seperti mengalihkan, membagi, menjumlahkan, mengurangi, dan menarik akar dalam hitung mencongak. Mengenal benda/bentuk dalam pelajaran matematika, ilmu pasti, ilmu kimia, tanda baca dan sebagainya.
- 3) Memiliki kemampuan menghubungkan antara sesuatu keadaan dengan hal lain, seperti hubungan sebab akibat banyak hujan-banjir, antara tanda huruf dan bunyi-ng, -ny, dan sebagainya; penggunaan lambang atau simbol di dalam peta dan lain-lain.

Dalam penggunaan teknik *drill* agar bisa berhasil guna dan berdaya guna perlu ditanamkan pengertian bagi instruktur maupun siswa ialah:

- 1) Tentang sifat-sifat suatu latihan, bahwa setiap latihan harus selalu berbeda dengan latihan yang sebelumnya. Hal itu disebabkan karena situasi dan pengaruh latihan yang lalu berbeda guna.
- 2) Guru perlu memperhatikan dan memahami nilai dari latihan itu sendiri serta kaitannya dengan pelajaran di sekolah. Dalam persiapan sebelum memasuki latihan guru harus memberikan pengertian dan perumusan tujuan bagi siswa, sehingga mereka

Fransiska & Juriant (2016:125-131)

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**The Use of Drilling Technique in Teaching English Vocabulary  
to the Seventh Grade Students of SMP Negeri 2 Tanggulangin**

Ria Fransiska  
Jurianto

English Department, Universitas Airlangga

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**Abstract**

This study aims to identify whether there is any difference between seventh grade students' English vocabulary mastery taught using drilling technique and those taught without using drilling technique. Harmer (2007) stated that drilling is a technique that has been used in foreign language classrooms, which emphasizes on repeating structural pattern through oral practice to demonstrate students' ability in using specific language items in a controlled manner. In this study, the language items are lexis (lexical items). The respondents of this research are 72 students of the seventh grade of SMP Negeri 2 Tanggulangin. The writer assigned class VII-A to the Experimental group and class VII-B to the control group. The data of this research were collected by giving pre-test and post-test. The collected data were analyzed by using t-test formula. The results of the data analysis showed that: the mean score of post-test of experimental group was 70.22, the mean score of post-test of control group was 65.75, the t-value was 5.15 with degree of freedom (*df*) 1.960. Based on the data analysis above, the alternative hypothesis was accepted because the t-value was higher than t-table (5.15 > 1.96). This research indicates that the use of drilling technique can improve students' vocabulary mastery to the seventh grade students of SMP Negeri 2 Tanggulangin.

**Keywords:** drilling, technique, vocabulary mastery, adolescent

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**Introduction**

English language becomes the most important language to learn for communication. Therefore, mastering English mastery can help people ready to face global competition. In Indonesia, English language has been taught as one of the compulsory subjects for students from the Junior High School up to the Senior High School and it may be the necessary to pass an examination in English to enter a university. As Haycraft (1978, p.8) states, there are various skills in mastering of language: listening (understanding the spoken language), reading (understanding the written language), speaking and writing. To support the mastery of the four language skills the students have to learn vocabulary first before understanding other skills.

Vocabulary is a very basic element to learn English because it is the foundation to learn other skills. Richard and Renandya (2002, p.255) state that vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much basis of how the learners speak, listen, read, and write well. As a foreign language, learning English vocabulary mastery is very important to support other English language skills, especially for students of junior high school. However, many students do not seem to find themselves comfortable with the foreign language in the classroom. They think that English is a hard subject to study because their limited vocabulary and poor knowledge or mastery of the language component. The problems make them difficult to understand the words.

One of the reasons for the students' low vocabulary mastery is the teachers tend to rely on conventional method which does not challenge the students to learn vocabulary independently. Teaching and learning English in junior high school is different from teaching and learning English in kindergarten and elementary school in term of the teaching methods and the materials. Teachers should consider the age of their students since different ages have different characteristics. Because of the characteristics, they need a particular treatment in learning process. According to Harmer (2007, p.83), teenager students often have

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Puteri (2022)

**THE USE OF DRILLING TECHNIQUE IN TEACHING ENGLISH  
VOCABULARY TO EIGHTH GRADE STUDENTS**

**A Research Paper**

Submitted to the Department of English Language Education of FPBS, UPI in  
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for *Sarjana Pendidikan* Degree



By:  
Ariska Puteri  
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**The Effect Of Drill Technique Towards Students' Vocabulary Mastery In Learning English**

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**Abstract**

This research was aimed to answer research question "Is there any effect of Drill Technique towards students' vocabulary mastery in learning English?" The kind of this research was an experimental research in which divided into two groups were treated with differently which experimental group was by using drill group and second control group was using three phases. The sample of this research were all of first grade students at SMAN 1 Batulayar consisted of 75 students. This proved by figure of means group, the standard deviation and value of t-test was seen that the mean score of experimental group was higher than the mean score of control group (69.7 for the experimental and 4.47 for the control group). Based on statistical analysis using t-test showed that t-table 3.57 > 2.00 t-table at confidence level 0.05 % (95%) and 3.57 > 2.66 t-table at confidence level 0.01% (90%). Finally, it concludes that the use of Drill Technique has positive effect toward students' vocabulary mastery in learning English at the first year students of SMAN 1 Batulayar in academic year 2021/2022.

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**1. INTRODUCTION**

According to Yulia, Y. (2013) pointed out that English is one English as the most important global language has become a compulsory subject in developing countries such as Indonesia. It was formally introduced into primary schools in the 1994 curriculum starting from year four though many schools in the cities have in fact been teaching English from year one up to year six. Vocabulary is a list of words and often phrases usually arranged alphabetically and defined or translated. Nunan (1991), said that vocabulary is an important element in the acquisition of a second language and Lea, D. (2008), said that vocabulary is a list or collection of words of words and phrases, usually alphabetically arranged and explained or defined.

In Lie, A. (2007), argues that English is taught and used as a foreign language in Indonesia. In spite of the many years of English instruction in formal schooling, the outcome has not been satisfying. Very few high school graduates are able to communicate intelligibly in English. According to Warnidah, N. (2015), says that learn English there are four skills taught to the students that is listening, speaking, reading and writing. These four skills help people to communicate well, either in spoken or written form. Based on the explanation described by some expert's means that English is one the Foreign Language and then become compulsory subject matter should be taught. Although English learned started from Junior High School up to university level, but the students still have difficulties in learning English caused by some factors on of them is vocabulary very difficult. In Amuthama (2010) states that vocabulary is difficult to teach because of the complexity of its linguistic, semantic and psycho-cognitive aspects. In this case, the teachers should keep looking for ways to substitute rote repetition with

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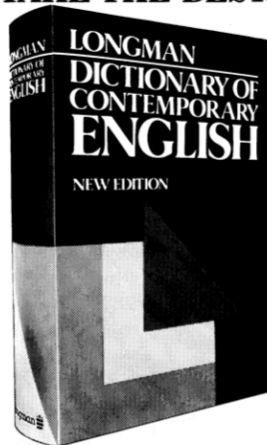
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Of importance to TESOL, pop and rock music is the overwhelming favorite of the youth culture. Little (1983) points out that for a group of French-speaking high school students surveyed in Montreal, "Pop and rock means English-language pop and rock."

Given the pervasiveness of music and the strong impact of the English language on popular music, one might expect the situation to be reflected in TESOL literature. In fact, there is a paucity of research relating to the classroom use of songs, singing, and music in general. In the articles that do exist it is customary to begin by giving what the author considers to be the merits of songs and music and then go on to explain a technique and its application (Parker 1969, Coe 1972, Griffee 1981, Stoyhoff 1983). While it is also customary not to substantiate any claims, those of us who are attracted to the musical area of TESOL remain convinced, if only intuitively, that much can be gained by the use of music.

There are encouraging signs in TESOL of a persistent and perhaps even growing interest in music. One sign is the continuing publication of ESL songbooks (Graham 1982, Abe and Marquardt 1982, Merdinger and Rosenfeld 1984). Another sign is actually a constellation of trends within TESOL that directly or indirectly supports an interest in music. These include such trends as an increased awareness of the importance of listening; an emphasis on using activities that capitalize on both the right and left side of the brain; and finally, interest in communicative language teaching in general. The work of Krashen in language acquisition as well as Via and Maley in drama also serve to support and stimulate an interest in musical forms. And not least, in the culture at large, recent benefit concerts remind us of the immense power that music and its popular performers have to focus our attention on a given problem in the world.

We might then conclude from this short discussion that even though conditions favor the use of songs and music in language classrooms, we are still in a primitive period, a time of pre-research. In the remainder of this paper six positive benefits of using songs and music are identified and six techniques are examined.

#### 1. Songs and Music Lower Anxiety

Songs and music create a relaxed and enjoyable classroom atmosphere that reduces anxiety and enhances learning (Jolly 1975, Leith 1979). To use Krashen's metaphor, songs and music

lower the affective filter. Many experienced teachers have noted this aspect of songs and music (Dickinson 1978, Elson and Fox 1983, Gelman 1973, Parker 1969 and Techmeier 1969). Jack Richards (1969) even adds:

Pleasure for its own sake is an important part of language learning, a fact which is often overlooked by the teacher in his quest for teaching points, or by the course designer focusing on presentation or repetition.

Taking cognizance of this, Bartle (1962) urges teachers to introduce songs and music as early as possible to the young language learner, noting that if students do not enjoy their first year of foreign language study, it will be an uphill battle from then on.

## **2. Songs and Vocabulary**

Songs are useful for teaching vocabulary. There seems to be substantial agreement on this issue (Abrate 1983, Bartle 1962, DeSelms 1983, Dickinson 1978, Elson and Fox 1983, Gelman 1973, Griffec 1981, Jolly 1975, Loew 1979, McBeath 1986 and J. Richards 1969). There is little concern, however, for either theoretical or pedagogical justification of this point, perhaps because usefulness of songs for this purpose is considered obvious.

For most writers what exactly is meant by vocabulary is left undefined. Gelman (1973), however, says that songs are likely to contain plenty of racy colloquial phrases. Dickinson (1978) includes idiomatic phrases and slang in her understanding of vocabulary. A further consideration for some writers is that songs give a context to vocabulary that enhances learning (DeSelms 1983, Abrate 1983). Finally, Jolly (1975) reports that in her class evaluations, written by students at the end of the year, songs were a highly valued component and were specifically mentioned as helping to increase vocabulary.

## **3. Songs as Listening Material**

Since the 1970s, songs, especially pop songs, have increasingly been recommended for listening comprehension. Several reasons are given for this. The colloquial use of language in songs gives examples of popular language often missing from the classroom (Abrate 1983). Songs can be used to practice structural items such as past tense verbs as well as to tell an interesting story that



can be discussed in class (DeSelms 1983, L. Smith 1976, P. Smith 1980), and finally, listening forces the students to rely on their ears as well as their eyes (Griffiee 1981).

#### 4. Songs as Supplemental Texts

Songs can be used to supplement a textbook or they can serve as the text itself. There are several options. One option is to use the song after the regular lesson. This appears to be the position of Coe (1972). Little (1983) calls this option a change of pace, or *What to do on blue Mondays and restless Fridays*. Another option is the use of songs for special occasions such as Christmas when the textbook has no unit on that subject (Case and Piske 1977, Abrate 1983). A third option is a situation in which a teacher does use a text and the text does have a unit on the subject, but the teacher wants to add an additional component such as vocabulary, a structure, or a discussion topic. Leith (1979) uses this option when he describes his French FL class in which he alternates between using a main text and a session with a "conversation based on a ballad." Jolly also uses a main text but says, "Songs are more than fun material and can be valuable teaching material in themselves" (Jolly 1975). A fourth option is when evaluating "a song as a teaching aid, don't think of it as a song. Think of it as a text, and decide its value in the same way as you would any other text" (Wilson 1985). This option does not contradict any of the above options.

#### 5. Songs as Grammatical Review

Songs and music can be used to present, review and reinforce grammatical structures. While many writers note this use of songs but don't go into much supporting detail (Abrate 1983, Bartle 1962, Dickinson 1978, Gelman 1973, McBeath 1986), Dubin (1975) lists four types of songs she suggests focus on grammatical patterns. These types are repetition songs in which one word or phrase is repeated; substitution songs that have a minimal change within a basic sentence, for example the song "If I Had A Hammer"; focused grammatical structure songs, for example "El Condor Pasa"; and internal pattern rearrangement songs, which are a more complex form of substitution song in which a sub-group of internal patterns supply part of the lyrics. An example would be "Oh, You Can't Get To Heaven on Roller Skates." Urbancic and

Vizmuller (1981) make-the point relative to the use of songs to present and/or revise grammatical structures that by using a song and a cloze exercise they were able to observe which structures the students had trouble with and which structures most of the class had correct. By using the song as a diagnostic tool, they were able to concentrate on trouble points, and at the advanced level were able to discuss grammar points in L2 (Italian).

## 6. Songs and Culture

Songs and music from various cultures can be used to compare and contrast those cultures. Using songs and music in this way is based on three assumptions. The first is that music is not universal. As Meyer states:

... the studies of comparative musicologists bringing to our attention the music of other cultures, has made us increasingly aware that the particular organization developed in Western music is not universal, natural, or God-given. (Meyer 1956:6)

A second assumption is that the world is experiencing an emerging globalism. ESL teachers experience this phenomenon when students bring with them their own culture; EFL teachers experience this when living in another culture; FL teachers experience this when they teach students who want and need to know more about the culture of L2.

A third assumption is that all music is ethnic (Cullen 1980). Using the term "world musics," Louise Cullen, a Music Program Leader with the North York Board of Education, Ontario, Canada, argues that given an emerging world culture, and that academic institutions have traditionally supported the study of the cultures, it makes sense to regard all music as ethnic, with each worthy of study and appreciation. She does not wish to depreciate Beethoven and the Western classic tradition, rather, she wants to preserve the cultural diversity of other music systems and to introduce students to the "full spectrum of new musical sounds in a stimulating way in which they are able to discover that various peoples in the world have musics that are unique, complex, and as exciting as their own."

Turning now to practical application, corresponding song techniques will be offered to illustrate some aspect of each of the above benefits.

(Mardiana & Awaliah, 2020:573)



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### PENGEMBANGAN TTS (TABEL TENSES SEDERHANA) SEBAGAI ALAT BANTU METODE DRILLING PEMBELAJARAN BERBICARA BAHASA INGGRIS

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#### ABSTRACT

*Teaching speaking as one of basic skill in English is one of the hardest process. It becomes a reason for the researcher to do a research which focus on inventing the best method for teaching speaking in English. So it motivates the researcher to contribute a solution to the problems by trying to invent quick and accurate method for teaching English speaking. On this research, the researcher tries to design a special table name TTS (Tabel Tenses Sederhana). It used for teaching English speaking. After that the researcher tests the effectiveness of the teaching aid on two experimental classes. From that process, the researcher gets some feedbacks. The feedback is from the experimental class participants and also from the colleague. We hopes that the research will end with a formulation method or an effective teaching aid invention. The method on the research is perfective system approach. Perfective system is a study about a system by questioning: how a system entirely works properly and why it can work properly as it must. The spirit of TTS is not on the physical material as a teaching aid. The spirit of TTS is on the system and procedure. The form of TTS may be various. It can be as a real physical poster or it could be also as a simple note on the white board. Related to the response of the respondent, the majority of the participant having a positive response on the application of TTS on speaking class.*

**Keywords:** Speaking Skill, TTS (Tabel Tenses Sederhana) Drilling Method

#### ABSTRAK

Mengajarkan speaking sebagai salah satu keterampilan dasar dalam bahasa Inggris merupakan bagian paling sulit dalam proses pengajaran bahasa Inggris. Hal inilah yang membuat peneliti menjadi sangat tertarik untuk dapat memberikan kontribusi bagi masyarakat dengan mencari solusi terkait permasalahan tersebut. Dalam penelitian ini, peneliti mencoba mendesain sebuah tabel khusus yang disebut TTS (tabel tenses sederhana). Tabel TTS ini di uji dengan menggunakannya dalam pengajaran speaking. Selanjutnya peneliti akan melakukan uji kualitatif dengan melakukan wawancara kepada para objek dalam penelitian ini. Adapun alasan peneliti melakukan uji kualitatif dalam penelitian ini, dimaksudkan untuk memperoleh feed back. Baik dari responden maupun dari sejawat. Paradigma penelitian ini adalah pendekatan perspektif sistem. Perspektif sistem adalah suatu studi tentang sistem yang mempertanyakan: bagaimana sebuah sistem secara keseluruhan dapat berfungsi sebagaimana mestinya dan mengapa hal tersebut dapat berfungsi sebagaimana mestinya. Hasil dari penelitian ini menyimpulkan bahwa prinsipnya, ruh media pembelajaran TTS tidak terletak pada material fisik sebagai sebuah media pengajaran, namun justru terletak pada sistem dan prosedur. Media TTS bisa dalam bentuk apa saja: bisa poster dengan material khusus, soft-poster di media sosial dan layar komputer atau mungkin cukup dibuat sederhana diatas papan tulis dengan marker dan kapur. Terkait dengan respon responden, mayoritas peserta uji coba memberikan respon positif terkait dengan penggunaan media pembelajaran TTS dalam pengajaran speaking.

**Kata kunci:** Keterampilan Berbicara (Speaking), Tabel Tenses Sederhana (TTS) dan Metode Pengulangan (drilling)

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#### Pendahuluan

Dalam proses pengajaran bahasa Inggris ketika sebuah materi hanya disampaikan dalam bentuk teori dan latihan hanya disampaikan dalam bentuk tulisan, pembelajaran menjadi kurang bermakna. Pembelajaran sesungguhnya telah kehilangan ruhny. Salah satu dampaknya adalah kemampuan berbicara dalam Bahasa Inggris. Jika peserta didik langsung dilibatkan pada sebuah percakapan lengkap berbahasa Inggris, mereka akan mengalami kesulitan. Baik kesulitan karena kurangnya keterampilan mereka dalam berbahasa, maupun faktor *mental blocking* yang membuat mereka takut berbicara.

telah dengan "Basi Understanding" pada saat drilling dengan TTS dilakukan antara lain: Part of Speech, Verb dan perubahannya, Tenses dan fungsinya, Gerund dan to-infinitive, Compound dan Complex Sentences.

Berikut ini adalah variasi kalimat yang bisa dilatihkan dengan menggunakan media pembelajaran TTS melalui metode *drilling*: Routine Activity/General Truth (*Simple Present*), Mengandung Modal (*Modal*), Kejadian Lampau (*Past Simple*), Mengandung makna "sudah" atau "belum" (*Perfect*), Mengandung makna "sedang" (*Continuous*), Kalimat Pasif (*Passive Voice*), Kalimat Majemuk (*Complex Sentence*).

Proses pengajaran tenses – grammar tidak lagi mengambang, tapi terintegrasi dengan pelatihan speaking. Peserta didik belajar tata bahasa sekaligus dengan mempraktikkannya dalam materi *drilling-speaking*. Dengan demikian sekali treatment akan dapat memberikan pemahaman tata bahasa sekaligus melatih kemahiran berbicara.

##### 5. Proses Pengujian Media Pembelajaran TTS

Sebagaimana dijelaskan dalam bagan alur penelitian, setelah proses studi literasi sehingga menghasilkan desain awal media pembelajaran TTS. Langkah berikutnya adalah pengujian. Hal ini dilakukan untuk menguji efektivitas dan kehandalan objek penelitian, sekaligus salah satu langkah untuk memperoleh *feedback* dalam melakukan evaluasi.

Proses uji coba dilakukan dihadapan peserta didik tingkat remaja dengan kemampuan berbahasa Inggris di level menengah ke bawah. Dari proses ini, peneliti dapat menyimpulkan bahwa peserta uji coba hampir diatas 90% merasa antusias. Mereka merasa tertarik dengan penggunaan media pembelajaran ini sebagai hal yang baru.

Dari proses ini diperoleh dua masukan dari sumber yang berbeda. Pertama persepsi peserta uji coba yang diperoleh dengan cara menyebarkan kuisioner kepada peserta uji coba dan interview langsung di dalam dan di luar proses kelas uji coba. Kedua adalah pendapat profesional dari kolega mengajar. Pendapat dan masukan profesional diperlukan untuk mendapatkan masukan yang memiliki dasar teoritis yang kuat sebagai sebuah metode pengajaran.

Dalam kondisi pandemik seperti ini, pengujian harus dilakukan dengan segala keterbatasan. Penggunaan daring bisa menjadi opsi sebenarnya. Namun kami mempertimbangkan tingkat keefektifannya. Pertama peneliti memerlukan respon peserta uji coba secara langsung. Respon langsung dapat menjadi sebuah masukan membangun bagi peneliti dalam mengembangkan TTS ini. Kedua keterbatasan media pembelajaran daring yang dimiliki para peserta dilingkungan kami menjadi pertimbangan lainnya.

Setelah mempertimbangkan hal-hal tersebut, peneliti mencoba mengkombinasikan metode daring dan luring secara bersamaan. Peneliti bekerjasama dengan sebuah pesantren yang masih melakukan proses belajar dan mengajar. Mereka melakukan proses ini dengan protokol kesehatan yang ketat.

Kelas uji coba dilakukan di dua kelas. Ini dilakukan dalam rangka protokol kesehatan ditengah pandemik untuk mengurangi jumlah peserta yang terlibat proses uji coba dalam satu waktu. Setiap kelas terdiri dari 11 siswa yang dipilih secara random sehingga total peserta menjadi 22 dengan latar belakang kelas dan kemampuan bahasa Inggris yang berbeda-beda. Setiap kelas uji coba tersebut masing-masing mendapatkan *student treatment* pengajaran speaking dengan metode *drilling* menggunakan media pengajaran TTS selama masing-masing 1,5 jam.

Adapun proses observasi yang melibatkan rekan sejawat, kami lakukan secara daring. Dengan pertimbangan, bahwa rekan sejawat memerlukan waktu yang cukup untuk dapat menghasilkan pendapat yang baik, berbasis teori dan tentunya membangun, pendekatan luring dirasa sudah cukup.

Teknisnya, peneliti mempresentasikan terlebih dahulu gambaran dasar dari penelitian ini kepada para kolega. Khususnya objek dalam penelitian ini, yakni Media pembelajaran TTS. Selanjutnya, proses pengajaran uji coba dikelas direkam dalam bentuk video. Kemudian peneliti mengirimkannya kepada kolega untuk ditonton, dianalisa dan dikomentari. Pendapat profesional berupa opini kolega ini

(Asriyah, 2021:117)

**Penerapan Metode Drill Untuk Meningkatkan Penguasaan Hafalan Kosakata Bahasa Arab Siswa Kelas VII**

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**ABSTRACT**

Drill method is a learning method by giving practice in a creative and continuous way. This study aimed to describe the improvement of Arabic vocabulary memorization using the Drill method and the application of the drill method for seventh grade junior high school students. This type of research is classroom action research with a descriptive quantitative approach. This research was carried out in two cycles, consisting of eight meetings in seventh grade SMP Muhammadiyah I Bandar Lampung in the 2019/2020 academic year. The subjects used in this study were 17 students. Based on the results of the research that has been done, it can be concluded that the Drill method can improve the vocabulary memorization of seventh grade Muhammadiyah Middle School students. This is evidenced by the increase from cycle I to cycle II. In addition, students become more disciplined and active in learning Arabic with the drill method. Based on these results, it can be concluded that the Drill method is one of the solutions to be applied in overcoming difficulties in memorizing Arabic vocabulary.

**Keywords:** Drill Method, Vocabulary Memory, Arabic Language Learning

**ABSTRAK**

Metode Drill merupakan metode pembelajaran dengan memberi latihan dengan cara yang kreatif dan terus menerus. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mendeskripsikan peningkatan hafalan kosakata bahasa Arab menggunakan metode Drill dan penerapan metode drill bagi siswa SMP kelas VII. Jenis penelitian ini adalah penelitian tindakan kelas dengan pendekatan kuantitatif deskriptif. Penelitian ini dilaksanakan dalam dua siklus, yang terdiri dari delapan kali pertemuan di kelas VII SMP Muhammadiyah I Bandar Lampung Tahun Pelajaran 2019/2020. Subjek yang digunakan dalam penelitian ini adalah 17 orang siswa. Berdasarkan hasil penelitian yang telah dilakukan maka diperoleh kesimpulan bahwa metode Drill dapat meningkatkan hafalan kosakata siswa SMP Muhammadiyah. Hal itu dibuktikan dengan terjadinya peningkatan dari siklus I ke siklus II. Selain itu siswa menjadi lebih disiplin dan aktif dalam pembelajaran bahasa Arab dengan metode drill. Berdasarkan hasil tersebut dapat disimpulkan bahwa metode Drill sebagai salah satu solusi untuk dapat diterapkan dalam mengatasi kesulitan dalam menghafal kosakata Bahasa Arab.

**Kata kunci:** Metode Drill, Hafalan Kosakata, Pembelajaran Bahasa Arab

**PENDAHULUAN**

Pembelajaran Bahasa Arab berbeda dengan pembelajaran Bahasa Indonesia. Pembelajaran Bahasa Arab sering kali menjadi hal yang menakutkan bagi siswa karena harus dihadapkan dengan banyaknya kosakata dan teks dalam Bahasa Arab (Unsi, 2020). Ketakutan tersebut disebabkan karena rendahnya kosakata Bahasa Arab yang diketahui siswa. Oleh karena itu sebagai pendidik dan fasilitator pembelajaran (Sani, 2018), guru perlu mengatasi ketakutan tersebut dengan pembelajaran yang lebih menarik sehingga pembelajaran terasa mudah dan menyenangkan (Uliyah & Isnawati, 2019).

Rendahnya kosakata Bahasa Arab yang diketahui oleh siswa juga disebabkan oleh banyak faktor. Salah satunya terjadi di SMP Muhammadiyah 1 Teluk Betung Bandar Lampung yang masih memiliki fasilitas yang kurang variatif dan memadai khususnya untuk menunjang pembelajaran kosakata Bahasa Arab. Selain itu faktor lainnya adalah latar belakang siswa yang tidak semua berasal dari sekolah dasar berbasis agama Islam sehingga pernah belajar Bahasa Arab sebelumnya, namun ada juga yang berasal dari sekolah dasar negeri yang belum pernah mengenal kosakata dalam Bahasa Arab.

Selain fasilitas dan latar belakang pendukung, pembelajaran yang efektif juga dapat menggunakan metode yang tepat dengan materi pembelajaran dan karakteristik siswa (Uliyah & Isnawati, 2019). Oleh karena itu salah satu metode yang dapat digunakan dalam meningkatkan penguasaan kosakata Bahasa Arab adalah dengan metode drill.

Metode drill merupakan salah satu metode dalam pengajaran dengan melatih siswa pada materi pelajaran yang sudah diberikan (Muradi, 2011). Kegiatan pembelajaran dengan metode drill dilakukan dengan melakukan hal yang sama secara berulang-ulang untuk menyempurnakan keterampilan supaya permanen yang dapat kita peroleh dengan cara latihan-latihan (Unsi, 2020). Metode drill menanamkan kebiasaan-kebiasaan yang baik untuk memperoleh ketangkasan, ketepatan, kesempatan, dan keterampilan (Djamarah & Zain, 2010). Bidang keterampilan yang harus dipenuhi dalam pembelajaran Bahasa Arab meliputi kemampuan menyimak, kemampuan berbicara, kemampuan membaca (Maharah al-qira'ah), dan kemampuan menulis (Maharah al-kitabah) (Taubah & Dhaifi, 2020). Keterampilan-keterampilan tersebut membutuhkan kosakata sebagai dasar ilmu untuk belajar Bahasa Arab.

**TEACHING ENGLISH  
AS A FOREIGN  
LANGUAGE**

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2nd Edition

Ag. Bambang Setiyadi

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patterns learners have to learn. In the following session "T" represents *teacher* and "S" represents *student*.

1. *Repetition Drill*. This drill is the simplest drill used in learning language patterns. It is used at the very beginning of language class. Language learners merely repeat what the teacher says or the tape recorder produces. This may be used for the presentation of new vocabulary and will be useful for pronunciation class.

Example:

T : I study in the morning.

S1 : I study in the morning.

T : I study in the afternoon.

S2 : I study in the afternoon.

T : I work in the morning.

S3 : I work in the morning.

Etc.

2. *Substitution Drill*. Language learners are required to replace one word with another. They may replace a word of the model sentence with a pronoun, number, or gender and make some the necessary change.

Example:

T : John is cold.

T : hungry

S1 : John is hungry

T : in the class

S2 : John is in the class.

T : John and Marry

S3 : John and Marry are in the class.

Etc.

3. *Transformation Drill*. Language learners are required to change sentences from negative to positive, from positive to interrogative, or from simple present tense to simple past tense, depending on the instruction from the teacher.

Example:

T : The book is new.

S1 : Is the book new?

T : We are in the class.

- S2 : Are we in the class?  
Etc.
4. *Replacement Drill*. Language learners replace a noun with a pronoun. It is the same drill as the substitution drill but it involves with a replacement.  
Example:  
T : I like the book.  
S1 : I like it.  
T : I met the people in Jakarta.  
S2 : I met them in Jakarta.  
T : John will come here.  
S3 : He will come here.  
Etc.
5. *Response Drill*. Language learners respond to somebody's sentence. In this drill the answers are patterned after the questions. This drill may involve "wh" questions or "yes/ no" questions.  
Example:  
T1: Alice is at school.  
T2: Where is Alice?  
T3: At school  
Etc.
6. *Cued response Drill*. In this drill language learners are provided with a cue before or after the question.  
Example:  
T : What did the man buy? (A book)  
S : The man bought a book.  
T : Who will help us? (His brother)  
S : His brother will help us.  
Etc.
7. *Rejoinder Drill*. It is similar to the cued response drill. In this drill language learners are given instruction of how to respond.  
Example:  
T : come to my house (Be polite)  
S : Would you like to come to my house.  
T : your idea is not good (disagree)

- S : I disagree with your idea.  
Etc.
8. *Restatement*. Language learners rephrase an utterance and address it to somebody else, according to the content of the utterance.  
Example:  
T : Tell him where you live.  
S : I live at Raden Intan Street no.5.  
T : Ask her what she has for breakfast.  
S : What do you have for breakfast?  
Etc.
9. *Completion Drill*. Language learners are told to supply a missing word in a sentence or statement.  
Example:  
T : I bring my book and you bring...  
S : I bring my book and you bring your book.  
T : I have to solve ...own problems.  
S : I have to solve my own problems.  
Etc.
10. *Expansion Drill*. Language learners build up a statement by adding a word or phrase.  
Example:  
T : Mathematics  
S : We study mathematics.  
T : Everyday  
S : We study mathematics everyday.  
Etc.
11. *Contraction Drill*. Language learners replace a phrase or clause with a single word or shorter expressions.  
Example:  
T : I didn't mean to kill the bird.  
S : I didn't mean it.  
T : Don't go to that place.  
S : Don't go there.  
Etc.

12. *Integration Drill*. Language learners combine two separate statements.  
Example:  
T : Which one do you think is true? The earth goes around the sun or the sun goes around the earth.  
S : I think the earth goes around the sun.  
T : I know that lady. She is wearing a blue shirt.  
S : I know the lady wearing a blue shirt.  
Etc.
13. *Translation Drill*. Language learners translate a sentence from their mother tongue to the target language.  
Example:  
T : Saya sangat senang buah-buahan.  
S : I like fruit very much.  
T : Ada beberapa murid di kelas itu.  
S : There are some students in the class.  
Etc.

# Sudjana (1989) in (Rofi'ah & Huda, 2020:80-81)



## The effectiveness of the drilling method on enriching students vocabulary (A Study at Seventh Grade of Islamic Junior High School An-Nuriyah Benjeng Gresik)

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### Abstract

This study is generally attempted to find the effectiveness of the drill method on student's vocabulary skill for the first-grade student's at MTs. An-Nuriyah Benjeng Gresik academic year 2016/2017. To know this technique is valid or not, the researcher used a pre-experimental study applied in VII A class. The research has been done in six meetings that are designed. First meeting is for pre-test, four sessions are for treatments, and the last session is for post-test. As the quantitative method, the researcher analysed the data by using t-test. The result shows that There is a significant difference in the student's vocabulary achievement taught with drill method. The researcher uses the degree of significance of 5% and 1%. In the table of relevance, it can be seen the  $t_{24}$ , and the degree of importance of 5% and 1% the value of the degree of significance are 2,06 and 2,80. If compare with each value of the degrees of relevance, the result is  $2,06 > 10,50\% > 2,80$ . The result of calculation  $t_0$  (t-observation) is higher than  $t_c$  (t-table),  $t_0 > t_c$ , the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) is rejected. If the result of calculation  $t_0$  (t-observation) is lower than  $t_c$  (t-table),  $t_0 < t_c$ , the null hypothesis is accepted. Since the score obtained from the result of calculating, the alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) is accepted and the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) is rejected. In other words, the writer hypothesis is accepted. It means that there are significant differences between a student's achievement in learning vocabulary skill using the drill method.

**Key Words:** Enriching, Students' Vocabulary Skill.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Understanding Drill Method

The drill is a way of teaching by providing exercises to what has been learned so that students acquire a particular skill. According to Asmani, Drill method is called by training method (Jamal, 2013). It is a manner of teaching to implant certain activities. For instance, this method can be used to get skill and competent. And according to Sagala, drill method is an activity in the form of repeat to response will be reliable and not easy to be forgotten (Sagala, 2010).

Educators apply this method the learners will be able to use the energy of thoughts is well, because with the excellent teaching the learners are more careful in motivating their power of ideas (Gudu, 2015). Drill method is a manner of teaching student does exercises; the student has the skill and competent are higher than what did they learn (Fathurrohman & Sutikno, 2007). The method in education and determining with coaching the student to the material of the lesson that is given.

The student has much skill, for example, in memorising and get computing so that in teaching need training (*drill*) to control that skill. So that one of it is used training technique or *exercise*. The drill is a technique that can enhance the ability to be permanent. Drill method is planning about representation material with systematics

and based on the approach that is determined with exercises to knowledge and efficiency be able to gotten and controlled by the learner (Cut Fitriani & Usman, 2017).

From the above definition can be concluded that the drill method is generally used to obtain an ability or skill of what has been learned.

### B. The Purpose of Drill Method

1. Have motorik skills powers.
2. Develop intellect speeds, as gets computing.
3. Have the ability to link among situation some things with another thing, like causality, purpose device or symbol at deep map etc. (Megawati, 2014).

Nana Sudjana argues that principle and road-map purposes drill method is (Sudiana, 1989):

- 1) Participants teach to have given by insights before arranged by given training.
- 2) Training for the first time it ought to diagnosis, formerly insufficiently successful than arranged remedial for then can perfect.

- 3) Training not necessarily long times provided that frequently executed.
- 4) Have to be adjusted by participant ability levels are taught.
- 5) Training process ought to advance essential things and beneficent.

The learners replace a noun to the pronoun. It is a substitution drill but it involves a replacement.

### C. Types of Pattern Drill Method

There are thirteen types are:

#### 1. Drilling Repetition

This drill is the most straightforward drill used in learning language patterns. It uses at the beginning of language class. Language learners repeat what the teacher teaches. It is used for presenting new vocabulary and will be useful for pronunciations class.

#### 2. Drilling Substitutions

Language learners require to repeat one another word. They should replace expression of the model sentence with a pronoun, number, or gender and make some the necessary change.

#### 3. Drilling Transformation

Language learners require to move sentences from negative to affirmative and interrogative, or from present simple to past tense, depending on the instructions from the teacher.

#### 4. Drilling Replacement

#### 5. Drilling Response

Language learners are responding to the sentence. These answers have patterned the questions. It may involve "wh" questions or "yes/no" questions.

#### 6. Drilling Cued Response

Here, language learners are provided with a cue before or after the questions.

#### 7. Drilling Rejoinder

It is similar to the cued response drill. In this drill, language learners are instructed how to respond.

#### 8. Restatement

Language learners rephrase an utterance and address it to somebody else, according to the content of the declaration.

#### 9. Drilling Completion

Language learners are told to supply a missing word in a sentence or statement.

#### 10. Expansion Drill

Language learners build up a statement by adding a word or phrase.

#### 11. Contraction Drill

Language learners replace a phrase or clause with a single word or shorter expressions.

#### 12. Integration Drill

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### Teacher's Efforts in Practicing Beginning Writing Skills for Elementary Level Students Using the Drill Method

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
<p><b>Article History</b>            Received: 3 March 2022            Accepted: 20 December 2022            Published: 27 December 2022</p> <p><b>Keywords:</b>            Drill Method; Learning Challenges; Learning Innovation; Writing skills</p>	<p>The implementation of the drill method is a form of effort made by the teacher to train students' skills in learning initial writing skills. The low writing skills of first-grade students are a challenge for a teacher, so a learning innovation using the drill method is needed to train students in properly and correctly composing words or sentences. The purpose of this study was to determine the implementation of the drill method in learning this beginning writing skill for class 1C students at MI Al Islam, conducted from February to May 2021. This research used a qualitative descriptive type approach. The subjects of this study were class 1C teachers, and the informants of this study were class 1C students and the head of MI. Data was obtained through observation, interviews, and documentation. The data validation technique uses source, technical, and theory triangulation. Meanwhile, analyse the data in this study using data collection, reduction, presentation, and conclusion. Implementing the drill method through repeated exercises can train students' initial writing skills, because it can stimulate their memory abilities.</p>

### INTRODUCTION

In the era of the 21st century, writing skills are essential to express ideas resulting from thought through written language (Zubaidah, 2016). Writing skill is the ability to express ideas in written language through sentences structured in a comprehensive, complete and precise manner so that these thoughts can be communicated to the reader. Almost all fields in the 21st century require good writing skills so that many parties can accept and utilise written information. Therefore, writing skills need to be empowered from an early age, one of which is through education. Educational efforts to optimise students' writing skills early on are to practice initial writing skills (Ningsih, 2019).

Beginning writing is the initial stage in mastering advanced writing skills and is a prerequisite for learning at a later stage (Christianti, 2015; Thomas et al., 2020). One of the subjects that can accommodate writing skills is Indonesian. Learning Indonesian in elementary schools consists of four aspects of skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Mulyati, 2015). Initial writing skills are learning basic Indonesian in grades 1-2 of elementary school. Beginning writing skills cannot be possessed by students quickly. However, several stages must be carried out to train grade 1 students to be fluent in composing words or sentences properly and correctly. The ability to write at the basic or beginning level is more oriented towards mechanical abilities. At this stage, students will be trained to write symbols with meaning. Apart from that, writing skills also train students to express their ideas, thoughts, and feelings in written form (Gunawan & Heryanto, 2019).

Beginning writing skills are basic skills that must be possessed by students, especially in grades 1 and 2 of elementary school, because initial writing will help students communicate in writing (Gunawan & Heryanto, 2019). However, some elementary school students are still not skilled at properly and correctly composing words or sentences. There are still students who are not precise in making letters, or there are still writings that are difficult to read. This condition is one of the reasons they have not memorised letters properly. Therefore, teachers must use appropriate methods to train students' initial writing skills (Ningsih, 2019).

The Drill method is one of the appropriate learning methods to practice beginning writing skills. The Drill method is a method that encourages students to go through repeated exercises to form a specific skill. Through the drill method, students will have higher skills than previously learned (Nawi et al., 2019) and can improve memory (Ariyani, 2019). The Drill method is learning by providing continuous training so that students become accustomed to it, and then it will become a habit. The Drill method aims to improve students' thinking power, more organised and thorough in pushing their memory (Nurhasanah, 2020). In addition, this method can also increase speed, accuracy, and perfection in doing something (Almadiliana et al., 2021; Nurhasanah, 2020).

Based on previous research, the drill method can improve learning outcomes (Fahrurrozi et al., 2022), speaking ability (Elly et al., 2013), ability to write capital letters (Rahayu, 2021), digging information from fairy tales (Wulandari, 2020), and cursive writing skills (Utami, 2017). Research related to the effectiveness of the drill method on initial writing skills has previously been carried out (Gunawan & Heryanto, 2019).

In this study, the drill method was carried out through classroom action research which  
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(Sukmawati et al., 2023:134)



#### Population, Sample (Quantitative) and Selection of Participants/Key Informants (Qualitative)

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#### Abstrak

Penelitian yang menggunakan populasi, sekiranya populasi ramai dan tidak mungkin pengkaji mengkaji semua yang terdapat dalam populasi, disebabkan oleh dana, tenaga kerja dan masa yang terhad, pengkaji boleh menggunakan sampel yang diambil daripada populasi yang mewakili. Sampel kajian adalah sebagian dari populasi yang diambil sebagai sumber data dan dapat mewakili seluruh populasi. Teknik Disproportionate Stratified Random Sampling Persampelan Kelompok (Area Sampling) Teknik persampelan kawasan yang digunakan untuk menentukan sampel apabila objek yang dikaji atau sumber data adalah sangat besar. Untuk menentukan objek yang digunakan sebagai sumber data, persampelan adalah berdasarkan kawasan populasi yang ditetapkan. Dalam kajian kualitatif, informan dibahagikan kepada tiga iaitu: informan kunci, informan utama, dan informan pendukung. Informan kunci ialah informan yang mempunyai maklumat yang komprehensif tentang isu yang dibangkitkan oleh penyelidik. Pemilihan informan dalam kajian kualitatif ditentukan sepenuhnya oleh pengkaji, justeru dinamakan persampelan bertujuan (purposive sampling) iaitu memilih kes bermaklumat (information-rich cases) berdasarkan strategi dan objektif yang ditetapkan oleh pengkaji yang bilangannya bergantung kepada objektif dan sumber belajar.

**Kata Kunci:** populasi; sampel; informan

#### Abstract (English-Indonesia)

Research using a population, if the population is large and it is impossible for the reviewer to examine everything in the population, due to limited funds, manpower and time, the reviewer may use samples taken from a representative population. The study sample is part of the population taken as a data source and can represent the entire population. Disproportionate Stratified Random Sampling Technique Group Sampling (Area Sampling) The area sampling technique is used to determine the sample when the object being studied or the data source is very large. To determine the object used as a data source, sampling is based on the specified population area. In a qualitative study, informants were divided into three, namely: key informants, main informants, and supporting informants. Key informants are informants who have comprehensive information about the issues raised by investigators. The selection of informants in a qualitative study is determined entirely by the



stages to explore the essence of an idea or information and then draw a conclusion (Lexy, 2008). The author uses data analysis techniques in the form of content analysis because this type of research is a type of library research, where the data sources are in the form of books and documents as well as other forms of literature.

## Results and Discussion (70%)

### 1) Kuantitatif

#### a. Populasi

The population is a general field consisting of subjects/objects with certain qualities and characteristics determined by the reviewer to be studied and then conclusions drawn (Sugiyono, 2019). Therefore, the population is not all people, but also objects and other objects. Population is not only the number of objects or subjects, but all the characteristics possessed by objects or subjects.

The population is divided into two parts (Sugiyono, 2019), namely:

1) The target population is the population that has been identified based on the research problem and conclusions will be drawn from the research results of the population.

2) The survey population is the population included in this study. The population consists of the elements that are sampled, namely the elements that are sampled. The sampling frame is a list of all the sample elements in the sample population. This sampling element is taken using a sampling frame.

#### b. Sample

The sample is a small part of the number and characteristics of the population. If the population is large and the researcher cannot study everything in the population due to budget, human and time constraints, the

researcher can use a sample taken from a representative population.

The sample is a small part of the population taken according to certain procedures to represent the population (Somantri, 2006). Some members of the population are called samples (Nazir, 2005). Part of the members of a group (subject group) as a basis for obtaining information (or drawing conclusions) about the group (group) (Pasaribu, 1975). (Sugiyono, 2019) argued that "a sample is a small part of the quantity and characteristics possessed by a population". (Arikunto, 2002) states that the sample is part of the population (part or representative of the population studied).

The research sample is some of the population taken as a data source that represents the entire population. Therefore, it can be concluded that the sample is part of the data that is the subject of the population being sampled.

How to determine a satisfactory sample: an ideal sampling technique (method) has the characteristics of being able to provide an accurate picture of the population, can be determined accurately, is easy to apply, can contain extensive information, is reliable, at a low cost. Precision is the standard error, the population size minus the sample mean.

#### c. Sampling Technique

The sampling technique is a sampling technique for determining the sample to be used in an investigation (Suharsaputra, 2012). The sampling technique is shown in Figure 1. From the figure it can be seen that basically the sampling techniques can be grouped into two, namely probability sampling and capacity non-deterministic sampling.

Probability samples were taken from simple random samples, stratified proportional random sampling, stratified unbalanced random sampling, and area random sampling. Non-probability sampling

(Firmansyah & Dede, 2022:90-101)

## Teknik Pengambilan Sampel Umum dalam Metodologi Penelitian: Literature Review

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**ABSTRAK:** Artikel ini bertujuan untuk mengetahui teknik sampling umum dalam metode penelitian berdasarkan beberapa artikel internasional bereputasi. Untuk memenuhi tujuan tersebut, peneliti melakukan penelitian di tiga jurnal yang membahas tentang teknik pengambilan sampel. Metode yang digunakan dalam penelitian ini adalah jenis penelitian kepustakaan dengan pendekatan deskriptif kualitatif, dengan menggunakan metode analisis isi. Temuan penelitian menunjukkan bahwa ketiga artikel tersebut membahas dan menjelaskan teknik sampling umum dalam metodologi penelitian. Secara khusus perbedaannya terletak pada penjelasan poin-poin penting pemahaman atau beberapa tahapan yang dapat dilalui dalam teknik sampling. Selain itu juga, masing-masing isi naskah ke-3 artikel menjelaskan kelebihan dan kekurangan dari masing-masing teknik sampling berhubungan dengan bias dari keterwakilan populasi dari teknik sampling yang dipilih. Sementara satu naskah lebih jelas dilengkapi dengan alternatif solusi mengurangi bahkan meningkatkan keterwakilan populasi atas sampel yang diambil dengan metode yang dipilih.

**Keywords:** Teknik Pengambilan Sampel Umum, Metodologi Penelitian

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### 1. Pengambilan Sampel Probabilitas (*Probability Sampling*)

Probabilitas sampling berarti bahwa setiap item dalam populasi memiliki kesempatan yang sama untuk dimasukkan dalam sampel. Salah satu cara untuk melakukan pengambilan sampel acak adalah jika peneliti terlebih dahulu membuat kerangka sampel dan kemudian menggunakan program komputer generasi nomor acak untuk mengambil sampel dari kerangka sampel (Zikmund, 2000; Taherdoost, 2016).

Probabilitas atau pengambilan sampel acak memiliki kebebasan terbesar dari bias tetapi dapat mewakili sampel yang paling mahal dalam hal waktu dan energi untuk tingkat kesalahan pengambilan sampel tertentu (Brown, 1947; Taherdoost, 2016).

#### Sampel Acak Sederhana (*Simple Random Sampling*)

- 1) Diperlukan kerangka lengkap (daftar semua unit di seluruh populasi);
- 2) Dalam beberapa penelitian, seperti survei melalui wawancara pribadi, biaya untuk mendapatkan sampel bisa tinggi jika unit-unit tersebut tersebar secara geografis;
- 3) Kesalahan standar penduga bisa tinggi.

#### Kelebihan dan Kelemahan teknik sampel acak sederhana

- *Kelebihan:* mudah dipahami, hasil dapat diproyeksikan.
- *Kekurangannya:* Sulit untuk membangun kerangka sampling, mahal, presisi lebih rendah, tidak ada jaminan keterwakilan

#### Sampling Sistematis (*Sampling Systematic*)

Sampling sistematis adalah di mana setiap kasus ke-n setelah awal acak dipilih. Misalnya, jika mensurvei sampel konsumen, setiap konsumen kelima dapat dipilih dari sampel Anda. Keuntungan dari teknik sampling ini adalah kesederhanaannya.

#### Kelebihan dan Kelemahan teknik sampling sistematis

- *Kelebihan:* Dapat meningkatkan keterwakilan, lebih mudah diterapkan daripada pengambilan sampel acak sederhana, kerangka pengambilan sampel tidak selalu diperlukan.
- *Kekurangannya:* Dapat mengurangi keterwakilan.

#### Pengambilan Sampel Acak Bertingkat (*Stratified Random Sampling*)

*Stratified sampling* adalah di mana populasi dibagi menjadi strata (atau subkelompok) dan sampel acak diambil dari setiap subkelompok. Subgrup adalah kumpulan item alami. Subkelompok mungkin didasarkan pada ukuran perusahaan, jenis kelamin atau pekerjaan (untuk menyebutkan beberapa). Pengambilan sampel bertingkat sering digunakan di mana ada banyak variasi dalam suatu populasi. Tujuannya adalah untuk memastikan bahwa setiap strata terwakili secara memadai.

#### Kelebihan dan Kelemahan teknik pengambilan sampel acak bertingkat

- *Kelebihan:* Termasuk semua subpopulasi penting, presisi

- *Kekurangannya*: Sulit untuk memilih variabel stratifikasi yang relevan, tidak layak untuk stratifikasi pada banyak variabel, mahal

#### **Pengambilan Sampel Klaster (*Cluster sampling*)**

*Cluster sampling* adalah di mana seluruh populasi dibagi menjadi cluster atau kelompok. Selanjutnya, sampel acak diambil dari cluster ini, yang semuanya digunakan dalam sampel akhir (Wilson, 2014).

Tahapan untuk cluster sampling dapat diringkas sebagai berikut:

- 1) Pilih pengelompokan cluster untuk kerangka sampling, seperti jenis perusahaan atau wilayah geografis
- 2) Beri nomor masing-masing cluster
- 3) Pilih sampel menggunakan random sampling

#### **Kelebihan dan Kelemahan teknik pengambilan sampel klaster/kelompok**

- *Kelebihan*: Mudah diimplementasikan, hemat biaya
- *Kekurangannya*: Tidak tepat, sulit untuk menghitung hasil interpretasi

#### **Pengambilan Sampel Multi-Tahap (*Multi-stage Sampling*)**

Pengambilan sampel multi-tahap adalah proses perpindahan dari sampel yang luas ke sampel yang sempit, dengan menggunakan proses langkah demi langkah. Tujuan utama dari multi-stage sampling adalah untuk memilih sampel yang terkonsentrasi di beberapa wilayah geografis. Dimana ini dapat menghemat waktu dan biaya.

## **2. Pengambilan Sampel Non Probabilitas**

*Non probability sampling* sering dikaitkan dengan desain penelitian studi kasus dan penelitian kualitatif. Berkenaan dengan yang terakhir, studi kasus cenderung berfokus pada sampel kecil dan dimaksudkan untuk memeriksa fenomena kehidupan nyata, bukan untuk membuat kesimpulan statistik dalam kaitannya dengan populasi yang lebih luas (Yin, 2003). Sampel peserta atau kasus tidak perlu representatif, atau acak, tetapi diperlukan alasan yang jelas untuk memasukkan beberapa kasus atau individu daripada yang lain.

#### **Pengambilan Sampel Kuota (*Quota Sampling*)**

*Quota sampling* adalah teknik non random sampling dimana partisipan dipilih berdasarkan karakteristik yang telah ditentukan sebelumnya sehingga total sampel akan memiliki distribusi karakteristik yang sama dengan populasi yang lebih luas.

#### **Kelebihan dan Kelemahan teknik pengambilan sampel kuota**

- *Kelebihan*: Sampel dapat dikontrol untuk karakteristik tertentu
- *Kekurangannya*: Bias seleksi, tidak ada jaminan

#### **Pengambilan Sampel Bola Salju (*Snowball Sampling*)**

*Snowball sampling* adalah metode non random sampling yang menggunakan beberapa kasus untuk membantu mendorong kasus lain untuk mengambil bagian dalam penelitian, sehingga meningkatkan ukuran sampel. Pendekatan ini paling dapat diterapkan pada populasi kecil yang sulit diakses karena sifatnya yang tertutup, mis. perkumpulan rahasia dan profesi yang tidak dapat diakses (Brewerton & Millward, 2001; Taherdoost, 2016).

#### **Kelebihan dan Kelemahan teknik pengambilan sampel bola salju**

- *Kelebihan*: Dapat memperkirakan karakteristik langka
- *Kekurangannya*: Membuang-buang waktu

#### **Pengambilan Sampel Keinginan (*Convenience Sampling*)**

*Convenience sampling* adalah memilih peserta karena mereka sering tersedia dengan mudah. Biasanya, *convenience sampling* cenderung menjadi teknik sampling yang disukai di kalangan siswa karena murah dan pilihan yang mudah dibandingkan dengan teknik sampling lainnya (Ackoff, 1953; Taherdoost, 2016). *Convenience sampling* sering membantu mengatasi banyak keterbatasan yang terkait dengan penelitian.

#### **Kelebihan dan Kelemahan teknik pengambilan sampel keputusan**

- *Kelebihan*: Paling murah, paling tidak memakan waktu, paling nyaman
- *Kekurangannya*: Bias pemilihan, sampel tidak representatif, tidak direkomendasikan dengan penelitian deskriptif atau kasual.

#### **Pengambilan Sampel yang Bertujuan atau Pertimbangan (*Purposive or Judgment Sampling*)**

Pengambilan sampel purposive atau *judgemental* adalah strategi di mana orang atau peristiwa tertentu dipilih dengan sengaja untuk memberikan informasi penting yang tidak dapat diperoleh dari pilihan lain (Maxwell, 2012). Di sinilah peneliti memasukkan kasus atau peserta dalam sampel karena mereka percaya bahwa mereka memerlukan penyertaan (Taherdoost, 2016).

#### **Kelebihan dan Kelemahan teknik pengambilan sampel yang bertujuan atau pertimbangan**

- *Kelebihan*: Biaya rendah, nyaman, tidak memakan waktu, ideal untuk eksplorasi, desain penelitian.
- *Kekurangannya*: Tidak memungkinkan generalisasi, subjektif.

#### **Tahap 4: Menentukan Ukuran Sampel (*Determine Sample Size*)**

Untuk membuat generalisasi dari sampel acak dan menghindari kesalahan atau bias pengambilan sampel, sampel acak harus memiliki ukuran yang memadai. Apa yang memadai tergantung pada beberapa masalah yang sering membingungkan orang yang melakukan survei untuk pertama kalinya. Hal ini

menejelaskan kelebihan dan kontra (kelebihan atau kekurang) dari masing-masing teknik sampel.

#### Jenis Teknik Pengambilan Sampel

##### 1. Sampel Probabilita (*Probability Sampling*)

*Probability sampling* adalah setiap skema sampling di mana probabilitas memilih setiap individu adalah sama (atau setidaknya diketahui, sehingga dapat disesuaikan kembali secara matematis). Ini juga disebut pengambilan sampel acak. Mereka membutuhkan lebih banyak pekerjaan, tetapi jauh lebih akurat

##### 2. Sampel Non-Probabilitas (*Non-Probability Sampling*)

Teknik pengambilan sampel non-probabilitas sepenuhnya didasarkan pada penilaian.

Tabel 1. Jenis Teknik Sampling

Probability Sampling	Non-Probability Sampling
Simple Random Sampling	Quota Sampling
Systematic Sampling	Purposive Sampling
Stratified Sampling	Self-Selection Sampling
Cluster Sampling	Snowball Sampling

Sumber: Sharma (2017)

#### Pengambilan Sampel Probabilitas (*Probability Sampling*)

##### 1. Simple Random Sampling (Sampel Acak Sederhana)

Dalam teknik ini, setiap anggota populasi memiliki peluang yang sama untuk dipilih sebagai subjek. Seluruh proses pengambilan sampel dilakukan dalam satu langkah dengan masing-masing subjek dipilih secara independen dari anggota populasi lainnya.

###### 1) Keuntungan Pengambilan Sampel Acak Sederhana

- Salah satu hal terbaik tentang pengambilan sampel acak sederhana adalah kemudahannya pengumpulannya. Ini juga dianggap sebagai cara yang adil untuk memilih sampel dari populasi tertentu karena setiap anggota diberi kesempatan yang sama untuk dipilih.
- Fitur kunci lain dari sampling acak sederhana adalah keterwakilannya dari populasi. Secara teoritis, satu-satunya hal yang dapat mengkompromikan representasinya adalah keberuntungan. Jika sampel tidak mewakili populasi, variasi acak disebut kesalahan sampling.
- Pemilihan acak yang tidak bias dan sampel yang representatif penting untuk menarik kesimpulan dari hasil penelitian. Ingatlah bahwa salah satu tujuan penelitian adalah untuk dapat membuat kesimpulan tentang populasi dari hasil yang diperoleh dari sampel. Karena keterwakilan sampel yang diperoleh dengan sampling acak

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seederhana, masuk akal untuk menggeneralisasi dari hasil sampel kembali ke populasi.

###### 2) Kekurangan Pengambilan Sampel Acak Sederhana

Salah satu keterbatasan yang paling jelas dari metode pengambilan sampel acak sederhana adalah kebutuhannya akan daftar lengkap semua anggota populasi. Harap diingat bahwa daftar populasi harus lengkap dan terbaru. Daftar ini biasanya tidak tersedia untuk populasi besar. Dalam kasus seperti itu, lebih bijaksana untuk menggunakan teknik sampling lain.

#### 2. Pengambilan Sampel Sistematis

Misalkan  $N$  unit dalam populasi diberi nomor 1 sampai  $N$  dalam beberapa urutan. Untuk memilih sampel pada  $N$  unit, kami mengambil unit secara acak dari  $K$  unit pertama dan setiap unit kita sesudahnya. Misalnya, jika  $K$  adalah 15 dan jika unit pertama yang diambil adalah angka 13, unit berikutnya adalah angka 28, 43, 58 dan seterusnya. Pemilihan unit pertama menentukan keseluruhan sampel. Jenis ini disebut sampel sistematis setiap kit.

##### 1) Kelebihan Pengambilan Sampel Sistematis

- Menyebarkan sampel secara lebih merata ke seluruh populasi.
- Lebih mudah dilakukan daripada sampel acak sederhana.

##### 2) Kekurangan Pengambilan Sampel Sistematis,

Proses seleksi dapat berinteraksi dengan periodik tersembunyi sifat dalam populasi. Jika teknik pengambilan sampel bertepatan dengan periodisitas sifat, teknik pengambilan sampel tidak akan lagi acak dan keterwakilan sampel terganggu.

#### 3. Pengambilan Sampel Bertingkat

Suatu metode pengambilan sampel yang melibatkan pembagian populasi menjadi kelompok-kelompok yang lebih kecil yang dikenal strata. Dalam *stratified random sampling*, strata dibentuk berdasarkan atribut atau karakteristik bersama anggota. Sebuah sampel acak dari setiap strata diambil dalam jumlah yang sebanding dengan ukuran strata jika dibandingkan dengan populasi. Subset dari strata ini kemudian dikumpulkan dari sampel acak.

##### 1) Kelebihan Stratified Sampling

Tujuan dari stratified random sample adalah untuk mengurangi potensi bias manusia dalam pemilihan kasus untuk dimasukkan dalam sampel. Akibatnya, sampel acak bertingkat memberi kita sampel yang sangat mewakili populasi yang sedang dipelajari, dengan asumsi bahwa ada data yang hilang terbatas. Karena unit yang dipilih untuk dimasukkan dalam sampel dipilih menggunakan metode probabilitas, pengambilan sampel acak berlapis memungkinkan kita untuk membuat generalisasi (yaitu kesimpulan statistik) dari sampel ke populasi. Ini adalah keuntungan utama karena generalisasi seperti itu lebih cenderung dianggap memiliki validitas eksternal.

## 2) Kekurangan Stratified Sampling

Stratified sampling tidak berguna ketika populasi tidak dapat dipartisi secara mendalam menjadi subkelompok yang terpisah-pisah. Akan menjadi kesalahan penerapan teknik untuk membuat ukuran sampel subkelompok proporsional dengan jumlah data yang tersedia dari subkelompok, daripada menskalakan ukuran sampel ke ukuran subkelompok (atau variansnya, jika diketahui bervariasi secara signifikan, misalnya melalui uji F). Tanggal yang mewakili setiap subkelompok dianggap sama pentingnya jika variasi yang dicurigai di antara mereka memerlukan pengambilan sampel bertingkat. Sebaliknya, jika varians sangat bervariasi, di antara subkelompok sehingga data perlu distratifikasi berdasarkan varians, tidak ada cara untuk membuat ukuran sampel subkelompok proporsional (pada saat yang sama) dengan ukuran subkelompok dengan dijumlah penduduk. (Apa cara paling efisien untuk mempartisi sumber daya pengambilan sampel di antara kelompok-kelompok yang bervariasi baik dalam cara maupun variansnya.

## 4. Sampling Kelompok (*Cluster Sampling or Multi-Stage Sampling*)

Kelompok yang terbentuk secara alami dipilih sebagai sampel dalam *cluster sampling*. Semua metode pengambilan sampel probabilistik lainnya (seperti pengambilan sampel acak sederhana, pengambilan sampel bertingkat) memerlukan kerangka pengambilan sampel dari semua unit pengambilan sampel, tetapi pengambilan sampel kluster tidak memerlukan itu. Setelah cluster dipilih, mereka dikompilasi ke dalam bingkai. Sekarang, berbagai penelitian dan pengamatan probabilistik dilakukan pada kerangka ini dan membutuhkan kesimpulan yang ditarik.

### 1) Kelebihan Pengambilan Sampel Cluster

- **Ekonomi:**  
Dua perhatian utama pengeluaran dalam hal pengambilan sampel adalah perjalanan dan pencatatan. Mereka sangat berkurang dalam hal pengambilan sampel kluster. Contoh: Mengumpulkan informasi penelitian tentang setiap rumah tangga di kota akan sangat sulit, sedangkan mengumpulkan informasi tentang berbagai blok kota akan lebih mudah. Di sini perjalanan serta upaya daftar akan sangat berkurang.
- **Variabilitas yang Dikurangi:**  
Ketika Anda mempertimbangkan perkiraan dengan metode lain dari pengambilan sampel probabilistik, variabilitas yang berkurang dalam hasil diamati. Ini mungkin bukan situasi yang ideal setiap saat. Peningkatan variabilitas dalam hasil diamati dalam pengambilan sampel kluster.
- **Kelayakan:**  
Sekali lagi, seperti yang sudah disebutkan sebelumnya, *cluster sampling* adalah metode pengambilan sampel probabilistik yang memperhitungkan populasi besar. Karena kelompok ini sangat

*Firmansyah, Dede*

besar, mengembangkan teknik pengambilan sampel lainnya akan menjadi tugas yang sangat sulit. Pengambilan sampel kluster sangat layak dilakukan ketika Anda berhadapan dengan populasi yang besar.

### 2) Kekurangan Pengambilan Sampel Cluster

- **Biased Sampling:** pengambilan sampel yang bias  
Jika kelompok dalam populasi yang dipilih sebagai sampel *cluster* memiliki pendapat yang bias maka seluruh populasi disimpulkan memiliki pendapat yang sama. Ini mungkin bukan kasus yang sebenarnya. Ini adalah kelemahan utama sejauh menyangkut pengambilan sampel kluster.
- **Sampling Errors:** kesalahan pengambilan sampel  
Metode probabilistik lainnya memberikan *error* yang lebih kecil daripada cluster sampling. Untuk alasan ini, pengambilan sampel kluster tidak disarankan untuk pemula.

## Pengambilan Sampel Non-Probabilitas (*Non Probability Sampling*)

### 1. Pengambilan Sampel Kuota (*Quota Sampling*)

Dengan pengambilan sampel kuota proporsional, tujuannya adalah untuk mendapatkan sampel di mana strata (kelompok) yang dipelajari (misalnya siswa laki-laki vs perempuan) sebanding dengan populasi yang diteliti. Jika kita menguji perbedaan siswa laki-laki dan perempuan.

#### 1) Kelebihan Pengambilan Sampel Kuota

Pengambilan sampel kuota sangat berguna ketika Peneliti tidak dapat memperoleh sampel probabilitas, tetapi Peneliti masih mencoba membuat sampel yang mewakili populasi yang sedang dipelajari. Dalam hal ini, ini adalah ekuivalen berbasis nonprobabilitas dari sampel acak bertingkat. Tidak seperti teknik pengambilan sampel probabilitas, khususnya pengambilan sampel acak berlapis, pengambilan sampel kuota jauh lebih cepat dan mudah dilakukan karena tidak memerlukan kerangka pengambilan sampel dan penggunaan teknik pengambilan sampel acak yang ketat (yaitu teknik pengambilan sampel probabilitas).

Hal ini membuat pengambilan sampel kuota populer di disertasi tingkat sarjana dan magister di mana ada kebutuhan untuk membagi populasi yang dipelajari ke dalam strata (kelompok). Sampel kuota meningkatkan representasi strata (kelompok) tertentu dalam populasi, serta memastikan bahwa strata ini tidak terlalu terwakili.

#### 2) Kekurangan Pengambilan Sampel Cluster

Dalam pengambilan sampel kuota, sampel tidak dipilih menggunakan pemilihan acak, yang membuat tidak mungkin untuk menentukan kemungkinan kesalahan sampling. Memang, ada kemungkinan bahwa pemilihan unit yang akan dimasukkan dalam sampel akan didasarkan pada pertimbangan kemudahan akses dan biaya, yang mengakibatkan bias pengambilan sampel. Ini juga berarti bahwa tidak mungkin

membuat generalisasi (yaitu kesimpulan statistik) dari sampel ke populasi. Hal ini dapat menyebabkan masalah validitas eksternal. Selain itu, dengan pengambilan sampel kuota harus dimungkinkan untuk secara jelas membagi populasi ke dalam strata; yaitu, setiap unit dari populasi hanya boleh dimiliki oleh satu strata.

## 2. Purposive Sampling

*Purposive sampling*, juga dikenal sebagai pengambilan sampel penilaian, selektif atau subjektif, mencerminkan sekelompok teknik pengambilan sampel yang mengandalkan penilaian peneliti ketika datang untuk memilih unit (misalnya orang, kasus/organisasi, peristiwa, potongan data) yang akan dipelajari. Teknik *purposive sampling* ini meliputi sampling variasi maksimum, sampling homogen dan sampling kasus tipikal; pengambilan sampel kasus ekstrem (menyimpang), pengambilan sampel populasi total dan pengambilan sampel pakar.

### 1) Kelebihan Pengambilan Sampel Purposive

- Sementara berbagai teknik *purposive sampling* masing-masing memiliki tujuan yang berbeda, mereka dapat memberikan para peneliti pembenaran untuk membuat generalisasi dari sampel yang sedang dipelajari, apakah generalisasi tersebut bersifat teoritis, analitik dan logis. Namun, karena masing-masing jenis *purposive sampling* ini berbeda dalam hal sifat dan kemampuan untuk membuat generalisasi, Anda harus membaca artikel tentang masing-masing teknik *purposive sampling* ini untuk memahami keuntungan relatifnya.
- Desain penelitian kualitatif dapat melibatkan beberapa fase, dengan setiap fase membangun fase sebelumnya. Dalam kasus seperti itu, jenis teknik pengambilan sampel yang berbeda mungkin diperlukan pada setiap fase. Pengambilan sampel *purposive* berguna dalam kasus ini karena menyediakan berbagai teknik pengambilan sampel non-probabilitas bagi peneliti untuk menggambar. Misalnya pengambilan sampel kasus kritis dapat digunakan untuk menyelidiki apakah suatu fenomena layak diselidiki lebih lanjut, sebelum mengadopsi pendekatan pengambilan sampel ahli untuk memeriksa masalah spesifik lebih lanjut.

### 2) Kelemahan Pengambilan Sampel Purposive

- *Sample purposive*, terlepas dari jenis *purposive sampling* yang digunakan, dapat sangat rentan terhadap bias peneliti. Gagasan bahwa sampel *purposive* telah dibuat berdasarkan penilaian peneliti bukanlah pertahanan yang baik dalam hal mengurangi kemungkinan bias peneliti, terutama bila dibandingkan dengan teknik pengambilan sampel probabilitas yang dirancang untuk mengurangi bias tersebut. Namun, komponen subjektif yang menghakimi dari pengambilan sampel tujuan ini hanya merupakan kerugian besar ketika penilaian semacam itu tidak dipahami dengan baik atau tidak dipertimbangkan dengan baik; yaitu, di mana

penilaian belum didasarkan pada kriteria yang jelas, apakah kerangka teoritis, elisitasi ahli atau beberapa kriteria lain yang diterima.

- Sifat pemilihan unit berdasarkan subjektif dan non-probabilitas (yaitu memilih orang, kasus/organisasi, dll.) dalam pengambilan sampel bertujuan berarti sulit untuk mempertahankan keterwakilan sampel. Dengan kata lain, mungkin sulit untuk meyakinkan pembaca bahwa penilaian yang Anda gunakan untuk memilih unit yang akan dipelajari adalah tepat. Untuk alasan ini, mungkin juga sulit untuk meyakinkan pembaca bahwa penelitian yang menggunakan *purposive sampling* mencapai generalisasi teoritis/analitik/logis. Lagi pula, jika unit yang berbeda telah dipilih, akankah hasil dan generalisasi apa pun?

## 3. Pengambilan Sampel Pilihan Sendiri (*Self-Selection Sampling*)

*Self-selection sampling* adalah tepat ketika kita ingin membiarkan unit atau kasus, baik individu atau organisasi untuk memilih untuk mengambil bagian dalam penelitian atas kemauan mereka sendiri. Komponen kuncinya adalah bahwa subjek penelitian secara sukarela mengambil bagian dalam penelitian daripada didekati oleh peneliti secara langsung.

### 1) Kelebihan Pengambilan Sampel Pilihan Sendiri

- Ini dapat mengurangi jumlah waktu yang diperlukan untuk mencari unit (atau kasus) yang sesuai; yaitu, individu atau organisasi yang memenuhi kriteria seleksi yang diperlukan untuk sampel Anda.
- Unit atau kasus potensial kemungkinan besar akan berkomitmen untuk mengambil bagian dalam penelitian, yang dapat membantu meningkatkan kehadiran dan kemauan yang lebih besar untuk memberikan lebih banyak wawasan tentang fenomena yang sedang dipelajari.

### 2) Kelemahan pengambilan sampel pilihan sendiri

Karena subjek penelitian potensial (atau organisasi) secara sukarela mengambil bagian dalam survei:

- Kemungkinan ada tingkat bias seleksi diri. Misalnya, keputusan untuk berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini mungkin mencerminkan beberapa bias yang melekat dalam karakteristik/sifat peserta (misalnya, seorang karyawan dengan 'keriput di bahunya' yang ingin memberikan pendapat).
- Hal ini dapat menyebabkan sampel tidak mewakili populasi yang sedang dipelajari atau melebih-lebihkan beberapa temuan tertentu dari penelitian.

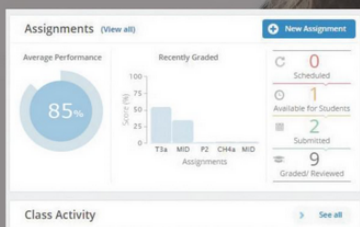
## 4. Pengambilan Sampel Bola Salju

Dalam penelitian sosiologi dan statistik, pengambilan sampel bola salju atau pengambilan sampel berantai, pengambilan sampel rujukan berantai adalah teknik pengambilan sampel non-probabilitas di mana subjek penelitian yang ada

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# Research Methods for Business

A Skill-Building Approach

SEVENTH EDITION

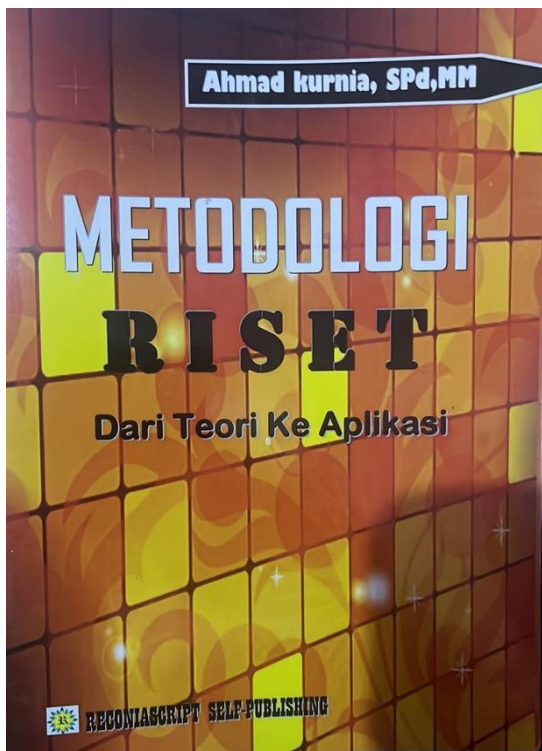
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Sample sizes larger than **30** and less than **500** are appropriate for most research. 2. Where samples are to be broken into subsamples (males/females, juniors/seniors, etc.), a minimum sample size of **30** for each category is necessary. 3.

(Kurnia, 2014, p. 108)



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presiden Jokowi dimata masyarakat Jawa Barat, teknik pengambilan sampel dengan area sampling sangat tepat. Prosedurnya :

- 1) Susun *sampling frame* yang menggambarkan peta wilayah (Jawa Barat) - Kabupaten, Kotamadya, Kecamatan, Desa.
- 2) Tentukan wilayah yang akan dijadikan sampel (Kabupaten ?, Kotamadya?, Kecamatan?, Desa?)
- 3) Tentukan berapa wilayah yang akan dijadikan sampel penelitiannya.
- 4) Pilih beberapa wilayah untuk dijadikan sampel dengan cara acak atau random.
- 5) Kalau ternyata masih terlampau banyak responden yang harus diambil datanya, bagi lagi wilayah yang terpilih ke dalam sub wilayah.

## 2. Nonprobability/Nonrandom Sampling (Sampel Tidak Acak)

Seperti telah diuraikan sebelumnya, jenis sampel ini tidak dipilih secara acak. Tidak semua unsur atau elemen populasi mempunyai kesempatan sama untuk bisa dipilih menjadi sampel. Unsur populasi yang terpilih menjadi sampel bisa disebabkan karena kebetulan atau karena faktor lain yang sebelumnya sudah direncanakan oleh peneliti.

### a). Convenience Sampling

Dalam memilih sampel, peneliti tidak mempunyai pertimbangan lain kecuali berdasarkan kemudahan saja. Seseorang diambil sebagai sampel karena kebetulan orang tadi ada di situ atau kebetulan dia mengenal orang tersebut. Oleh karena itu ada beberapa penulis menggunakan istilah *accidental sampling* - tidak disengaja - atau juga *captive sample* (*man-on-the-street*) Jenis sampel ini sangat baik jika dimanfaatkan untuk penelitian penjajagan, yang kemudian diikuti oleh penelitian lanjutan yang sampelnya diambil secara acak (*random*). Beberapa kasus penelitian yang menggunakan jenis sampel ini, hasilnya ternyata kurang objektif.

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### b). Purposive Sampling

Sesuai dengan namanya, sampel diambil dengan maksud atau tujuan tertentu. Seseorang atau sesuatu diambil sebagai sampel karena peneliti menganggap bahwa seseorang atau sesuatu tersebut memiliki informasi yang diperlukan bagi penelitiannya. Dua jenis sampel ini dikenal dengan *nama judgement dan quota sampling*.

### c). Judgment Sampling

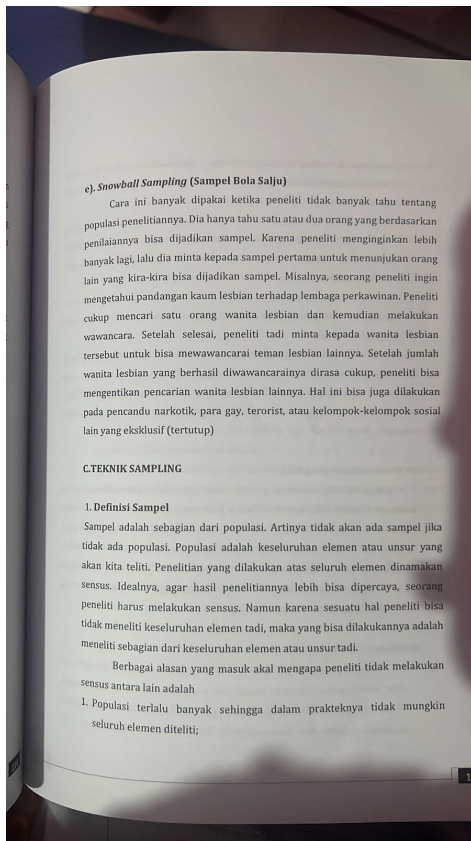
Sampel dipilih berdasarkan penilaian peneliti bahwa dia adalah pihak yang paling baik untuk dijadikan sampel penelitiannya. Misalnya untuk memperoleh data tentang bagaimana satu proses produksi direncanakan oleh suatu perusahaan, maka manajer produksi merupakan orang yang terbaik untuk bisa memberikan informasi. Jadi, *judgment sampling* umumnya memilih sesuatu atau seseorang menjadi sampel karena mereka mempunyai "information rich".

Dalam program pengembangan produk (*product development*), biasanya yang dijadikan sampel adalah karyawannya sendiri, dengan pertimbangan bahwa kalau karyawan sendiri tidak puas terhadap produk baru yang akan dipasarkan, maka jangan terlalu berharap pasar akan menerima produk itu dengan baik. (Cooper dan Emory, 1992).

### d). Quota Sampling

Teknik sampel ini adalah bentuk dari sampel distratifikasikan secara proposional, namun tidak dipilih secara acak melainkan secara kebetulan saja. Misalnya, di sebuah kantor terdapat pegawai laki-laki 60% dan perempuan 40%. Jika seorang peneliti ingin mewawancarai 30 orang pegawai dari kedua jenis kelamin tadi maka dia harus mengambil sampel pegawai laki-laki sebanyak 18 orang sedangkan pegawai perempuan 12 orang. Sekali lagi teknik pengambilan ketiga puluh sampel tadi tidak dilakukan secara acak, melainkan secara kebetulan saja.

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(Haegele & Hodge, 2015:71)

## METHODOLOGY

# Quantitative Methodology: A Guide for Emerging Physical Education and Adapted Physical Education Researchers

Justin A. Haegele and Samuel R. Hodge

### Abstract

*Emerging professionals, particularly senior-level undergraduate and graduate students in kinesiology who have an interest in physical education for individuals with and without disabilities, should understand the basic assumptions of the quantitative research paradigm. Knowledge of basic assumptions is critical for conducting, analyzing, and presenting research of high quality in this arena. In this tutorial paper, we present information essential to understanding the assumptions undergirding the quantitative research paradigm including the logic of hypothesis testing and sampling. Moreover, we describe key aspects of true and quasi-experimental research designs commonly used in quantitative studies.*

Research paradigms are undergirded by a set of assumptions (e.g., epistemology and ontology) that influence researchers' decisions and actions. Assumptions can be defined as a set of beliefs that guide the way in which researchers approach their investigations (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). Fraenkel et al. (2012) described assumptions as being "related to the views they [researchers] hold concerning the nature of reality, the relationship of the research to

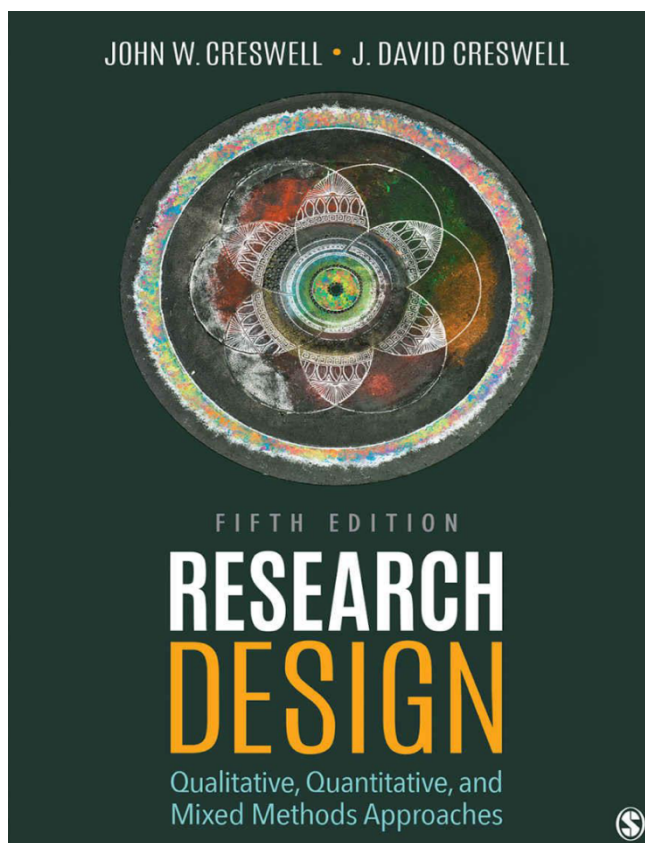
Justin A. Haegele is an assistant professor, Department of Human Movement Sciences, Old Dominion University. Samuel R. Hodge is a professor, Department of Human Sciences, The Ohio State University. Please send author correspondence to [jhaegele@odu.edu](mailto:jhaegele@odu.edu)

action allows experimental researchers to go beyond descriptive and correlational information and determine what causes the phenomenon to occur (Fraenkel et al., 2012). To establish a cause-and-effect relationship (a) the cause must precede the effect in time, (b) the cause and effect must be correlated with each other, and (c) the relationship between cause and effect cannot be explained by another variable (Thomas et al., 2005). Another characteristic of experimental designs is they typically involve at least two groups of participants. One group acts as the experimental group, who receives the intervention, and the other group acts as the comparison group (may receive an alternative intervention) or as the control group, who does not receive the intervention (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

In experimental research, one of the most important concepts is the control, or elimination or minimization, of threats to the validity of the results. Threats to validity can effect both *internal validity* (i.e., the degree to which observed differences on the dependent variable can be attributed directly to the independent variable) and *external validity* (i.e., the degree to which results are generalizable). To gain high internal validity, the researchers must control for all variables to eliminate other explanations for change (Thomas et al., 2005). When the researcher does this, though, the study will lose degrees of external validity because of the lack of ecological resemblance. Common threats to internal validity include (a) history, (b) maturation of participants, (c) testing effects, (d) instrumentation, (e) statistical regression, (f) selection bias, (g) experimental mortality, (h) selection-maturation interaction, and (i) expectancy (Thomas et al., 2005). One way to control for threats to internal validity is through randomization, which is discussed briefly in the next section on true experimental research. Placebos, blind, and double-blind studies are also strategies useful in controlling for threats to internal validity, but are not commonly used in physical education research. Some threats to internal validity, such as experimental mortality, are uncontrollable.

As with internal validity, external validity has several threats that can affect the ability for researchers to generalize results to other participants or settings. External validity threats include (a) reactive or interactive effects of testing, (b) interaction of selection bias and the experimental treatment, (c) reactive effects of experimental arrangements, and (d) multiple treatment interference (Thomas et al., 2005). External validity is typically controlled by selecting a sample

## Creswell & Creswell (2018:250)



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## Instrumentation

As part of rigorous data collection, the proposal developer also provides detailed information about the actual survey instruments to be used in the study. Consider the following:

- **Name the survey instruments used to collect data.** Discuss whether you used an instrument designed for this research, a modified instrument, or an instrument developed by someone else. For example, if you aim to measure perceptions of stress over the last month, you could use the 10-item Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983) as your stress perceptions instrument in your survey design. Many survey instruments, including the PSS, can be acquired and used for free as long as you cite the original source of the instrument. But in some cases, researchers have made the use of their instruments proprietary, requiring a fee for use. Instruments are increasingly being delivered through a multitude of online survey products now available (e.g., Qualtrics, Survey Monkey). Although these products can be costly, they also can be quite helpful for accelerating and improving the survey research process. For example, researchers can create their own surveys quickly using custom templates and post them on websites or e-mail them to participants to complete. These software programs facilitate data collection into organized spreadsheets for data analysis, reducing data entry errors and accelerating hypothesis testing.
- **Validity of scores using the instrument.** To use an existing instrument, describe the established validity of scores obtained from past use of the instrument. This means reporting efforts by authors to establish validity in quantitative research—whether you can draw meaningful and useful inferences from scores on the instruments. The three traditional forms of validity to look for are (a) content validity (Do the items measure the content they were intended to measure?), (b) predictive or concurrent validity (Do scores predict a criterion measure? Do results correlate with other results?), and (c) construct validity (Do items measure hypothetical constructs or concepts?). In more recent studies, construct validity has become the overriding objective in validity, and it has focused on whether the scores serve a useful purpose and have positive consequences when they are used in practice (Humbley & Zumbo, 1996). Establishing the validity of the scores in a survey helps researchers to identify whether an instrument might be a good one to use in survey research. This form of validity is different from identifying the threats to validity in experimental research, as discussed later in this chapter.
- **Reliability of scores on the instrument.** Also mention whether scores resulting from past use of the instrument demonstrate acceptable reliability. Reliability in this context refers to the consistency or repeatability of an instrument. The most important form of reliability for multi-item instruments is the instrument's internal consistency—which is the degree to which sets of items on an instrument behave in the same way. This is important because your instrument



## Interpretation

**Interpretation in qualitative research** involves several procedures: summarizing the overall findings, comparing the findings to the literature, discussing a personal view of the findings, and stating limitations and future research. In terms of overall findings, the question "What were the lessons learned?" captures the essence of this idea (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). These lessons could be the researcher's personal interpretation, couched in the understanding that the inquirer brings to the study from a personal culture, history, and experiences.

It could also be a meaning derived from a comparison of the findings with information gleaned from the literature or theories. In this way, authors suggest that the findings confirm past information or diverge from it. It can also suggest new questions that need to be asked—questions raised by the data and analysis that the inquirer had not foreseen earlier in the study. Ethnographers can end a study, Wolcott (1994) said, by stating further questions. The questioning approach is also used in transformative approaches to qualitative research. Moreover, when qualitative researchers use a theoretical lens, they can form interpretations that call for action agendas for reform and change. Researchers might describe how the narrative outcome will be compared with theories and the general literature on the topic. In many qualitative articles, researchers also discuss the literature at the end of the study (see [Chapter 2](#)). Thus, interpretation in qualitative research can take many forms: be adapted for different types of designs; and be flexible to convey personal, research-based, and action meanings.

Finally, part of interpretation involves suggesting limitations in a project and advancing future research directions. Limitations often attach to the methods of a study (e.g., inadequate sample size, difficulty in recruitment), and they represent weaknesses in the research that the author acknowledges so that future studies will not suffer from the same problems. Suggestions for future research propose research themes that studies might address to advance the literature, to remedy some of the weaknesses in the present study, or to advance new leads or directions that can point to useful applications or knowledge.

## Verification

In ensuring internal validity, the following strategies will be employed:

1. Triangulation of data—Data will be collected through multiple sources to include interviews, observations and document analysis;
2. Member checking—The informant will serve as a check throughout the analysis process. An ongoing dialogue regarding my **interpretations** of the informant's reality and meanings will ensure the truth value of the data;
3. Long terms and repeated observations at the research site—Regular and repeated observations of similar phenomena and settings will occur on-site over a four month period of time;
4. Peer examination—a doctoral student and graduate assistant in the Educational Psychology Department will serve as a peer examiner;
5. Participatory modes of research—The informant will be involved in most phases of this study, from the design of the project to checking **interpretations** and conclusions; and
6. Clarification of researcher bias—At the outset of this study researcher bias will be articulated in writing in the dissertation proposal under the heading, "The Researcher's Role."

The primary strategy utilized in this project to ensure external validity will be the provision of rich, thick, detailed descriptions so that anyone interested in transferability will have a solid framework for comparison (Merriam, 1988). Three techniques to ensure reliability will be employed in this study. First, the researcher will provide a detailed account of the focus of the study, the researcher's role, the informant's position and basis for selection, and the context from which data will be gathered (LeCompte & Goetz, 1984). Second, triangulation or multiple methods of data collection and analysis will be used, which strengthens reliability as well as internal validity (Merriam, 1988). Finally, data collection and analysis strategies will be reported in detail in order to provide a clear and accurate picture of the methods used in this study. All phases of this project will be subject to scrutiny by an external auditor who is experienced in qualitative research methods. *[Author identified strategies of validity to be used in the study.]*



## The Researcher's Role and Reflexivity

As mentioned in the list of characteristics, qualitative research is **interpretative** research; the inquirer is typically involved in a sustained and intensive experience with participants. This introduces a range of strategic, ethical, and personal issues into the qualitative research process (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 2013). With these concerns in mind, inquirers explicitly identify reflexively their biases, values, and personal background, such as gender, history, culture, and socioeconomic status (SES) that shape their **interpretations** formed during a study. In addition, gaining entry to a research site and the ethical issues that might arise are also elements of the researcher's role.

Reflexivity requires commenting on two important points:

- **Past experiences.** Include statements about past experiences with the research problem or with the participants or setting that help the reader understand the connection between the researchers and the study. These experiences may involve participation in the setting, past educational or work experiences, or culture, ethnicity, race, SES, or other demographics that tie the researchers directly to the study.
- **How past experiences shape **interpretations**.** Be explicit, then, about how these experiences may potentially shape the **interpretations** the researchers make during the study. For example, the experiences may cause researchers to lean toward certain themes, to actively look for evidence to support their positions, and to create favorable or unfavorable conclusions about the sites or participants.

How can reflexive thinking be incorporated into your qualitative study (Creswell, 2016)? You can write notes about your personal experiences during the study. These notes might include observations about the process of data collection, hunches about what you are learning, and concerns about reactions of participants to the research process. These ideas can be written as **memos**—notes written during the research process that reflect on the process or that help shape the development of codes and themes. In writing these reflective notes, how do you know whether you are being sufficiently reflexive for a qualitative study? Sufficient reflexivity occurs when researchers record notes during the process of research, reflect on their own personal experiences, and consider how their personal experiences may shape their **interpretation** of results. Also, qualitative researchers need to limit their discussions about personal experiences so that they do not override the importance of the content or methods in a study.

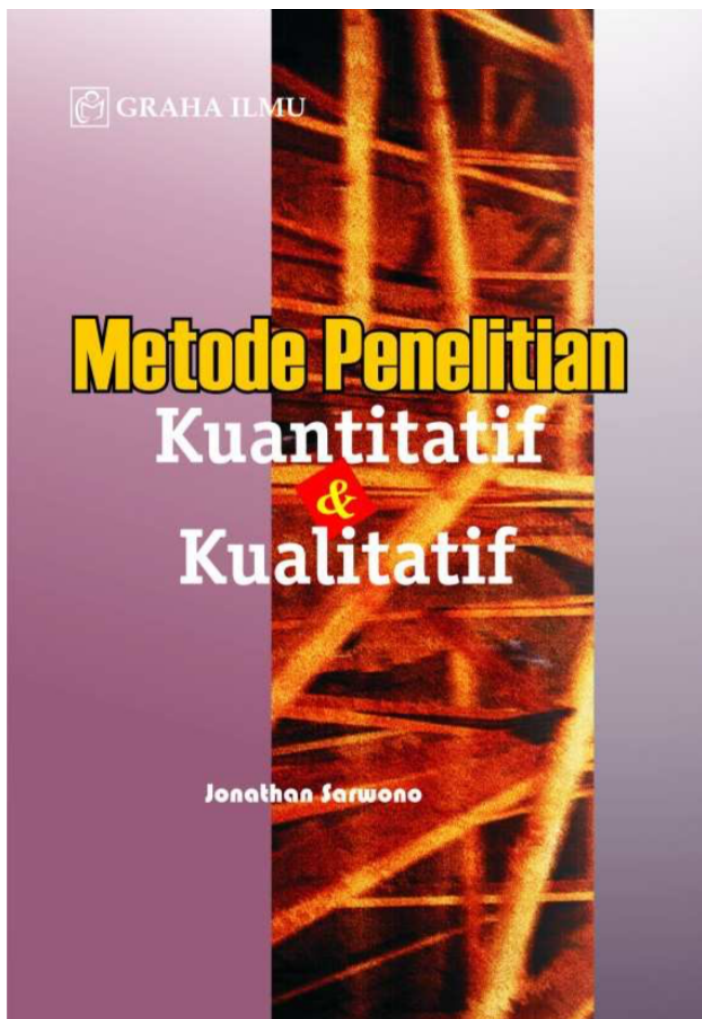
Another aspect of reflecting on the role of the researcher is to be aware of connections between the researcher and the participants or the research sites that may unduly influence the researcher's **interpretations**. "Backyard" research (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) involves studying the researcher's own organization, or friends, or immediate work setting. This often leads to compromises in the researcher's ability to disclose information and raises issues of an imbalance of power between the inquirer and the participants. When

## Interpreting Results and Writing a Discussion Section

An **interpretation in quantitative research** means that the researcher draws conclusions from the results for the research questions, hypotheses, and the larger meaning of the results. This **interpretation** involves several steps:

- Report how the results addressed the research question or hypothesis. The *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (American Psychological Association [APA], 2010) suggests that the most complete meaning of the results come from reporting extensive description, **statistical significance testing**, confidence intervals, and effect sizes. Thus, it is important to clarify the meaning of these last three reports of the results. The statistical significance testing reports an assessment as to whether the observed scores reflect a pattern other than chance. A statistical test is considered to be significant if the results are unlikely by chance to have occurred, and the null hypothesis of "no effect" can be rejected. The researcher sets a rejection level of "no effect," such as  $p = 0.001$ , and then assesses whether the test statistic falls into this level of rejection. Typically results will be summarized as "the analysis of variance revealed a statistically significant difference between men and women in terms of attitudes toward banning smoking in restaurants  $F(2, 6) = 8.55, p = 0.001$ ."
- Two forms of **practical evidence** of the results should also be reported: (a) the effect size and (b) the confidence interval. A **confidence interval** is a range of values (an interval) that describes a level of uncertainty around an estimated observed score. A confidence interval shows how good an estimated score might be. A confidence interval of 95%, for example, indicates that 95 out of 100 times the observed score will fall in the range of values. An **effect size** identifies the strength of the conclusions about group differences or the relationships among variables in quantitative studies. It is a descriptive statistic that is not dependent on whether the relationship in the data represents the true population. The calculation of effect size varies for different statistical tests: it can be used to explain the variance between two or more variables or the differences among means for groups. It shows the practical significance of the results apart from inferences being applied to the population.

Sarwono (2006)



# Metode Penelitian Kuantitatif & Kualitatif

Jonathan Sarwono

## METODE PENELITIAN KUANTITATIF DAN KUALITATIF

Oleh : Jonathan Sarwono

Edisi Pertama

Cetakan Pertama, 2006

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#### METODE PENELITIAN KUANTITATIF DAN KUALITATIF/

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1. Sosial

1. Judul

## MENGIDENTIFIKASI DAN MEMBERI NAMA VARIABEL

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### 7.1 DEFINISI

Variabel didefinisikan sebagai "*something that may vary or differ*" (Brown, 1998:7). Definisi lain yang lebih detil mengatakan bahwa variabel "*is simply symbol or a concept that can assume any one of a set of values*" (Davis, 1998:23).

Definisi pertama menyatakan bahwa variabel ialah sesuatu yang berbeda atau bervariasi, penekanan kata sesuatu diperjelas dalam definisi kedua yaitu simbol atau konsep yang diasumsikan sebagai seperangkat nilai-nilai. Definisi abstrak tersebut akan lebih jelas bila diberi contoh sebagai berikut:

- a. Hubungan antara intelegen dengan prestasi belajar
- b. Pengaruh warna terhadap minat beli sepeda motor
- c. Hubungan antara promosi dengan volume penjualan

Contoh-contoh variabel ialah: intelegen, prestasi belajar, warna, minat beli, promosi dan volume penjualan

Brown (2003:3)

# LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

## Principles and Classroom Practices



H. DOUGLAS BROWN

motivating assessment procedures that are appropriate for their context and designed to offer constructive feedback to your students.

Before we look at tests and test design in second language education, we need to understand three basic interrelated concepts: testing, assessment, and teaching. Notice that the title of this book is *Language Assessment*, not *Language Testing*. There are important differences between these two constructs, and an even more important relationship among testing, assessing, and teaching.

### WHAT IS A TEST?

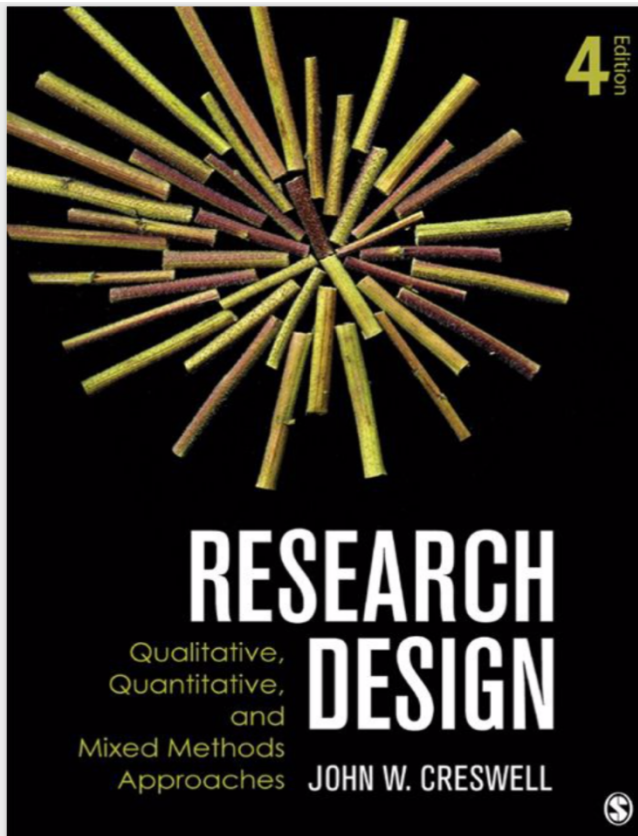
A test, in simple terms, is a *method of measuring a person's ability, knowledge, or performance in a given domain*. Let's look at the components of this definition. A test is first a **method**. It is an instrument—a set of techniques, procedures, or items—that requires performance on the part of the test-taker. To qualify as a test, the method must be explicit and structured: multiple-choice questions with prescribed correct answers; a writing prompt with a scoring rubric; an oral interview based on a question script and a checklist of expected responses to be filled in by the administrator.

Second, a test must **measure**. Some tests measure general ability, while others focus on very specific competencies or objectives. A multi-skill proficiency test determines a general ability level; a quiz on recognizing correct use of definite articles measures specific knowledge. The way the results or measurements are communicated may vary. Some tests, such as a classroom-based short-answer essay test, may earn the test-taker a letter grade accompanied by the instructor's marginal comments. Others, particularly large-scale standardized tests, provide a total numerical score, a percentile rank, and perhaps some subscores. If an instrument does not specify a form of reporting measurement—a means for offering the test-taker some kind of result—then that technique cannot appropriately be defined as a test.

Next, a test measures an **individual's** ability, knowledge, or performance. Testers need to understand who the test-takers are. What is their previous experience and background? Is the test appropriately matched to their abilities? How should test-takers interpret their scores?

A test measures **performance**, but the results imply the test-taker's ability, or, to use a concept common in the field of linguistics, **competence**. Most language tests measure one's ability to perform language, that is, to speak, write, read, or listen to a subset of language. On the other hand, it is not uncommon to find tests designed to tap into a test-taker's knowledge **about** language: defining a vocabulary item, reciting a grammatical rule, or identifying a rhetorical feature in written discourse. Performance-based tests sample the test-taker's actual use of language, but from those samples the test administrator infers general competence. A test of reading comprehension, for example, may consist of several short reading passages each followed by a limited number of comprehension questions—a small sample of a second language learner's total reading behavior. But from the results of that test, the examiner may infer a certain level of general reading ability.

Creswell



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## QUANTITATIVE THEORY USE

### Variables in Quantitative Research

Before discussing quantitative theories, it is important to understand variables and the types that are used in forming theories. A *variable* refers to a characteristic or attribute of an individual or an organization that can be measured or observed and that varies among the people or organization being studied. This variance means that scores in a given situation fall into at least two mutually exclusive categories (Thompson, 2006). Psychologists prefer to use the term *construct* (rather than *variable*), which carries the connotation more of an abstract idea than a specifically defined term. However, social scientists typically use the term *variable*, and it will be employed in this discussion. Variables often measured in studies include gender; age; socioeconomic status (SES); and attitudes or behaviors such as racism, social control, political power, or leadership. Several texts provide detailed discussions about the types of variables one can use and their scales of measurement (e.g., Isaac & Michael, 1981; Keppel, 1991; Kerlinger, 1979; Thompson, 2006; Thorndike, 1997). Variables are distinguished by two characteristics: (a) *temporal order* and (b) their measurement (or observation).

*Temporal order* means that one variable precedes another in time. Because of this time ordering, it is said that one variable affects or causes another variable; though a more accurate statement would be that one variable *probably* causes another. When dealing with studies in the natural setting and with humans, researchers cannot absolutely prove cause and effect (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991), and social scientists now say that there is "probable causation." *Temporal order* means that quantitative researchers think about variables in an order from "left to right" (Punch, 2005) and order the variables in purpose statements, research questions, and visual models into left-to-right, cause-and-effect type presentations. Thus, see the following:

- *Independent variables* are those that (probably) cause, influence, or affect outcomes. They are also called *treatment, manipulated, antecedent, or predictor* variables.

- *Dependent variables* are those that depend on the independent variables; they are the outcomes or results of the influence of the independent variables. Other names for dependent variables are *criterion, outcome, effect, and response* variables.

- *Intervening or mediating variables* stand between the independent and dependent variables, and they mediate the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable. For example, if students do well on a research methods test (dependent variable), results may be due to (a) their study preparation (independent variable) and/or (b) their organization of study ideas into a framework (intervening variable) that influenced their performance on the test. The mediating variable, the organization of study, stands between the independent and dependent variables in the probable causal link.

- *Moderating variables* are independent variables that affect the direction and/or the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Thompson, 2006). These moderating variables are new variables constructed by a researcher by taking one variable and multiplying it by another to determine the joint impact of both on the dependent variable (e.g., age X attitudes toward quality of life impacting self-esteem). These variables are typically found in experiments.

- Two other types of variables are *control variables* and *confounding variables*. Control variables play an active role in quantitative studies. These are a special type of independent variable that researchers measure because they potentially influence the dependent variable. Researchers use statistical procedures (e.g., analysis of covariance [ANCOVA]) to control for these variables. They may be demographic or personal variables (e.g., age or gender) that need to be "controlled" so that the true influence of the independent variable on the dependent can be determined. Another type of variable, a *confounding (or spurious) variable*, is not actually measured or observed in a study. It exists, but its influence cannot be directly detected. Researchers comment on the influence of confounding variables after the study has been completed, because these variables may have operated to explain the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable, but they were not or could not be easily assessed (e.g., a confounding variable such as discriminatory attitudes).

In a quantitative research study, variables are related to answer a research question (e.g., "How does self-esteem influence the formation of friendships among adolescents?") or to make predictions about what the researcher expects the results to show. These predictions are called *hypotheses* (e.g., "Individual positive self-esteem expands the number of friends of adolescents.")